

# Industrial and organizational psychology

2014 - Anoiko's Wikis

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# Chapter 1

## Industrial and organizational psychology

**Industrial and organizational psychology** (also known as **I–O psychology**, **occupational psychology**, **work psychology**, **WO psychology**, **IWO psychology** and **business psychology**) is the scientific study of human behavior in the workplace and applies psychological theories and principles to organizations. I–O psychologists are trained in the scientist–practitioner model. I–O psychologists contribute to an organization’s success by improving the performance, satisfaction, safety, health and well-being of its employees. An I–O psychologist conducts research on employee behaviors and attitudes, and how these can be improved through hiring practices, training programs, feedback, and management systems.<sup>[1]</sup> I–O psychologists also help organizations and their employees transition among periods of change and organization development.

I–O psychology is one of the 14 recognized specialties and proficiencies in professional psychology in the United States<sup>[2]</sup> and is represented by Division 14 of the **American Psychological Association (APA)**, known formally as the **Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP)**. In the UK, industrial and organizational psychologists are referred to as occupational psychologists and one of 7 ‘protected titles’ and specializations in psychology regulated by the **Health and Care Professions Council**.<sup>[3]</sup> In Australia, the title organizational psychologist is also protected by law and is regulated by the **Australian Health Practitioner Regulation Agency (AHPRA)**. Organizational psychology is one of nine areas of specialist endorsement for psychology practice in Australia.<sup>[4]</sup> Graduate programs at both the Masters and Doctorate level are offered worldwide. In the UK graduate degrees are accredited by the **British Psychological Society** and required as part of the process to become an occupational psychologist.<sup>[5]</sup> In Europe someone with a specialist EuroPsy Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology is a fully qualified psychologist and an expert in the work psychology field with further advanced education and training.<sup>[6]</sup>

### 1.1 Historical overview

The historical development of I–O psychology had parallel developments in the United States and other countries, such as the UK,<sup>[7]</sup> Australia, Germany, the Netherlands,<sup>[8]</sup> and eastern European countries such as Romania.<sup>[9]</sup> However, many foreign countries do not have a published English language account of their development of I–O psychology. The roots of I–O psychology trace back nearly to the beginning of psychology as a science, when **Wilhelm Wundt** founded one of the first psychological laboratories in 1876 in Leipzig, Germany. In the mid 1880s, Wundt trained two psychologists who had a major influence on the eventual emergence of I–O Psychology: **Hugo Münsterberg** and **James McKeen Cattell**.<sup>[10]</sup> Instead of viewing differences as “errors”, Cattell was one of the first to recognize the importance of these differences among individuals as a way of predicting and better understanding their behavior. **Walter Dill Scott**, who was a contemporary of Cattell, was elected President of the American Psychological Association (APA) in 1919, was arguably the most prominent I–O psychologist of his time. Scott, along with **Walter Van Dyke Bingham** worked at the **Carnegie Institute of Technology**, developing methods for selecting and training sales personnel<sup>[11]</sup>

The “industrial” side of I–O psychology has its historical origins in research on individual differences, assessment, and the prediction of work performance. This branch crystallized during World War I, in response to the need to rapidly assign new troops to duty stations. Scott and Bingham volunteered to help with the testing and placement of more than a million army recruits. In 1917, together, along with other prominent psychologists, adapted a well-known intelligence test, (the **Stanford-Binet test**, designed for testing one individual at a time) to make it suitable for mass group testing. This new test form was called the **Army Alpha**. After the War, the growing industrial base in the US added impetus to I–O psychology. The private industry set out to emulate the successful testing of army personnel, and mental ability testing soon became a commonplace in the work setting. Industrial psychology began to gain prominence when **Elton Mayo** arrived in the United States in 1924.<sup>[12]</sup>

Mayo was fascinated by not the efficiency of workers, but their emotions and how work may cause workers to act in particular pathological ways. These observations of workers' thoughts and emotions were studied to see how prone employees would be to resist management attempts to increase productivity and how sympathetic to labor unions they would become. These studies are known as **Hawthorne studies**. The results of these studies ushered in a radically new movement known as the **Human Relations Movement**. This movement was interested in the more complicated theories of motivation, the emotional world of the worker, job satisfaction, and interviews with workers.

World War II brought in new problems that led to I-O Psychology's continued development. The war brought renewed interest in ability testing (to accurately place recruits in these new technologically advanced military jobs), the introduction of the assessment center, concern with morale and fatigue of war industry workers, and military intelligence. Post-Second World War years were a boom time for industry with many jobs to be filled and applicants to be tested. Interestingly, however, when the war ended and the soldiers came back to work, there was an increasing trend towards labor unrest with rising numbers of authorized and unauthorized work stoppages staged by unions and workers. This caused management to grow concern about work productivity and worker attitude surveys became of much interest in the field. Following Industrial Organizational Psychology's admission into Division 14 of the American Psychological Association, there continued to be an influx of new tests for selection, productivity, and workforce stability. This influx continued unabated until the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Section, Title VII dealt with employment discrimination and required employers to justify and show relevance for the use of tests for selection.

The mid-1960s seemed to mark a line of demarcation between "classic" and "modern" thinking. During this period, the name changed from just industrial psychology to industrial and organizational psychology. The earlier periods addressed work behavior from the individual perspective, examining performance and attitudes of individual workers. Although this was a valuable approach, it became clear that there were other, broader influences not only on individual, but also on group behavior in the work place. Thus, in 1973, "organizational" was added to the name to emphasize the fact that when an individual joins an organization (e.g., the organization that hired him or her), he or she will be exposed to a common goal and a common set of operating procedures.

In the 1970s in the United Kingdom, references to occupational psychology became more common than I-O psychology. Rigor and methods of psychology are applied to issues of critical relevance to business, including talent management, coaching, assessment, selection, training, organizational development, performance, well-being and work-life balance. During the 1990s references

to "business psychology" became increasingly common. Business psychology is defined as the study and practice of improving working life. It combines an understanding of the science of human behavior with experience of the world of work to attain effective and sustainable performance for both individuals and organizations.

## 1.2 Research methods

See also: **Psychometrics and Statistics**

As described above, I-O psychologists are trained in the scientist-practitioner model. I-O psychologists rely on a variety of methods to conduct organizational research. Study designs employed by I-O psychologists include surveys, experiments, quasi-experiments, and observational studies. I-O psychologists rely on diverse data sources including human judgments, historical databases, objective measures of work performance (e.g., sales volume), and questionnaires and surveys.

I-O researchers employ both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Quantitative methods used in I-O psychology include both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics (e.g., correlation, multiple regression, and analysis of variance). More advanced statistical methods employed by some I-O psychologists include logistic regression, multivariate analysis of variance, structural equation modeling,<sup>[13]</sup> and hierarchical linear modeling (HLM; also known as multilevel modeling).<sup>[14]</sup> HLM is particularly applicable to research on team- and organization-level effects on individuals. I-O psychologists also employ psychometric methods including methods associated with classical test theory (CTT),<sup>[15]</sup> generalizability theory, and item response theory (IRT).<sup>[16]</sup> In the 1990s, a growing body of empirical research in I-O psychology was influential in the application of meta-analysis, particularly in the area of the stability of research findings across contexts. The most well-known meta-analytic approaches are those associated with Hunter & Schmidt,<sup>[17][18][19]</sup> Rosenthal,<sup>[20][21]</sup> and Hedges & Olkin.<sup>[22]</sup> With the help of meta-analysis, Hunter & Schmidt<sup>[23][24]</sup> advanced the idea of validity generalization, which suggests that some performance predictors, specifically cognitive ability tests (see especially Hunter [1986]<sup>[25]</sup> and Hunter & Schmidt [1996]<sup>[26]</sup>) have a relatively stable and positive relation to job performance across all jobs. Although not unchallenged, validity generalization has broad acceptance with regard to many selection instruments (e.g. cognitive ability tests, job knowledge tests, work samples, and structured interviews) across a broad range of jobs.

Qualitative methods employed in I-O psychology include content analysis, focus groups, interviews, case studies, and several other observational techniques. I-O research on organizational culture research has employed

ethnographic techniques and participant observation to collect data. One well-known qualitative technique employed in I–O psychology is John Flanagan’s *Critical Incident Technique*,<sup>[27]</sup> which requires “qualified observers” (e.g., pilots in studies of aviation, construction workers in studies of construction projects) to describe a work situation that resulted in a good or bad outcome. Objectivity is ensured when multiple observers identify the same incidents. The observers are also asked to provide information about what the actor in the situation could have done differently to influence the outcome. This technique is then used to describe the critical elements of performance in certain jobs and how worker behavior relates to outcomes. Most notably, this technique has been employed to improve performance among aircraft crews and surgical teams, literally saving thousands of lives since its introduction. An application of the technique in research on coping with job stress comes from O’Driscoll & Cooper.<sup>[28]</sup> The resistance to qualitative research resulted from viewing it too excessively subjective. This concern, however, is misplaced due to all methods of research, either qualitative or quantitative, ultimately requiring some sort of interpretation. When a researcher is developing and researching a phenomenon, all information available should be used, regardless of its form. The key is triangulation, which is an approach looking for converging information from different sources to develop that theory.<sup>[29]</sup>

I–O psychologists sometimes use quantitative and qualitative methods in concert. The two are not mutually exclusive.<sup>[29]</sup> For example, when constructing behaviorally-anchored rating scales (BARS), a job analyst may use qualitative methods, such as critical incidents interviews and focus groups to collect data bearing on performance. Then the analyst would have SMEs rate those examples on a Likert scale and compute inter-rater agreement statistics to judge the adequacy of each item. Each potential item would additionally be correlated with an external criterion in order to evaluate its usefulness if it were to be selected to be included in a BARS metric. As a simpler example, consider an extended observation of a worker, which might include videotaped episodes of performance - a qualitative measure. The qualitative video could easily be used to develop a frequency count of a particular behavior - a quantitative measure.

## 1.3 Topics

### 1.3.1 Job analysis

Main article: *Job analysis*

Job analysis has a few different methods but it primarily involves the systematic collection of information about a job. The task-oriented job analysis, involves an examination of the duties, tasks, and/or competencies required by

a job, whereas a worker-oriented job analysis, involves an examination of the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs) required to successfully perform the work. Job analysis information is used for many purposes, including the creation of job-relevant selection procedures, performance appraisals and criteria, or training programs. Position analysis questionnaire is a particular analysis that is used to determine an individual’s job characteristics and relates them to human characteristics.

### 1.3.2 Personnel recruitment and selection

Main article: *Personnel selection*

I–O psychologists typically work with HR specialists to design (a) recruitment processes and (b) personnel selection systems. Personnel recruitment is the process of identifying qualified candidates in the workforce and getting them to apply for jobs within an organization. Personnel recruitment processes include developing job announcements, placing ads, defining key qualifications for applicants, and screening out unqualified applicants.

Personnel selection is the systematic process of hiring and promoting personnel. Personnel selection systems employ evidence-based practices to determine the most qualified candidates. Personnel selection involves both the newly hired and individuals who can be promoted from within the organization. Common selection tools include ability tests (e.g., cognitive, physical, or psychomotor), knowledge tests, personality tests, structured interviews, the systematic collection of biographical data, and work samples. I–O psychologists must evaluate evidence regarding the extent to which selection tools predict job performance, evidence that bears on the validity of selection tools.

Personnel selection procedures are usually validated, i.e., shown to be job relevant, using one or more of the following types of validity: content validity, construct validity, and/or criterion-related validity. I–O psychologists adhere to professional standards, such as the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology’s (SIOP) *Principles for Validation and Use of Personnel Selection Procedures*<sup>[30]</sup> and the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing.<sup>[31]</sup> The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission’s *Uniform Guidelines*<sup>[32]</sup> are also influential in guiding personnel selection although they have been criticized as outdated when compared to the current state of knowledge in I–O psychology.

I–O psychologists not only help in the selection and assessment of personnel for jobs, but also assist in the selection of students for admission to colleges, universities, and graduate and professional schools as well as the assessment of student achievement, student aptitude, and the performance of teachers and K–12 schools. Increasingly, I–O psychologists are working for educational as-

assessment and testing organizations and divisions.

A meta-analysis of selection methods in personnel psychology found that **general mental ability** was the best overall predictor of job performance and training performance.<sup>[33]</sup>

### 1.3.3 Performance appraisal/management

Main articles: **Performance appraisal** and **Performance management**

Performance appraisal or **performance evaluation** is the process of measuring an individual's or a group's work behaviors and outcomes against the expectations of the job.<sup>[34]</sup> Performance appraisal is frequently used in promotion and compensation decisions, to help design and validate personnel selection procedures, and for performance management. Performance management is the process of providing performance feedback relative to expectations and improvement information (e.g., coaching, mentoring). Performance management may also include documenting and tracking performance information for organization-level evaluation purposes.

An I–O psychologist would typically use information from the job analysis to determine a job's performance dimensions, and then construct a rating scale to describe each level of performance for the job. Often, the I–O psychologist would be responsible for training organizational personnel how to use the performance appraisal instrument, including ways to minimize bias when using the rating scale, and how to provide effective performance feedback. Additionally, the I–O psychologist may consult with the organization on ways to use the performance appraisal information for broader performance management initiatives.

### 1.3.4 Individual assessment and psychometrics

Main articles: **Individual assessment** and **Psychometrics**

**Individual assessment** involves the measurement of **individual differences**. I–O psychologists perform individual assessments in order to evaluate differences among candidates for employment as well as differences among employees.<sup>[35]</sup> The constructs measured pertain to job performance. With candidates for employment, individual assessment is often part of the personnel selection process. These assessments can include written tests, aptitude tests, physical tests, psycho-motor tests, **personality tests**, integrity and reliability tests, work samples, simulation and assessment centres.<sup>[35]</sup>

Psychometrics is the science of measuring psychological variables, such as knowledge, skills, and abilities. I–O

psychologists are generally well-trained in psychometric psychology.

### 1.3.5 Occupational health and wellbeing

I/O psychologists and researchers are also concerned with occupational health and **wellbeing**. Researchers have examined the effect of **physical exercise**, and staying vigorous at work. Sonnentag and Niessen (2008) found that staying vigorous during working hours is important for work-related behaviour, subjective well-being, and for effective functioning in the family domain. Individuals high on their general level of vigour at work, benefited most from recovery experienced over the course of several days.<sup>[36]</sup> A 2010 study found positive relationships between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, happiness, positive affect, and the absence of **negative affect** and feelings of positive wellbeing.<sup>[37]</sup> Other researchers have looked at the negative health impacts of mature-aged unemployment.<sup>[38]</sup> Another recent study conducted by Potocnik & Sonnentag (2013) examined the impact of engaging in seven types of activities on **depression** and **quality of life** in older workers over a period of 2 years, using a sample from the **Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe**. Results indicated that I/O psychologists should make attempts to reduce physical demands over older employees at work, to help improve their health and well-being. Practitioners should also design intervention programmes and preventive measures that focus on how to stimulate older employees' engagement in community activities.<sup>[39]</sup> I/O research has also examined effects of job mobility and negative health effects, including **burnout** in workers.<sup>[40]</sup>

### 1.3.6 Workplace bullying, aggression and violence

Main articles: **Workplace bullying**, **Workplace aggression** and **Workplace violence**

I/O psychology and I/O psychologists are also concerned with the related topics of workplace bullying, aggression and violence.<sup>[41]</sup> This 2010 study investigated the impact of the larger organizational context on bullying as well as the group-level processes that impact on the incidence, and maintenance of bullying behaviour.<sup>[42]</sup> The impact of engaging in certain thought patterns after exposure to workplace violence has also been examined.<sup>[43]</sup> This 2011 research examines the detrimental effect that interpersonal aggressive behaviours may have on dimensions of team effectiveness particularly team performance and team viability.<sup>[44]</sup>

### 1.3.7 Remuneration and compensation

Main article: Remuneration

Compensation includes wages or salary, bonuses, pension/retirement contributions, and **perquisites** that can be converted to cash or replace living expenses. I–O psychologists may be asked to conduct a **job evaluation** for the purpose of determining compensation levels and ranges. I–O psychologists may also serve as expert witnesses in pay discrimination cases when disparities in pay for similar work are alleged.

### 1.3.8 Training and training evaluation

Main article: Training

Training is the systematic acquisition of skills, concepts, or attitudes that results in improved performance in another environment.<sup>[45]</sup> Most people hired for a job are not already versed in all the tasks required to perform the job effectively. Evidence indicates that training is effective and that these training expenditures are paying off in terms of higher net sales and gross profitability per employee.<sup>[46]</sup> Training can be beneficial for the organization and for employees in terms of increasing their value to their organization as well as their employability in the broader marketplace. Many organizations are using training and development as a way to attract and retain their most successful employees.

Similar to performance management (see above), an I–O psychologist would employ a **job analysis** in concert with principles of **instructional design** to create an effective training program. A training program is likely to include a **summative evaluation** at its conclusion in order to ensure that trainees have met the training objectives and can perform the target work tasks at an acceptable level. Training programs often include **formative evaluations** to assess the impact of the training as the training proceeds. Formative evaluations can be used to locate problems in training procedures and help I–O psychologists make corrective adjustments while the training is ongoing.

The basic foundation for training programs is **learning**. Learning outcomes can be organized into three broad categories: cognitive, skill-based, and affective outcomes.<sup>[47]</sup> Cognitive is a type of learning outcome that includes declarative knowledge or the knowledge of rules, facts, and principles. An example is police officers acquire declarative knowledge about laws and court procedures. Skill-based is a learning outcome that concerns procedural knowledge and the development of motor and technical skills. An example is motor skills that involve the coordination of physical movements such as using a special tool or flying a certain aircraft, whereas technical skills might include understanding a certain software program, or exhibiting effective

customer relations behaviors. Affective is a type of learning outcome that includes attitudes or beliefs that predispose a person to behave in a certain way. Attitudes can be developed or changed through training programs. Examples of these attitudes are organizational commitment and appreciation of diversity.<sup>[48]</sup>

Before training design issues are considered, a careful needs analysis is required to develop a systematic understanding of where training is needed, what needs to be taught or trained, and who will be trained.<sup>[45]</sup> **Training needs analysis** typically involves a three step process that includes **organizational analysis**, **task analysis** and **person analysis**.<sup>[49]</sup> Organizational analysis examines organizational goals, available resources, and the organizational environment to determine where training should be directed. This analysis identifies the training needs of different departments or subunits and systematically assessing manager, peer, and technological support for transfer of training. Organizational analysis also takes into account the climate of the organization and its subunits. For example, if a climate for safety is emphasized throughout the organization or in particular parts of the organization (e.g., production), then training needs will likely reflect this emphasis.<sup>[50]</sup> Task analysis uses the results from job analysis on determining what is needed for successful job performance and then determines what the content of training should be. Task analysis can consist of developing task statements, determining homogeneous task clusters, and identifying KSAOs (knowledge, skills, abilities, other characteristics) required for the job. With organizations increasingly trying to identify “core competencies” that are required for all jobs, task analysis can also include an assessment of competencies.<sup>[51]</sup> Person analysis identifies which individuals within an organization should receive training and what kind of instruction they need. Employee needs can be assessed using a variety of methods that identify weaknesses that training and development can address. The needs analysis makes it possible to identify the training program’s objectives, which in turn, represents the information for both the trainer and trainee about what is to be learned for the benefit of the organization.

Therefore with any training program it is key to establish specify training objectives. Schultz & Schultz (2010) states that **need assessment** is an analysis of corporate and individual goals undertaken before designing a training program. Examples of need assessment are based on organizational, task, and work analysis is conducted using job analysis critical incidents, performance appraisal, and self-assessment techniques.<sup>[52](p164)</sup>

But with any training there are always challenges that one faces. Challenges which I–O psychologists face:<sup>[52](p185)</sup>

- To identify the abilities required to perform increasingly complex jobs.
- To provide job opportunities for unskilled workers.



- To assist supervisors in the management of an ethnically diverse workforce.
- To retain workers displaced by changing economic, technological, and political forces.
- To help organizations remain competitive in the international marketplace.
- To conduct the necessary research to determine the effectiveness of training programs.

### 1.3.9 Motivation in the workplace

Main article: [Work motivation](#)

Work motivation “is a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual’s being, to initiate work-related behavior, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration”<sup>[53]</sup> Understanding what motivates an organization’s employees is central to the study of I–O psychology. Motivation is a person’s internal disposition to be concerned with an approach positive incentives and avoid negative incentives. To further this, an *incentive* is the anticipated reward or aversive event available in the environment.<sup>[54]</sup> While motivation can often be used as a tool to help predict behavior, it varies greatly among individuals and must often be combined with ability and environmental factors to actually influence behavior and performance. Because of motivation’s role in influencing workplace behavior and performance, it is key for organizations to understand and to structure the work environment to encourage productive behaviors and discourage those that are unproductive.<sup>[55]</sup><sup>[56]</sup>

There is general consensus that motivation involves three psychological processes: arousal, direction, and intensity. Arousal is what initiates action. It is fueled by a person’s need or desire for something that is missing from their lives at a given moment, either totally or partially. Direction refers to the path employees take in accomplishing the goals they set for themselves. Finally, intensity is the vigor and amount of energy employees put into this goal-directed work performance. The level of intensity is based on the importance and difficulty of the goal. These psychological processes result in four outcomes. First, motivation serves to direct attention, focusing on particular issues, people, tasks, etc. It also serves to stimulate an employee to put forth effort. Next, motivation results in persistence, preventing one from deviating from the goal-seeking behavior. Finally, motivation results in task strategies, which as defined by Mitchell & Daniels, are “patterns of behavior produced to reach a particular goal.”<sup>[56]</sup>

### 1.3.10 Occupational stress

Main article: [Occupational stress](#)

I/O psychologists are involved in the research and the practice of occupational stress and design of individual and organizational interventions to manage and reduce the stress levels and increase productivity, performance, health and wellbeing.<sup>[57][58][59]</sup> Occupational stress is concerned with physical and psychosocial working conditions (termed stressors) that can elicit negative responses (termed strains) from employees.<sup>[60][61]</sup> Occupational stress can have implications for organizational performance because of the emotions job stress evokes. For example, a job stressor such as conflict with a supervisor can precipitate anger that in turn motivates counterproductive workplace behaviors.<sup>[62]</sup> Job-related hindrance stressors are directly (and challenge stressors inversely) related to turnover and turnover intentions.<sup>[63]</sup> I/O research has examined the relations among work stressors and workplace aggression, withdrawal, theft, and substance abuse,<sup>[64]</sup> strategies that individuals use to cope with work stress and prevent occupational burnout,<sup>[65]</sup> and the relation of work stress to depressive symptoms.<sup>[66]</sup>

A number of models have been developed to explain the job stress process. Examples of models that have influenced research include the person-environment fit model<sup>[67]</sup> and the demand-control model.<sup>[68]</sup> Research has also examined the interaction among personality variables and stressors and their effects on employee strains.<sup>[69]</sup> I/O psychology is also concerned with the physical health outcomes caused by occupational stress. For instance, researchers at the institute of work psychology (IWP) examined the mediating role of psychological strain in relation to musculoskeletal disorders.<sup>[70]</sup>

Research has also examined occupational stress in specific occupations. For example, there has been research on job stress in police,<sup>[71]</sup> teachers,<sup>[72]</sup> general practitioners,<sup>[73]</sup> and dentists.<sup>[74]</sup> Another concern has been the relation of occupational stress to family life.<sup>[75][76]</sup> Other research has examined gender differences in leadership style and job stress and strain in the context of male- and female-dominated industries,<sup>[77]</sup> burnout in the human services and other occupations,<sup>[78]</sup> and unemployment-related distress.<sup>[79][80][81]</sup> I/O psychology is also concerned with the relation of occupational stress to career advancement.<sup>[82]</sup>

### 1.3.11 Occupational health and safety

Main article: [Occupational health and safety](#)

Occupational health and safety is concerned with how the work environment contributes to illness and injury of workers. Of particular importance are psychosocial hazards or risk factors that include fatigue, workplace

violence, workplace bullying. Other factors important to employee health and well-being include work schedules (e.g., night shifts), work/family conflict, and burnout.<sup>[83][84]</sup> Tools have been developed by I/O researchers and psychologists to measure these psychosocial risk factors in the workplace and “stress audits” can be used to help organizations remain compliant with various occupational health and safety regulations around the world.<sup>[85]</sup>

Another area of concern is the high rate of occupational fatalities and injuries due to accidents.<sup>[86]</sup> There is also research interest in how psychosocial hazards affect physical ailments like **musculoskeletal disorder**.<sup>[87]</sup> A contributing psychosocial factor to accidents is safety climate, that concerns organizational policies and practices concerning safe behavior at work.<sup>[88]</sup> A related concept that has to do with psychological well-being as opposed to accidents is psychosocial safety climate (PSC). PSC refers to policies, practices, and procedures for the protection of worker psychological health and safety.<sup>[89]</sup> Safety leadership is another area of occupational health and safety I/O psychology is concerned with, where specific leadership styles affect safety compliance and safety participation.<sup>[90][91]</sup>

### 1.3.12 Organizational culture

Main article: [Organizational culture](#)

Organizational culture can be described as a set of assumptions shared by the individuals in an organization that directs interpretation and action by defining appropriate behavior for various situations. There are three levels of organizational culture: artifacts, shared values, and basic beliefs and assumptions. Artifacts comprise the physical components of the organization that relay cultural meaning. Shared values are individuals’ preferences regarding certain aspects of the organization’s culture (e.g., loyalty, customer service). Basic beliefs and assumptions include individuals’ impressions about the trustworthiness and supportiveness of an organization, and are often deeply ingrained within the organization’s culture.

In addition to an overall culture, organizations also have subcultures. Examples of subcultures include corporate culture, departmental culture, local culture, and issue-related culture. While there is no single “type” of organizational culture, some researchers have developed models to describe different organizational cultures.

Organizational culture has been shown to have an impact on important organizational outcomes such as performance, attraction, recruitment, retention, employee satisfaction, and employee well-being. Also, organizations with an adaptive culture tend to perform better than organizations with an maladaptive culture.

### 1.3.13 Group behavior

Main article: [Group behavior](#)

Group behavior is the interaction between individuals of a collective and the processes such as opinions, attitudes, growth, **feedback loops**, and adaptations that occur and change as a result of this interaction.<sup>[92]</sup> The interactions serve to fulfill some need satisfaction of an individual who is part of the collective and helps to provide a basis for his interaction with specific members of the group.<sup>[55]</sup>

A specific area of research in group behavior is the dynamics of **teams**. Team effectiveness refers to the system of getting people in a company or institution to work together effectively. The idea behind team effectiveness is that a group of people working together can achieve much more than if the individuals of the team were working on their own.

#### Team effectiveness

Main article: [Team effectiveness](#)

Organizations support the use of teams, because teams can accomplish a much greater amount of work in a short period of time than can be accomplished by an individual contributor, and because the collective results of a group of contributors can produce higher quality deliverables.<sup>[55]</sup> Five elements that are contributors to team effectiveness include:<sup>[55]</sup>

1. team composition
2. task design
3. organizational resources
4. team rewards
5. team goals.

I/O research has looked at the negative impacts of workplace aggression on team performance and particularly team effectiveness as was evidenced in a recent study by Aube and Rousseau.<sup>[93]</sup>

#### Team composition

The composition of teams is initially decided during the selection of individual contributors that are to be assigned to specific teams and has a direct bearing on the resulting effectiveness of those teams. Aspects of team composition that should be considered during the team selection process include team member: knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs), personalities, and attitudes.<sup>[55]</sup>

As previously stated, one of the reasons organizations support the use of teams is the expectation of the delivery of higher quality results. To achieve these types of results, highly skilled members are more effective than teams built around those with lesser skills, and teams that include a diversity of skills have improved team performance (Guzzo & Shea, 1992). Additionally, increased average cognitive ability of team members has been shown to consistently correlate to increased work group effectiveness (Sundstrom et al., 2000). Therefore, organizations should seek to assign teams with team members that have a mix of KSAs. Teams that are composed of members that have the same KSAs may prove to be ineffective in meeting the team goals, no matter how talented the individual members are.

The personalities and attitudes of the individuals that are selected as team members are other aspects that should be taken into consideration when composing teams, since these individual traits have been found to be good indicators of team effectiveness. For example, a positive relationship between the team-level traits of agreeableness and conscientiousness and the team performance has been shown to exist (Van Vianen & De Dreu, 2001). Differing personalities of individual team members can affect the team climate in a negative way as members may clash and reduce team performance (Barrick, et al., 1998).

### Task design

Main article: [Job design](#)

A fundamental question in team task design is whether or not a task is even appropriate for a team. Those tasks that require predominantly independent work are best left to individuals, and team tasks should include those tasks that consist primarily of interdependent work.<sup>[55]</sup> When a given task is appropriate for a team, task design can play a key role in team effectiveness (Sundstrom, et al., 2000).

The Job Characteristics Theory of motivation identifies core job dimensions that provide motivation for individuals and include: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). These dimensions map well to the team environment. Individual contributors that perform team tasks that are challenging, interesting, and engaging are more likely to be motivated to exert greater effort and perform better than those team members that are working on those tasks that do not have these characteristics.<sup>[55]</sup>

Interrelated to the design of various tasks is the implementation method for the tasks themselves. For example, certain team members may find it challenging to cross train with other team members that have subject matter expertise in areas in which they are not familiar. In utilizing this approach, greater motivation is likely to result for both parties as the expert becomes the mentor and

trainer and the cross-training team member finds learning new tasks to be an interesting change of pace. Such expansions of team task assignments can make teams more effective and require teams to spend greater amounts of time discussing and planning strategies and approaches for completing assigned tasks (Hackman, et al., 1976).

### Organizational resources

Organizational support systems impact the effectiveness of teams (Sundstrom, et al., 1990) and provide resources for teams operating in the multi-team environment. In this case, the provided resources include various resource types that teams require to be effective. During the chartering of new teams, organizational enabling resources are first identified. Examples of enabling resources include facilities, equipment, information, training and leadership.<sup>[55]</sup> Also identified during team chartering are team-specific resources (e.g., budgetary resources, human resources). Team-specific human resources represent the individual contributors that are selected for each team as team members. Intra-team processes (e.g., task design, task assignment) are sufficient for effective utilization of these team-specific resources.

Teams also function in multi-team environments that are dynamic in nature and require teams to respond to shifting organizational contingencies (Salas, et al., 2004). In regards to resources, such contingencies include the constraints imposed by organizational resources that are not specifically earmarked for the exclusive use of certain teams. These types of resources are scarce in nature and must be shared by multiple teams. Examples of these scarce resources include subject matter experts, simulation and testing facilities, and limited amounts of time for the completion of multi-team goals. For these types of shared resources inter-team management processes (e.g.: constraint resource scheduling) must be provided to enable effective multi-team utilization.

### Team rewards

Organizational reward systems are a driver for strengthening and enhancing individual team member efforts that contribute towards reaching collective team goals (Luthans & Kreitner, 1985). In other words, rewards that are given to individual team members should be contingent upon the performance of the entire team (Sundstrom, et al., 1990).

Several design elements of organizational reward systems are needed to meet this objective. The first element for reward systems design is the concept that for a collective assessment to be appropriate for individual team members, the group's tasks must be highly interdependent. If this is not the case, individual assessment is more appropriate than team assessment (Wageman & Baker, 1997). A second design element is the compatibility be-

tween individual-level reward systems and team-level reward systems (DeMatteo, Eby, & Sundstrom, 1998). For example, it would be an unfair situation to reward the entire team for a job well done if only one team member did the great majority of the work. That team member would most likely view teams and team work in a negative fashion and not want to participate in a team setting in the future. A final design element is the creation of an organizational culture that supports and rewards employees who believe in the value of teamwork and who maintain a positive mental attitude towards team-based rewards (Haines and Taggar, 2006).

### Team goals

Goals for individual contributors have been shown to be motivating when they contain three elements: (1) difficulty, (2) acceptance, and (3) specificity (Lock & Latham, 1990). In the team setting, goal difficulty is related to group belief that the team can accomplish the tasks required to meet the assigned goal (Whitney, 1994). This belief (collective efficacy) is somewhat counterintuitive, but rests on team member perception that they now view themselves as more competent than others in the organization who were not chosen to complete such difficult goals. This in turn, can lead to higher levels of performance. Goal acceptance and specificity is also applicable to the team setting. When team members individually and collectively commit to team goals, team effectiveness is increased and is a function of increased supportive team behaviors (Aube & Rousseau, 2005).

As related to the team setting, it is also important to be aware of the interplay between the goals of individual contributors that participate on teams and the goals of the teams themselves. The selection of team goals must be done in coordination with the selection of goals for individuals. Individual goals must be in line with team goals (or not exist at all) to be effective (Mitchell & Silver, 1990). For example, a professional ball player that does well in his/her sport is rewarded individually for excellent performance. This individual performance generally contributes to improved team performance which can, in turn, lead to team recognition, such as a league championship.

### 1.3.14 Job satisfaction and commitment

Main article: *Job satisfaction*

Job satisfaction reflects an employee's overall assessment of their job, particularly their emotions, behaviors, and attitudes about their work experience. It is one of the most heavily researched topics in industrial-organizational psychology with several thousand published studies. Job satisfaction has theoretical and practical utility for the field of psychology and has been linked

to important job outcomes including attitudinal variables, absenteeism, employee turnover, and job performance. For instance, job satisfaction is strongly correlated with attitudinal variables such as job involvement, organizational commitment, job tensions, frustration, and feelings of anxiety. A 2010 meta-analysis found positive relationships between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, happiness, positive affect, and the absence of negative affect.<sup>[94]</sup> Job satisfaction also has a weak correlation with employee's absentee behaviors and turnover from an organization with employees more likely to miss work or find other jobs if they are not satisfied. Finally, research has found that although a positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and performance, it is moderated by the use of rewards at an organization and the strength of employee's attitudes about their job.

### 1.3.15 Productive behavior

Productive behavior is defined as employee behavior that contributes positively to the goals and objectives of an organization.<sup>[55]</sup> When an employee begins a new job, there is a transition period during which he or she is not contributing positively to the organization. To successfully transition from being an outsider to a full-fledged member of an organization, an employee typically needs job-related training as well as more general information about the culture of the organization. In financial terms, productive behavior represents the point at which an organization begins to achieve some return on the investment it has made in a new employee.<sup>[55]</sup> Industrial-organizational psychologists are typically more focused on productive behavior rather than simple job or task performance because of the ability to account for extra-role performance in addition to in-role performance. While in-role performance tells managers or researchers how well the employee performs the required technical aspects of the job, extra-role performance includes behaviors not necessarily required as part of the job but still contribute to organizational effectiveness. By taking both in-role and extra-role performance into account, industrial-organizational psychologists are able to assess employees' effectiveness (how well they do what they were hired to do), efficiency (their relative outputs to relative inputs), and their productivity (how much they help the organization reach its goals). Jex & Britt outline three different forms of productive behavior that industrial-organizational psychologists frequently evaluate in organizations: job performance; organizational citizenship behavior; and innovation.<sup>[55]</sup>

### Job performance

Main article: *Job performance*

Job performance represents behaviors employees engage in while at work which contribute to organizational goals.<sup>[95]</sup> These behaviors are formally evaluated by an organization as part of an employee's responsibilities.<sup>[95]</sup> In order to understand and ultimately predict job performance, it is important to be precise when defining the term. Job performance is about behaviors that are within the control of the employee and not about results (effectiveness), the costs involved in achieving results (productivity), the results that can be achieved in a period of time (efficiency), or the value an organization places on a given level of performance, effectiveness, productivity or efficiency (utility).<sup>[55]</sup>

To model job performance, researchers have attempted to define a set of dimensions that are common to all jobs. Using a common set of dimensions provides a consistent basis for assessing performance and enables the comparison of performance across jobs. Performance is commonly broken into two major categories: in-role (technical aspects of a job) and extra-role (non-technical abilities such as communication skills and being a good team member). While this distinction in behavior has been challenged<sup>[96]</sup> it is commonly made by both employees and management.<sup>[97]</sup> A model of performance by Campbell breaks performance into in-role and extra-role categories.<sup>[95][98]</sup> Campbell labeled job-specific task proficiency and non-job-specific task proficiency as in-role dimensions, while written and oral communication, demonstrating effort, maintaining personal discipline, facilitating peer and team performance, supervision and leadership and management and administration are labeled as extra-role dimensions.<sup>[55]</sup> Murphy's model of job performance also broke job performance into in-role and extra-role categories.<sup>[99]</sup> However, task-orientated behaviors composed the in-role category and the extra-role category included interpersonally-oriented behaviors, down-time behaviors and destructive and hazardous behaviors.<sup>[55]</sup> However, it has been challenged as to whether the measurement of job performance is usually done through pencil/paper tests, job skills tests, on-site hands-on tests, off-site hands-on tests, high-fidelity simulations, symbolic simulations, task ratings and global ratings.<sup>[100]</sup> These various tools are often used to evaluate performance on specific tasks and overall job performance.<sup>[55]</sup> Van Dyne and LePine developed a measurement model in which overall job performance was evaluated using Campbell's in-role and extra-role categories.<sup>[97]</sup> Here, in-role performance was reflected through how well "employees met their performance expectations and performed well at the tasks that made up the employees' job."<sup>[101]</sup> Dimensions regarding how well the employee assists others with their work for the benefit of the group, if the employee voices new ideas for projects or changes to procedure and whether the employee attends functions that help the group composed the extra-role category.

To assess job performance, reliable and valid measures

must be established. While there are many sources of error with performance ratings, error can be reduced through rater training<sup>[102]</sup> and through the use of behaviorally-anchored rating scales. Such scales can be used to clearly define the behaviors that constitute poor, average, and superior performance.<sup>[95]</sup> Additional factors that complicate the measurement of job performance include the instability of job performance over time due to forces such as changing performance criteria, the structure of the job itself<sup>[99]</sup> and the restriction of variation in individual performance by organizational forces. These factors include errors in job measurement techniques, acceptance and the justification of poor performance and lack of importance of individual performance.

The determinants of job performance consist of factors having to do with the individual worker as well as environmental factors in the workplace. According to Campbell's Model of The Determinants of Job Performance,<sup>[95][98]</sup> job performance is a result of the interaction between declarative knowledge (knowledge of facts or things), procedural knowledge (knowledge of what needs to be done and how to do it), and motivation (reflective of an employee's choices regarding whether to expend effort, the level of effort to expend, and whether to persist with the level of effort chosen).<sup>[55]</sup> The interplay between these factors show that an employee may, for example, have a low level of declarative knowledge, but may still have a high level of performance if the employee has high levels of procedural knowledge and motivation.

Regardless of the job, three determinants stand out as predictors of performance: (1) general mental ability (especially for jobs higher in complexity); (2) job experience (although there is a law of diminishing returns); and (3) the personality trait of conscientiousness (people who are dependable and achievement-oriented, who plan well).<sup>[55]</sup> These determinants appear to influence performance largely through the acquisition and usage of job knowledge and the motivation to do well. Further, an expanding area of research in job performance determinants includes emotional intelligence.<sup>[103][104]</sup>

### 1.3.16 Organizational citizenship behavior

Main article: Organizational citizenship behavior

Organizational citizenship behaviors ("OCBs") are another form of productive behavior, having been shown to be beneficial to both organization and team effectiveness. Dennis Organ is often thought of as the father of OCB research and defines OCBs as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization."<sup>[105]</sup> Behaviors that qualify as OCBs can fall into one of the following five categories: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue.<sup>[105][106][107]</sup>

Researchers have adapted, elaborated, or otherwise changed Organ's (1988) five OCB categories, but they remain popular today. The categories and their descriptions are as follows:

- **Altruism**  
Sometimes referred to as “prosocial behavior” altruistic OCBs include helping behaviors in the workplace such as volunteering to assist a coworker on a project.
- **Courtesy**  
These behaviors can be seen when an employee exhibits basic consideration for others. Examples of courteous OCBs include “checking up” on coworkers to see how they are doing and notifying coworkers of commitments that may cause you to be absent from work.
- **Sportsmanship**  
Unlike other forms of OCBs, sportsmanship involves not engaging in certain behaviors, such as whining and complaining about minor issues or tough work assignments.
- **Conscientiousness**  
Conscientiousness is basically defined as self-discipline and performing tasks beyond the minimum requirements. Conscientious OCBs involve planning ahead, cleanliness, not “slacking off,” adhering to the rules, punctuality, and being an overall good citizen in the workplace.
- **Civic virtue**  
Civic virtue differs from other OCBs because the target of the behavior is the group or organization as a whole, rather than an individual coworker. Civic virtue OCBs include being a good representative of the organization and supporting the organization, especially in its efforts outside of its major business objectives. Examples of civic virtue OCBs are participating in charitable functions held by the organization and defending or otherwise speaking well of the organization.<sup>[105]</sup>

OCBs are also categorized using other methods. For example, Williams and Anderson categorize OCBs by their intended target, separating them into those targeted at individuals (“OCBIs”), supervisors (“OCBSs”), and those targeted at the organization as a whole (“OCBOs”).<sup>[108]</sup> Additionally, Vigoda-Gadot uses a sub-category of OCBs called CCBs, or “compulsory OCBs” which is used to describe OCBs that are done under the influence of coercive persuasion or peer pressure rather than out of good will.<sup>[109]</sup> This theory stems from debates concerning the reasons for conducting OCBs and whether or not they are truly voluntary in nature.

Jex & Britt offer three explanations as to why employees engage in organizational citizenship behavior.<sup>[55]</sup> One relates to positive affect; for example, an overall positive

mood tends to change the frequency of helping behavior to a higher rate. This theory stems from a history of numerous studies indicating that positive mood increases the frequency of helping and prosocial behaviors.<sup>[110]</sup>

A second explanation, which stems from equity theory, is that employees reciprocate fair treatment that they received from the organization. Equity theory researchers found that certain forms of fairness or justice predict OCB better than others. For example, Jex & Britt mention research that indicates that interactional justice is a better predictor than procedural justice, which is in turn a better predictor than distributive justice.

A third explanation Jex & Britt offer is that, on the one hand, some employees hold personal values that tend to skew their behavior positively to participate in organizational citizenship activities. On the other hand, Jex & Britt's interpretation of research results suggest that other employees will tend to perform organizational citizenship behavior merely to influence how they are viewed within the organization, not because it reflects their personally held values. While these behaviors are not formally part of the job description, performing them can certainly influence performance appraisals.<sup>[55]</sup> In contrast to this view, some I–O psychologists believe that employees engage in OCBs as a form of “impression management,” a term coined by Erving Goffman in his 1959 book *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*. Goffman defines impression management as “the way in which the individual ... presents himself and his activity to others, the ways in which he guides and controls the impression they form of him, and the kinds of things he may and may not do while sustaining his performance before them.”<sup>[111]</sup> Researchers such as Bolino have hypothesized that the act of performing OCBs is not done out of goodwill, positive affect, etc., but instead as a way of being noticed by superiors and looking good in the eyes of others.<sup>[112]</sup> The key difference between this view and those mentioned by Jex & Britt is that the intended beneficiary of the behavior is the individual who engages in it, rather than another individual, the organization, or the supervisor.<sup>[55]</sup>

With this research on why employees engage in OCBs comes the debate among I–O psychologists about the voluntary or involuntary nature of engaging in OCBs. Many researchers, including the “father of OCB research,” Dennis Organ have consistently portrayed OCBs as voluntary behaviors done at the discretion of the individual.<sup>[105]</sup> However, more recently researchers have brought attention to potential underlying causes of OCBs, including social pressure, coercion, and other external forces. For example, Eran Vigoda-Gadot suggests that some, but not all, OCBs may be performed voluntarily out of goodwill, but many may be more involuntary in nature and “may arise from coercive managerial strategies or coercive social pressure by powerful peers.”<sup>[109]</sup> As mentioned previously, Vigoda-Gadot categorizes these behaviors in a separate category of OCBs as “compulsory OCBs” or CCBs, which he suggests are a form of “abusive

supervision” and will result in poorer organizational performance, similar to what has been seen in other research on abusive supervision and coercive persuasion.<sup>[109]</sup>

### 1.3.17 Innovation

Main article: [Innovation](#)

Industrial and Organizational Psychologists consider **innovation**, more often than not, a variable of less importance and often a counter-productive one to include in conducting job performance appraisals when irrelevant to the major job functions for which a given job exists. Nonetheless, Industrial and Organizational Psychologists see the value of that variable where its consideration would, were its reliability and validity questioned, achieve a statistically significant probability that its results are not due to chance, and that it can be replicated reliably with a statistically significant ratio of reliability, and that were a court to raise a question on its reliability and validity testing, the Industrial and Organizational Psychologist behind its use would be able to defend it before a court of justice with the belief that it will stand before such a court as reliable, and valid.

With the above in mind, innovation is often considered a form of productive behavior that employees exhibit when they come up with novel ideas that further the goals of the organization.<sup>[55]</sup> This section will discuss three topics of interest: research on innovation; characteristics of an individual that may predict innovation; and how organizations may be structured to promote innovation. According to Jex & Britt, individual and organization research can be divided into four unique research focuses.<sup>[55]</sup>

- **Focus One:** The examination of the process by which an employee develops innovations and the unique characteristics of an individuals which enables them to be highly innovative.<sup>[55]</sup> This stream of thought focuses primarily on the employee or the individual contributor.
- **Focus Two:** The macro perspective which focuses upon the process that innovation is diffused within a specific organization. In short, this is the process of communicating an innovation to members of an organization.<sup>[113]</sup>
- **Focus Three:** The process by which an organization adopts an innovation.<sup>[55]</sup>
- **Focus Four:** A shared perspective of the role of the individual and the organization’s culture which contribute to innovation.<sup>[55]</sup>

As indicated above, the first focus looks specifically to find certain attributes of an individual that may lead to

innovation, therefore, one must ask, “Are there quantifiable predictors that an individual will be innovative?” Research indicates if various skills, knowledge, and abilities are present then an individual will be more apt to innovation. These qualities are generally linked to creativity.<sup>[55]</sup> A brief overview of these characteristics are listed below.

- **Task-relevant skills** (general mental ability and job specific knowledge). Task specific and subject specific knowledge is most often gained through higher education; however, it may also be gained by mentoring and experience in a given field.<sup>[55]</sup>
- **Creativity-relevant skills** (ability to concentrate on a problem for long periods of time, to abandon unproductive searches, and to temporarily put aside stubborn problems). The ability to put aside stubborn problems is referred to by Jex & Britt as productive forgetting.<sup>[55]</sup> Creativity-relevant skills also require the individual contributor to evaluate a problem from multiple vantage points. One must be able to take on the perspective of various users. For example, an Operation Manager analyzing a reporting issue and developing an innovative solution would consider the perspective of a sales person, assistant, finance, compensation, and compliance officer.
- **Task motivation** (internal desire to perform task and level of enjoyment).<sup>[55]</sup>

In addition to the role and characteristics of the individual, one must consider what it is that may be done on an organizational level to develop and reward innovation. A study by Damanpour identified four specific characteristics that may predict innovation within an organization.<sup>[114]</sup> They are the following ones:

1. A population with high levels of technical knowledge
2. The organization’s level of specialization
3. The level an organization communicates externally
4. Functional Differentiation.<sup>[55]</sup>

Additionally, organizations could use and institutionalize many participatory system-processes, which could breed innovation in the workplace. Some of these items include providing creativity training, having leaders encourage and model innovation, allowing employees to question current procedures and rules, seeing that the implementation of innovations had real consequences, documenting innovations in a professional manner, allowing employees to have autonomy and freedom in their job roles, reducing the number of obstacles that may be in the way of innovation, and giving employees access to resources (whether these are monetary, informational, or access to key people inside or outside of the organization).<sup>[55]</sup>

According to the American Productivity & Quality Center (“APQC”) there are basic principles an organization can develop to encourage and reward innovation.

- The creation of a design team.
- Acknowledging those who contribute time, effort, and ideas. This recognition may come from senior leaders or through peer recognition.
- Provide special recognition to innovators while keeping names associated with contributors.
- Disseminate success stories concerning invention.
- Make innovation self-rewarding, such as the perception of being a subject matter expert.
- Linking innovation to the cultural values of the organization.
- Creating a committee of business leaders from various lines of business and human resources focused on developing guidelines and suggestions to encourage

innovation.<sup>[115]</sup>

In discussing innovation for a Best-Practice report, APQC Knowledge Management expert, Kimberly Lopez, stated, “It requires a blending of creativity within business processes to ensure good ideas become of value to the company ... Supporting a creative environment requires innovation to be recognized, nurtured, and rewarded.”<sup>[115]</sup>

### 1.3.18 Counterproductive work behavior

Main article: [Counterproductive work behavior](#)

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) can be defined as employee behavior that goes against the goals of an organization. These behaviors can be intentional or unintentional and result from a wide range of underlying causes and motivations. Some CWBs have instrumental motivations (e.g., theft).<sup>[62]</sup> It has been proposed that a person-by-environment interaction can be utilized to explain a variety of counterproductive behaviors (Fox and Spector, 1999). For instance, an employee who sabotages another employee’s work may do so because of lax supervision (environment) and underlying psychopathology (person) that work in concert to result in the counterproductive behavior. There is evidence that an emotional response (e.g., anger) to job stress (e.g., unfair treatment) can motivate CWBs.<sup>[62]</sup>

The forms of counterproductive behavior with the most empirical examination are ineffective job performance, absenteeism, job turnover, and accidents. Less common

but potentially more detrimental forms of counterproductive behavior have also been investigated including violence and sexual harassment.

### 1.3.19 Leadership

Main article: [Leadership](#)

In I–O psychology, leadership can be defined as a process of influencing others to agree on a shared purpose, and to work towards shared objectives.<sup>[116]</sup> A distinction should be made between leadership and **management**. Managers process administrative tasks and organize work environments. Although leaders may be required to undertake managerial duties as well, leaders typically focus on inspiring followers and creating a shared organizational culture and values. Managers deal with complexity, while leaders deal with initiating and adapting to change. Managers undertake the tasks of planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, controlling and problem solving. In contrast, leaders undertake the tasks of setting a direction or vision, aligning people to shared goals, communicating, and motivating.<sup>[117]</sup>

Approaches to studying leadership in I–O psychology can be broadly classified into three categories: Leader-focused approaches, Contingency-focused approaches, and Follower-focused approaches.

#### Leader-focused approaches

Leader-focused approaches look to organizational leaders to determine the characteristics of effective leadership. According to the **trait approach**, more effective leaders possess certain traits that less effective leaders lack. More recently, this approach is being used to predict leader emergence. The following traits have been identified as those that predict leader emergence when there is no formal leader: high intelligence, high needs for dominance, high self-motivation, and socially perceptive.<sup>[118]</sup> Another leader-focused approach is the **behavioral approach** which focuses on the behaviors that distinguish effective from ineffective leaders. There are two categories of leadership behaviors: (1) **consideration**; and (2) **initiating structure**. Behaviors associated with the category of consideration include showing subordinates they are valued and that the leader cares about them. An example of a consideration behavior is showing compassion when problems arise in or out of the office. Behaviors associated with the category of initiating structure include facilitating the task performance of groups. One example of an initiating structure behavior is meeting one-on-one with subordinates to explain expectations and goals. The final leader-focused approach is **power and influence**. To be most effective a leader should be able to influence others to behave in ways that are in line with the organization’s mission and goals. How influential a leader



can be depends on their social power or their potential to influence their subordinates. There are six bases of power: **coercive power**, **reward power**, **legitimate power**, **expert power**, **referent power**, and **informational power**. A leader can use several different tactics to influence others within an organization. These common tactics include: **rational persuasion**, **inspirational appeal**, **consultation**, **ingratiation**, **exchange**, **personal appeal**, **coalition**, **legitimizing**, and **pressure**.<sup>[119]</sup>

### Contingency-focused approaches

Of the 3 approaches to leadership, contingency-focused approaches have been the most prevalent over the past 30 years. Contingency-focused theories base a leader's effectiveness on their ability to assess a situation and adapt their behavior accordingly.<sup>[119]</sup> These theories assume that an effective leader can accurately "read" a situation and skillfully employ a leadership style that meets the needs of the individuals involved and the task at hand. A brief introduction to the most prominent contingency-focused theories will follow.

**Fiedler's Contingency Theory** holds that a leader's effectiveness depends on the interaction between their characteristics and the characteristics of the situation. **Path-Goal Theory** asserts that the role of the leader is to help his or her subordinates achieve their goals. To effectively do this, leaders must skillfully select from four different leadership styles to meet the situational factors. The situational factors are a product of the characteristics of subordinates and the characteristics of the environment. The **Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Model** focuses on how leader-subordinate relationships develop. Generally speaking, when a subordinate performs well or when there are positive exchanges between a leader and a subordinate, their relationship is strengthened, performance and job satisfaction are enhanced, and the subordinate will feel more commitment to the leader and the organization as a whole.<sup>[120]</sup> **Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model** focuses on decision making with respect to a *feasibility set*<sup>[119]</sup> which is composed of the situational attributes.

In addition to the contingency-focused approaches mentioned, there has been a high degree of interest paid to three novel approaches that have recently emerged. The first is **transformational leadership**, which posits that there are certain leadership traits that inspire subordinates to perform beyond their capabilities. The second is **transactional leadership**, which is most concerned with keeping subordinates in-line with deadlines and organizational policy. This type of leader fills more of a managerial role and lacks qualities necessary to inspire subordinates and induce meaningful change. And the third is **authentic leadership** which is centered around empathy and a leader's values or character. If the leader understands their followers, they can inspire subordinates by cultivating a personal connection and leading them to share in the vision and goals of the team. Although there has been a

limited amount of research conducted on these theories, they are sure to receive continued attention as the field of I-O psychology matures.

### Follower-focused approaches

Follower-focused approaches look at the processes by which leaders motivate followers, and lead teams to achieve shared goals. Understandably, the area of leadership motivation draws heavily from the abundant research literature in the domain of **motivation** in I-O psychology. Because leaders are held responsible for their followers' ability to achieve the organization's goals, their ability to motivate their followers is a critical factor of leadership effectiveness. Similarly, the area of team leadership draws heavily from the research in **teams** and team effectiveness in I-O psychology. Because organizational employees are frequently structured in the form of teams, leaders need to be aware of the potential benefits and pitfalls of working in teams, how teams develop, how to satisfy team members' needs, and ultimately how to bring about team effectiveness and performance. An emerging area of research in the area of team leadership is in leading **virtual teams**, where people in the team are geographically-distributed across various distances and sometimes even countries. While technological advances have enabled the leadership process to take place in such virtual contexts, they present new challenges for leaders as well, such as the need to use technology to build relationships with followers, and influencing followers when faced with limited (or no) face-to-face interaction.

## 1.3.20 Organizational change/development

### Organizational development

Main article: [Organization development](#)

Industrial-organizational psychologists have displayed a great deal of consideration for the problems of total organizational change and systematic ways to bring about planned change. This effort, called **organizational development (OD)**, involves techniques such as:

- sensitivity training
- role playing
- group discussion
- job enrichment
- survey feedback
- team building<sup>[52]</sup>

Within the survey feedback technique, surveys after being answered by employees periodically, are assessed for their emotions and attitudes which are then communicated to various members within the organization. The team building technique was created due to realization that most tasks within the organization are completed by small groups and/or teams. In order to further enhance a team's or group's morale and problem-solving skills, OD consultants (called **change agents**) help the groups to build their self-confidence, group cohesiveness, and working effectiveness. A change agent's impartiality, gives the managers within the organization a new outlook of the organization's structure, functions, and culture. A change agent's first task is diagnosis, where questionnaires and interviews are used to assess the problems and needs of the organization. Once analyzed, the strengths and weaknesses of the organization are presented and used to create strategies for solving problems and coping with future changes.<sup>[52](pp216-217)</sup>

Flexibility and adaptability are some strengths of the OD process, as it possesses the ability to conform to the needs of the situation. Regardless of the specific techniques applied, the OD process helps to free the typical bureaucratic organization from its rigidity and formality, hereby allowing more responsiveness and open participation. Public and private organizations both have employed OD techniques, despite their varied results in research conducted. However, the use of the techniques are justified by the significant increases in productivity that was proven by various studies.<sup>[52](p217)</sup>

### 1.3.21 Relation to organizational behavior

The i/o psychology and organizational behavior have manifested some overlap.<sup>[121]</sup> The overlap has led to some confusion regarding how the two disciplines differ.<sup>[122]</sup>

## 1.4 Training and outlook

### 1.4.1 Graduate programs

Schultz and Schultz (2010) states that modern I–O Psychology is a complex and intricate position. It requires intense university training, and hands on experience. Individuals who choose I–O psychology as a profession should also be aware that they will be constantly studying to learn about new developments that may emerge. The minimum requirement for working as an I–O psychologist is a Master's Degree. Normally, this degree requires 42 semester hours and takes about 2–3 years to complete. Most Master's Degree students work, either full-time or part-time, while studying to become an I–O psychologist. Of all the degrees granted in I–O psychology, each year approximately two thirds are at the master's level.<sup>[52](p18)</sup>

A comprehensive list of US and Canadian master's and

doctoral programs can be found at the web site of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP).<sup>[123]</sup> Some helpful ways to learn about graduate programs include visiting the web sites on the SIOP list and speaking to I–O faculty at the institutions listed. Admission into I–O psychology PhD programs is highly competitive given that many programs accept a small number of applicants every year.

There are graduate degree programs in I–O psychology outside of the US and Canada. The SIOP web site<sup>[123]</sup> also provides a comprehensive list of I–O programs in many other countries.

### 1.4.2 Job outlook

According to the United States Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics, I–O psychology is the fastest growing occupation in the United States, based on projections between 2012 and 2022.<sup>[124][125]</sup>

According to recent salary and employment surveys conducted by SIOP,<sup>[126]</sup> the median salary for a PhD in I–O psychology was \$98,000; for a master's level I–O psychologist was \$72,000. The highest paid PhD I–O psychologists in private industry worked in pharmaceuticals and averaged approximately \$151,000 per year; the median salary for self-employed consultants was \$150,000; those employed in retail, energy, and manufacturing followed closely behind, averaging approximately \$133,000. The lowest earners were found in state and local government positions, averaging approximately \$77,000. I–O psychologists whose primary responsibility is teaching at private and public colleges and universities often earn additional income from consulting with government and industry.<sup>[127]</sup>

### 1.4.3 Pros and cons of an industrial and organizational psychology career

Pros of a Career in I–O Psychology:

- Many career opportunities with a Master's-level degree.
- Diverse career paths (i.e. private sector, consulting, government, education.)
- Opportunities for self-employment.

Cons of a Career in I–O Psychology:

- Clients and projects change often.
- Research can often be tedious and burnout can occur.
- Many positions require doctoral degrees.<sup>[128]</sup>

### 1.4.4 Ethics

In the consulting field, it is important for the consultant to maintain high ethical standards in all aspects of relationships: consultant to client, consultant to consultant, and client to consultant.<sup>[129]</sup> After all, all decisions made and actions taken by the consultant will reflect what kind of consultant he or she is. Although ethical situations can be more intricate in the business world, American Psychology Association (APA)'s Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct can be applied to I–O consultants as well. For example, the consultant should only accept projects for which he or she is qualified; the consultant should also avoid all conflicts of interest and being in multiple relationships with those he or she is working with. On the other hand, some might disagree that it is the consultant's responsibility to actively promote the application of moral and ethical standards in the consultation and examine ethical issues in organizational decisions and policies. It is an ongoing controversial issue in the consulting field.<sup>[130]</sup> In addition, as more and more organizations are becoming global, it is imperative for consultants working abroad to quickly become aware of rules, regulations, and cultures of the organizations and countries they are in as well as not to ignore ethical standards and codes just because they are abroad.<sup>[131]</sup>

## 1.5 Industrial/organizational consultancy

### 1.5.1 Definition

An industrial/organizational (I–O) consultant helps clients and organizations improve productivity and create an optimal working environment through human capital consulting and strategies. Areas of consulting include but are not limited to selection and recruiting, training, leadership, and development, compensation and benefits, employee relations, performance management, succession planning, and executive coaching.<sup>[132]</sup>

### 1.5.2 Types

Consultants can be categorized as internal or external to an organization. An internal consultant is someone who is working specifically for an organization that he or she is a part of whereas an external consultant can be either a sole proprietor or an employee of a consulting firm who is hired by another organization on a project basis or for a certain period of time. There are different types of I–O consultants:<sup>[133]</sup>

1. internal corporate consultant
2. independent external consultant

3. external consultant in a small firm
4. external consultant in a large firm
5. external consultant in a research group
6. internal consultant in a research unit within a large firm
7. internal consultant in a large government organization.

### 1.5.3 Services offered

Kurpius (1978; as cited in Hedge & Borman, 2009)<sup>[134]</sup> gave four general types of consultation:

1. services and products (e.g., selection tools)
2. collecting information and helping the organization identify and solve the problem
3. collaborating with the client to design and plan changes in the organization
4. helping the client implement the changes and incorporate them into the organizational culture.

Consultants offer these consulting services to all kinds of organizations, such as profit and nonprofit sectors, public and private sectors, and a government organization.

### 1.5.4 Pros and cons

Like any other careers, there are many benefits and downsides of consulting.<sup>[135]</sup> Some advantages are substantial material rewards, trust and respect from clients, and personal satisfaction. Some disadvantages are traveling (the number one complaint of all I/O consultants), uncertainty in business especially for external consultants, and marginality which is not belonging to any group or organization that the consultant works for.

### 1.5.5 Competencies

There are many different sets of competencies for different specializations within I–O psychology and I–O psychologists are versatile behavioral scientists. For example, an I–O psychologist specializing in selection and recruiting should have expertise in finding the best talent for the organization and getting everyone on board while he or she might not need to know much about executive coaching. Some consultants tend to specialize in specific areas of consulting whereas others tend to generalize their areas of expertise. However, Cummings and Worley (2009) claimed that there are basic skills and knowledge, which most consultants agree, needed to be effective consultants:<sup>[135]</sup>

1. **intrapersonal skills**, which include knowing consultants' own values and goals, integrity to work responsibly and ethically, and active as well as continuous learning.
2. **interpersonal skills**, which include listening skills, facilitating skills, and building and maintaining relationships. These interpersonal skills are especially important because regardless of how innovative the consultant's idea is, if the client does not understand it or does not trust the consultant, the client is not going to accept that idea.
3. **general consultation skills**, those skills being able to execute different stages of consulting which will be discussed in the following section titled "Stages".

### 1.5.6 Stages

Block (2011)<sup>[136]</sup> identified the following five stages of consulting.

#### Entry and contracting

This stage is where the consultant makes the initial contact with the client about the project, and it includes setting up the first meeting, exploring more about the project and the client, roles, responsibilities, and expectations about the consultant, the client, and the project, and whether the consultant's expertise and experience fit with what the client wants out of the project. This is the most important part of the consulting, and most consultants agree that most mistakes in the project can essentially be traced back to the faulty contracting stage.<sup>[136]</sup>

#### Discovery and diagnosis

This stage is where the consultant makes his or her own judgment about the problem identified by the client and about the project. Sometimes, the problem presented by the client is not the actual problem but a symptom of a true cause. Then, the consultant collects more information about the situation.<sup>[136]</sup>

#### Analysis and planning

This stage is where the consultant analyzes the data and presents the results to the client. The consultant needs to reduce a large amount of data into a manageable size and present them to the client in a clear and simple way. After presenting the results, the consultant helps the client make plans and goals for actions to be taken as a next step to solve the identified problem.<sup>[136]</sup>

#### Engagement and implementation

This stage sometimes falls entirely on the client or the organization, and the consultant's job might be completed at the end of third stage. However, it is important for the consultant to be present at the fourth stage since without implementing the changes suggested by the consultant, the problem is not likely to be solved. Moreover, despite how good the consultant's advice might be, employees are actually the ones who need to live the changes. So, in this fourth stage, the consultant needs to get everyone on board with the changes and help implement the changes.<sup>[136]</sup>

#### Extension or termination

This final stage is where the consultant and the client evaluate the project, and it is usually the most neglected yet important stage. Then, the project is completed or extended depending on the client's needs.<sup>[136]</sup>

### 1.5.7 Future trends

Teachout and Vequist (2008) identified driving forces affecting future trends in the business consulting.<sup>[137]</sup>

1. changes in the market conditions
2. competition for market share and talent
3. changes in customer demands
4. changes in technology and innovation
5. increase in costs, especially in energy and health sectors
6. globalization.

They also discussed three trends in the field as a result of these forces – people, process, and technology.

#### Human capital or people

In terms of human capital or people consulting, there are major forces for future trends:

1. lack of competencies in STEM and communication fields,
2. aging of workforce, resulting in the loss of experience and expertise in organizations,
3. increasing and aggressive competition for talent,
4. increase in project- or contract-based workforce instead of hiring permanent employees, and
5. globalization.

As a result, trends, such as major talent management, selection and recruiting, workplace education and training, and planning for next generation, have emerged. In addition, change management also becomes important in organizations in order to innovate and implement new technology, tools, and systems to cope with changes in the business.<sup>[137]</sup>

### Process

In terms of process consulting, because of an increase in competition, it becomes important to identify and improve key processes that meet customer values and demands as well as that are faster and cheaper.<sup>[137]</sup>

### Technology

In terms of technology consulting, there is an increased need to automate processes or data so that employees can focus on actually doing work and focusing on business rather than doing the manual labor. The consultant can add value to these technologies by providing training, communication plan, and change management as well as to incorporate these technologies into organizational culture. So, regardless of how advanced technology is, consultants are still needed in making sure that these advanced technologies have positive effects on employees and organizations in both technical and social aspects.<sup>[137]</sup>

## 1.6 See also

- Applied psychology
- Association of Business Psychologists
- Behavioral risk management
- Educational psychology
- Employment law
- Human resources development
- Human resource management
- Individual psychological assessment
- Industrial sociology
- Narcissism in the workplace
- Occupational stress
- Occupational safety and health
- Occupational health psychology
- Organizational socialization
- Outline of psychology

- Personnel psychology
- Psychopathy in the workplace
- Quality of working life
- Systems psychology

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## 1.9 External links

- [Canadian Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology](#)
- [British Psychological Society's Division of Occupational Psychology's \(DOP\) website](#)
- [Society for Industrial & Organisational Psychology of South Africa](#)
- [European Association of Work and Organizational Psychology](#)
- [Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology](#)

## Chapter 2

# 360-degree feedback

In human resources or industrial psychology, **360-degree feedback**, also known as **multi-rater feedback**, **multi source feedback**, or **multi source assessment**, is feedback that comes from members of an employee's immediate work circle. Most often, 360-degree feedback will include direct feedback from an employee's subordinates, peers (colleagues), and supervisor(s), as well as a self-evaluation. It can also include, in some cases, feedback from external sources, such as customers and suppliers or other interested stakeholders. It may be contrasted with "upward feedback," where managers are given feedback only by their direct reports, or a "traditional performance appraisal," where the employees are most often reviewed only by their managers.

The results from a 360-degree evaluation are often used by the person receiving the feedback to plan and map specific paths in their development. Results are also used by some organizations in making administrative decisions related to pay and promotions. When this is the case, the 360 assessment is for evaluation purposes, and is sometimes called a "360-degree review." However, there is a great deal of debate as to whether 360-degree feedback should be used exclusively for development purposes,<sup>[1]</sup> or should be used for appraisal purposes as well.<sup>[2]</sup>

### 2.1 History

The German military first began gathering feedback from multiple sources in order to evaluate performance during World War II.<sup>[3]</sup> Others also explored the use of multi-rater feedback during this time period via the concept of T-groups.

One of the earliest recorded uses of surveys to gather information about employees occurred in the 1950s at Esso Research and Engineering Company.<sup>[4]</sup> From there, the idea of 360 degree feedback gained momentum, and by the 1990s most human resources and organizational development professionals understood the concept. The problem was that collecting and collating the feedback demanded a paper-based effort including either complex manual calculations or lengthy delays. The first led to despair on the part of practitioners; the second to a gradual

erosion of commitment by recipients.

However, due to the rise of the Internet and the ability to conduct evaluations online with surveys, Multi-rater feedback use steadily increased in popularity.<sup>[5]</sup> Today, studies suggest that over one-third of U.S. companies use some type of multi-source feedback.<sup>[6]</sup> Others claim that this estimate is closer to 90% of all Fortune 500 firms.<sup>[7]</sup> In recent years, Internet-based services have become standard in corporate development, with a growing menu of useful features (e.g., multi languages, comparative reporting, and aggregate reporting).<sup>[8]</sup>

### 2.2 Accuracy

A study on the patterns of rater accuracy shows that the length of time that a rater has known the individual being evaluated has the most significant effect on the accuracy of a 360-degree review. The study shows that subjects in the group "known for one to three years" are the most accurate, followed by those "known for less than one year," followed by those "known for three to five years" and the least accurate being those "known for more than five years." The study concludes that the most accurate ratings come from those who have known the individual being reviewed long enough to get past the first impression, but not so long that they begin to generalize favorably.<sup>[9]</sup>

It has been suggested that multi-rater assessments often generate conflicting opinions and that there may be no way to determine whose feedback is accurate.<sup>[10]</sup> Studies have also indicated that self-ratings are generally significantly higher than the ratings given from others.<sup>[11]</sup>

### 2.3 Results

Several studies<sup>[12]</sup> indicate that the use of 360-degree feedback helps to improve employee performance because it helps the evaluated see different perspectives of their performance. In a 5-year study,<sup>[13]</sup> no improvement in overall rater scores was found between the 1st and 2nd year, but higher scores were noted between 2nd and 3rd and 3rd and 4th years. Reilly et al. (1996) found that

performance increased between the 1st and 2nd administrations, and sustained this improvement 2 years later. Additional studies show that 360-degree feedback may be predictive of future performance.<sup>[14]</sup>

Some authors maintain, however, that there are too many lurking variables related to 360-degree evaluations to reliably generalize their effectiveness.<sup>[15]</sup> Bracken et al. (2001b) and Bracken and Timmreck (2001) focus on process features that are likely to also have major effects on creating behavior change. Greguras and Robie (1998) tracked how the number of raters used in each particular category (direct report, peer, manager) affects the reliability of the feedback. Their research showed that direct reports are the least reliable and, therefore, more participation is required to produce a reliable result. Multiple pieces of research<sup>[16]</sup> have demonstrated that the scale of responses can have a major effect on the results, and some response scales are better than others. Goldsmith and Underhill (2001) report the powerful influence of the evaluated individual following up with raters to discuss their results. Other potentially powerful factors affecting behavior change include how raters are selected, manager approval, instrument quality (reliability and validity), rater training and orientation, participant training, supervisor training, coaching, integration with HR systems, and accountability.<sup>[17]</sup>

Some researchers claim that the use of multi-rater assessment does not improve company performance. One 2001 study found that 360 degree feedback was associated with a 10.6 percent decrease in market value, and concludes that “there is no data showing that [360-degree feedback] actually improves productivity, increases retention, decreases grievances, or is superior to forced ranking and standard performance appraisal systems.”<sup>[18]</sup>

Maury Peiperl of Stanford’s General Management Department, proposed four paradoxes that explain why 360 evaluations do not elicit accurate data: The Paradox of Roles, in which an evaluator is conflicted by being both peer and the judge; the Paradox of Group Performance, which admits that the vast majority of work done in a corporate setting is done in groups, not individually; the Measurement Paradox, which shows that qualitative, or in-person techniques are much more effective in facilitating change; and the Paradox of Rewards, which shows that individuals evaluating their peers care more about the rewards associated with finishing the task than the actual content of the evaluation itself.<sup>[19]</sup>

Additional studies<sup>[20]</sup> found no correlation between an employee’s multi-rater assessment scores and his or her top-down performance appraisal scores (provided by the person’s supervisor), and advised that although multi-rater feedback can be effectively used for appraisal, care should be taken in its implementation.<sup>[21]</sup> This research suggests that 360-degree feedback and performance appraisals get at different outcomes, and that both 360-degree feedback and traditional performance appraisals

should be used in evaluating overall performance.<sup>[22]</sup>

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## Chapter 3

# Absenteeism

“Absence” redirects here. For other uses, see [Absence \(disambiguation\)](#).

**Absenteeism** is a habitual pattern of absence from a duty or obligation. Traditionally, absenteeism has been viewed as an indicator of poor individual performance, as well as a breach of an implicit contract between employee and employer; it was seen as a management problem, and framed in economic or quasi-economic terms. More recent scholarship seeks to understand absenteeism as an indicator of psychological, medical, or social adjustment to work.<sup>[1]</sup>

### 3.1 Workplace



*"So You're not coming in Tomorrow Bud"*

High absenteeism in the workplace may be indicative

of poor morale, but absences can also be caused by workplace hazards or sick building syndrome. Many employers use statistics such as the Bradford factor that do not distinguish between genuine illness and absence for inappropriate reasons. In 2013 in the UK the CIPD estimated that the average worker had 7.6 sick days per year<sup>[2]</sup> and that absenteeism cost employers £595 per employee per annum.<sup>[3]</sup>

As a result, many employees feel obliged to come to work while ill, and transmit communicable diseases to their co-workers. This leads to even greater absenteeism and reduced productivity among other workers who try to work while ill. Work forces often excuse absenteeism caused by medical reasons if the employee provides supporting documentation from their medical practitioner. Sometimes, people choose not to show up for work and do not call in advance, which businesses may find to be unprofessional and inconsiderate. This is called a “no call, no show”. According to Nelson & Quick (2008) people who are dissatisfied with their jobs are absent more frequently. They went on to say that the type of dissatisfaction that most often leads employees to miss work is dissatisfaction with the work itself.

The psychological model that discusses this is the “withdrawal model”, which assumes that absenteeism represents individual withdrawal from dissatisfying working conditions. This finds empirical support in a negative association between absence and job satisfaction, especially satisfaction with the work itself.<sup>[1]</sup>

Medical-based understanding of absenteeism find support in research that links absenteeism with smoking, problem drinking, low back pain, and migraines.<sup>[4]</sup> Absence ascribed to medical causes is often still, at least in part, voluntary. Research shows that over one trillion dollars is lost annually due to productivity shortages as a result of medical-related absenteeism, and that increased focus on preventative wellness could reduce these costs.<sup>[5]</sup> The line between psychological and medical causation is blurry, given that there are positive links between both work stress and depression and absenteeism.<sup>[4]</sup> Depressive tendencies may lie behind some of the absence ascribed to poor physical health, as with adoption of a “culturally approved sick role”. This places the adjective “sickness” before the word “absence”, and carries a bur-



den of more proof than is usually offered.

Evidence indicates that absence is generally viewed as “mildly deviant workplace behavior”. For example, people tend to hold negative stereotypes of absentees, under report their own absenteeism, and believe their own attendance record is better than that of their peers. Negative attributions about absence then bring about three outcomes: the behavior is open to social control, sensitive to social context, and is a potential source of workplace conflict.

In the United States, some employers use Absence Control Policies to manage chronic absenteeism.<sup>[6]</sup>

### 3.1.1 Narcissism and psychopathy

Main articles: Narcissism in the workplace and Psychopathy in the workplace

Thomas suggests that there tends to be a higher level of stress with people who work or interact with a narcissist, which in turn increases absenteeism and staff turnover.<sup>[7]</sup> Boddy finds the same dynamic where there is a corporate psychopath in the organisation.<sup>[8]</sup>

## 3.2 See also

- Organizational justice
- Presenteeism
- Leaveism
- Saint Monday
- See a man about a dog
- Sick leave

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# Chapter 4

## Adaptive performance

**Adaptive performance** in the work environment refers to adjusting to and understanding change in the workplace.<sup>[1]</sup> An employee who is versatile is valued and important in the success of an organization. Employers seek employees with high adaptability, due to the positive outcomes that follow, such as excellent work performance, work attitude, and ability to handle stress.<sup>[2]</sup> Employees, who display high adaptive performance in an organization, tend to have more advantages in career opportunities unlike employees who are not adaptable to change.<sup>[1]</sup> In previous literature, Pulakos and colleagues<sup>[1]</sup> established eight dimensions of adaptive performance.

### 4.1 Dimensions

Pulakos et al.<sup>[1]</sup> proposed the following dimensions for adaptive performance:

- **Handling emergencies and crisis situations:** making quick decisions when faced with an emergency.
- **Handling stress in the workforce:** keeping composed and focused on task at hand when dealing with high demand tasks
- **Creative problem solving:** thinking outside the boundary limits, and innovatively to solve a problem.
- **Dealing with uncertain and unpredictable work situations:** able to become productive despite the occurrence of unknown situations.
- **Learning and manipulating new technology, task, and procedures:** approach new methods and technological constructs in order to accomplish a work task.
- **Demonstrating interpersonal adaptability:** being considerate of other people's points of view when working in a team to accomplish a certain goal.

- **Demonstrating cultural adaptability:** being respectful and considerate of different cultural backgrounds.
- **Demonstrating physically oriented adaptability:** physically adjusting one's self to better fit the surrounding environment.

### 4.2 Measurement

Pulakos et al.<sup>[1]</sup> developed a scale for adaptive performance based on their eight-dimension model. This scale, the Job Adaptability Inventory (JAI), contains 132 questions (15 – 18 questions per dimension). Another similar tool is the I-ADAPT measure (I-ADAPT-M) developed by Ployhart and Bliese,<sup>[3]</sup> based on their I-ADAPT theory. They focused on **adaptability** as a personality-like trait which describes individual's ability to adapt to organizational changes. Therefore there is a difference between I-ADAPT-M and the JAI which measures adaptive performance as behaviors. The I-ADAPT-M also has eight dimensions (crisis adaptability, stress adaptability, creative adaptability, uncertain adaptability, learning adaptability, interpersonal adaptability, cultural adaptability, and physical adaptability), with 5 items for every dimension.

### 4.3 Work stress and adaptive performance

**Work stress** has been considered as a major factor of many work outcomes, like performance, nonproductive behavior and turnover.<sup>[4][5]</sup> An employee being able to adapt to change within an organization is more focused, and able to deal with stressful situations.<sup>[1]</sup> An employee who is unable to absolve their strain is unable to focus on what is occurring in the organization, such as organizational change.<sup>[6]</sup> Not only can work stress predict adaptive performance to a considerable extent, there are also a lot of overlaps between adaptive performance and stress coping.

### 4.3.1 Stress appraisal

It has been long recognized that work stress generally has a negative effects on job performance,<sup>[7]</sup> but there is differential influence resulting from different perceptions of stressors. When faced with a new situation, individuals would spontaneously begin to evaluate their own abilities and skills as compared with the requirements of the situation, which is referred to as stress appraisals.<sup>[6]</sup> Such stress appraisal has two stages: primary appraisal and secondary appraisal. In the primary appraisal stage, individuals evaluate what potential threats there will be, concerning the demands from situation and the goals and values of themselves. In the secondary appraisal stage, individuals evaluate the resources they have to deal with those requirements. The results of appraisal, after two stages, are indicated to fall on a continuum between two extremes of being challenged and threatened.<sup>[8]</sup> Challenge appraisals mean that individuals feel their resources, like abilities and social support to be abundant sufficient to fulfill requirements of the situation. Threat appraisals, on the other hand, mean that individuals are not confident about their abilities or other resources to respond to the situation demands. Threat appraisals and challenge appraisals could influence job performance distinctively.<sup>[9]</sup> As for adaptive performance, the more challenging (i.e., the less threatening) one's stress appraisals are, the more adaptive performance he/she would have.<sup>[10]</sup> This relationship is mediated by self-efficacy, which is a belief about one's capacities for certain tasks. Challenging rather than threatening appraisals would lead to higher levels of self-efficacy, and thus benefit individuals' adaptive performance.

### 4.3.2 Stress coping

Main article: Coping

Coping, as a form of response to stressors, describes how individuals handle stressful events. It is very close to one dimension of adaptive performance by definition (i.e., the Handling Work Stress dimension), and coping has been suggested to be another form of adaptation.<sup>[3]</sup> However, they are still different constructions. Stress coping could be divided into several styles and strategies based on several theories. One general idea is to divide coping as active coping and avoidant coping.<sup>[11]</sup> Active coping means to proactively address and resolve stressful events, like quitting a stressful job and changing into a less overwhelming one. Avoidant coping means to reduce stress by ignoring it, like involving in problematic drinking. Another set of coping strategy types includes problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping.<sup>[12]</sup> Problem-focused coping involves using skills and knowledge to deal with the cause of their problems. Emotion-focused coping involves releasing negative emotions by ways like distracting or disclaiming. Adaptive perfor-

mance involves a mixture of different coping strategies. Because adaptive performance concerns positive aspects of behaviors, it is more closely related to coping strategies that have positive effects, such as active coping and problem-focused coping.<sup>[13][14]</sup> Therefore, adaptive performance is more likely to contain such behaviors in stressful situations.

## 4.4 Team adaptive performance

### 4.4.1 Definition of team adaptive performance

In addition to individual adaptive performance, psychologists are also interested in adaptive performance at team level. Team adaptive performance is defined as an emergent phenomenon that compiles over time from the unfolding of a recursive cycle whereby one or more team members use their resources to functionally change current cognitive or behavioral goal-directed action or structures to meet expected or unexpected demands. It is a multilevel phenomenon that emanates as team members and teams recursively display behavioral processes and draw on and update emergent cognitive states to engage in change. Team adaptive performance is considered as the core and proximal temporal antecedents to team adaptation, which could be seen as a change in team performance in response to a salient cue or cue stream that leads to a functional outcome for the entire team.<sup>[15]</sup> Along with the definition of team adaptive performance, researchers came up with a four-stage model to describe the process of team adaptive performance. The four core constructs characterizing this adaptive cycle include: (1) situation assessment; (2) plan formulation; (3) plan execution, via adaptive interaction processes; and (4) team learning, as well as emergent cognitive states (i.e., shared mental models, team situational awareness, psychological safety), which serve as both proximal outcomes and inputs to this cycle.<sup>[15]</sup> Team adaptive performance differs from individual adaptive performance from several aspects. Team adaptive performance reflects the extent to which the team meets its objectives during a transfer performance episode, whereas individual adaptive performance reflects the extent to which each member effectively executes his or her role in the team during the transfer episode.<sup>[16]</sup> Team adaptive performance also has different antecedents compared with individual adaptive performance.

### 4.4.2 Predictors of team adaptive performance

People have identified several dispositional and contextual factors that would affect team adaptive performance. The most obvious and natural predictor of team adap-

tive performance is characteristics of team members, or **team composition**. Team composition with respect to members' cognitive ability is positively associated with team adaptive performance, with a moderation effect of **team goals**. Teams with difficult goals and staffed with high-performance orientation members are especially unlikely to adapt. Teams with difficult goals and staffed with high-learning orientation members are especially likely to adapt.<sup>[17]</sup> Moreover, team members' self-leadership, conscientiousness, and attitudes could also influence team adaptive performance.<sup>[18][19]</sup> Other factors are more related to interactions between team members and team environment, like **team learning climate**.<sup>[20]</sup> Among them coordination of team members has been proved to be a most influential factor. Teams' ability to adapt their coordination activities to changing situational demands is crucial to team performance. A stronger increase in the teams' adaptive coordination was found to be related to better performance.<sup>[21]</sup> Researchers have posited that the maintenance of coordinated effort and activities ("coordination maintenance") is necessary for high team adaptive performance. This is because even with well-adapted individual performance, **workflow** at the team level often becomes disrupted, "overflowing" in particular directions. Overflow may create excessive work demands for some team members, while encouraging social loafing among those who are in the ebb of the **workflow** (see **social loafing**).<sup>[22]</sup> This suggests that, although team members may have their own task boundaries, and individual adaptive performance may depend on each member's individual capabilities, however to the team, each employee's adaptive performance may result in successful completion of the team task only if all activities are coordinated and synchronized in a holistic fashion. Team learning climate also displays a significant, positive relationship with team adaptive performance.<sup>[20]</sup>

## 4.5 Leadership and adaptive performance

Studies show that for an individual to show **leadership**, they must not only perform well but the individual would need to be an adaptive learner as well.<sup>[23]</sup> An individual who displays adaptive qualities and productivity in a team will most likely also display strong leadership characteristics.<sup>[24]</sup> Organizations value adaptive performance in the leadership characteristics an individual possess, as it has proven to help workers maintain productivity in a dynamic work environment.<sup>[25]</sup> For leaders to successfully perform their roles, they must be able to effectively address tasks and also be able to overcome social challenges.<sup>[26]</sup> Adaptive performance is a critical characteristic to have when being the leader of an organization because it aids in successfully handling any workplace situations that may arise and helping an organization progress.<sup>[27]</sup> Instead of resisting change in the workplace,

a team leader with adaptive performance establishes a new behavior appropriate to the situation to shift a potential problem into a positive outcome.<sup>[28]</sup> The correct type of leadership makes a positive change in the characteristics of a team's adaptability to assist in maintaining a healthy and positive workforce.<sup>[23]</sup> Employees who display adaptive performance in leadership set an example for their colleagues specifically in showcasing the best way to prepare and handle adaptation in occurring organizational changes.<sup>[29]</sup> Adaptive performance in leadership is valued by employers because an employee who displays those two characteristics tends to exemplify and motivate adaptive behavior within other individuals in the workforce.<sup>[27]</sup>

### 4.5.1 Transformational leadership and adaptive performance

In organizational situations where adaptability to the environment and difficult challenges occur often, an individual who possess **transformational leadership** is preferred.<sup>[30]</sup> Transformational leadership is a leadership style that encourages team members to imagine new ideas of change and to take action on these ideas to help handle certain situations.<sup>[29]</sup> This particular leadership style is commonly used in organizations, due to its positive outcomes such as higher **work engagement**, **motivation**, and **creativity** in employees.<sup>[30]</sup> Parker and Mason's 2010 study introduced a relationship between transformational leadership with work adaptation and work performance.<sup>[28]</sup> The study stated that transformational leadership relates to adaptive performance by having team members become creative in the different strategies that can be used when approaching a certain situation which eventually leads to a higher performance.<sup>[28]</sup> Being creative and handling stressful situations the team leader as well as the team exemplifies the dimensions of adaptive performance.<sup>[31]</sup> This particular leadership style has also been shown as a motivator to increase the behavior of performance and adaptability in employees.<sup>[29]</sup> An individual showcasing transformational leadership has the ability to encourage more adaptive and productive behavior within team members through presenting new ideas and possible outcomes in the workplace.<sup>[29]</sup>

### 4.5.2 Leadership and adaptive decision making

An individual who displays leadership adaptability is one who is able to adjust their thoughts and behavior to attain appropriate responses to complex situations helping them make appropriate decisions.<sup>[31]</sup> A leader must make decisions and be adaptable to any organizational changes in order for the team to collectively continue workplace productivity.<sup>[23]</sup> An adaptive leader makes decisions to perform a specific action to better fit the organization

and help it become productive.<sup>[32]</sup> By a leader displaying adaptive performance when making a decision, the team leader shows their awareness of a situation leading to new actions and strategies to reestablish fit and effectiveness.<sup>[24]</sup> Organizations value the characteristic of adaptive decision making in an individual as it displays an individual's understanding and adjusting capabilities to a difficult situation further aiding in the decision making process.<sup>[32]</sup>

## 4.6 See also

- Job performance
- Turnover (employment)
- Stress (psychological)
- Self-efficacy
- Coping (psychology)
- Psychological safety
- Team composition
- Goal orientation
- Organisation climate
- Social loafing
- Team performance management
- Workplace
- Antecedent
- Situation Awareness
- Workflow
- Leadership
- Transformational leadership
- Decision-making
- Work engagement
- Motivation
- Creativity

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## Chapter 5

# Arthur Kornhauser

**Arthur William Kornhauser** (November 23, 1896–December 11, 1990<sup>[1]</sup>) was an American industrial psychologist. He was an early researcher on topics such as labor unions and worker attitudes, and advocated a form of industrial psychology that approached problems from the workers' standpoint rather than that of management. He has been described as one of the most important early figures in organizational psychology, and is particularly remembered for his focus on worker well-being.<sup>[2]</sup> His work was interdisciplinary, crossing the boundaries between industrial psychology and sociology and political science.<sup>[3]</sup>

### 5.1 Early life and education

Kornhauser was born in Steubenville, Ohio on November 23, 1896.<sup>[4]</sup> He studied psychology and biology at the University of Pittsburgh, graduating with a BS in 1917.<sup>[2]</sup> Subsequently, during World War I, he worked with Walter Dill Scott to develop psychological and trade tests for the US Army.<sup>[2][4]</sup>

Kornhauser obtained an MA from the Carnegie Institute of Technology in 1919, and worked as a research assistant at Scott's "Scott Company" from 1919 to 1920.<sup>[2]</sup> His early research worked focused on the practical application of psychological testing to the needs of business.<sup>[5]</sup> He completed his formal education with a Ph.D. in psychology from the University of Chicago in 1926.<sup>[4]</sup> His dissertation was titled "A Statistical Study of Some Methods Used in Judging College Students".<sup>[5]</sup>

Kornhauser began teaching business psychology at the University of Chicago in 1921, first as an instructor and later as an associate professor. He married his first wife, Beatrice Levy, in 1923.<sup>[6]</sup> They had two children, William (1925) and Ruth (1927).<sup>[6]</sup>

### 5.2 Career

Kornhauser taught at the University of Chicago from 1921 to 1946. From 1922 to 1930, he was the most-published author in the *Journal of Personnel Research*,

with 9 articles to his name.<sup>[7]</sup> His research during this period focused on psychological testing. He served as a research fellow of the Social Science Research Council from 1928 to 1929,<sup>[6]</sup> and was president of the business division of the American Association of Applied Psychology (which later became the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology) from 1941 to 1943.<sup>[3]</sup> In addition to his teaching and research work, Kornhauser served as a consultant for numerous companies.<sup>[2]</sup> During this period, Chicago was a major center of early industrial psychology, which was beginning to emerge as a distinct discipline.<sup>[2]</sup>

Feeling slighted by the lack of attention and resources given to his work, Kornhauser left the U of C in 1943.<sup>[5]</sup> After a brief research position at Columbia University,<sup>[8]</sup> and later at Wayne State University. At Wayne State, he had a joint appointment with the Department of Psychology and the Institute of Industrial and Labor Relations, which began to offer doctorates in 1955.<sup>[5]</sup>

Kornhauser's research covered a broad range of topics. He worked to develop the opinion polling techniques of David Houser into rigorous scientific techniques.<sup>[9]</sup> He pioneered the union-friendly application of industrial psychology, which up to then had been entirely used in the service of management.<sup>[9]</sup> Later in his career, he focused on workers' mental health.<sup>[10]</sup> His 1965 work *Mental Health of the Industrial Worker* put forth the spillover hypothesis, which traces the cause of problems in home and leisure life to problems at work.<sup>[10]</sup> Ross Stagner, who chaired the Wayne State psychology department at the time, stated that his own administrative support for Kornhauser's writing of the book was "one of my significant contributions to the field."<sup>[10]</sup>

Kornhauser retired from Wayne State in 1962. He died on December 11, 1990, of a stroke resulting from Parkinson's disease, at his home in a retirement community in Santa Barbara, California.<sup>[1][5]</sup>

### 5.3 Writings

- *Psychological Tests in Business* (1924) (with Forrest Kingsbury)

- 'When Labor Votes: A Study of Auto Workers (1956)
- *Mental Health of the Industrial Worker* (1965)
- *How to Study*

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## Chapter 6

# Authentic leadership

**Authentic leadership** is an approach to leadership that emphasizes building the leader's legitimacy through honest relationships with followers which value their input and are built on an ethical foundation. Generally, authentic leaders are positive people with truthful self-concepts who promote openness. By building trust and generating enthusiastic support from their subordinates, authentic leaders are able to improve individual and team performance. This approach has been fully embraced by many leaders and leadership coaches who view authentic leadership as an alternative to leaders who emphasize profit and share price over people and ethics. Authentic leadership is a growing area of study in academic research on leadership which has recently grown from obscurity to the beginnings of a fully mature concept.<sup>[1]</sup>

## 6.1 Historical Background

The concept of “authenticity” can trace its history back to ancient Greece. Ancient Greek philosophers stressed authenticity as an important state through an emphasis on being in control of one's own life and the ubiquitous admonition: “Know thyself”.<sup>[2][3]</sup> Authentic leadership as we know it today evolved from the history of these terms. It originated in the 1960s as a means to describe how an organization reflects itself authentically through leadership.<sup>[1]</sup> Some believed that an entire organization could act authentically like a single person can through responsibility, reactions to uncertainty, and creativity.<sup>[4]</sup> Others believed that authentic leadership is actually more about how the leaders define their own role within an organization.<sup>[5]</sup>

Recently, authentic leadership has garnered more attention among scholars and practitioners because of publications from Harvard professor and former Medtronic CEO Bill George<sup>[6][7]</sup> and other calls for research.<sup>[8]</sup> The past decade has seen a surge in publications about authentic leadership, producing new models, definitions, and theories. The emphasis on conceptual development suggest that the concept is still in the initial stages of construct evolution, though as the scholarly research on the topic progresses, the types of publications produced appear to be shifting from mostly conceptual pieces to more and

more empirically based articles. This shift may be indicative of a nascent emergence of the construct from an introduction and elaboration evolutionary stage to one marked by evaluation and augmentation.<sup>[1]</sup>

## 6.2 Definitions

Because the concept itself is not yet fully mature in a theoretical sense, there are many different definitions of authentic leadership, each with its own nuances. However, consensus appears to be growing that authentic leadership includes these distinct qualities:

- **Self-awareness:** An ongoing process of reflection and re-examination by the leader of his or her own strength, weaknesses, and values
- **Relational Transparency:** Open sharing by the leader of his or her own thoughts and beliefs, balanced by a minimization of inappropriate emotions
- **Balanced Processing:** Solicitation by the leader of opposing viewpoints and fair-minded consideration of those viewpoints
- **Internalized Moral Perspective:** A positive ethical foundation adhered to by the leader in his or her relationships and decisions that is resistant to outside pressures

There is empirical research that supports a superordinate construct of authentic leadership that includes these four components.<sup>[9]</sup>

### 6.2.1 Authenticity and ethics

Some have suggested authentic leadership need not include a moral component. Proponents of this point of view emphasize the word “authentic” in authentic leadership and suggest that one can be true to a corrupt value system and still be an authentic leader. Faking a set of ethical constraints to which a leader does not personally prescribe would be a sign of inauthenticity.<sup>[10]</sup>

Others reject the idea that a leader can truly exhibit the other components of the construct – self-awareness, relational transparency, and balanced processing – without the moral maturity associated with a positive personal value system.<sup>[11]</sup>

### 6.2.2 Patterns of behavior

Authentic leadership should be understood as a pattern of behaviors through which leaders exhibit the components of authentic leadership.<sup>[9]</sup> Thus, it is insufficient for the leader to be self-aware, etc. without also conducting him or herself in such a way that others, particularly subordinates, view the leader as authentic.

## 6.3 Empirical model of authentic leadership

Although the concept of authentic leadership as an actionable model is relatively new to leadership theory and practice, there has been some initial research regarding the overall effectiveness of the model as well as the inner workings of the model within teams and organizations. This research has been used to explain what precedes the appearance of authentic leadership behaviors, what makes authentic leadership effective, and the consequences of adopting an authentic leadership style. These factors contribute to why authentic leadership works within teams and organizations.

### 6.3.1 Antecedents

Several leader characteristics may be important to the appearance of authentic leadership behaviors by leaders. For instance, both leader self-knowledge and self-consistency have been shown to act as antecedents for authentic leadership (the former being a static process of understanding one's own strengths and weaknesses and the latter consistency between their values, beliefs, and actions). This relates to the key components of authentic leadership: leaders first have to be clear about their values and convictions to be perceived as authentic by their followers and they have to demonstrate consistency between their values, beliefs, and actions.<sup>[9][12]</sup>

Additional research suggests that leaders who act in accordance to the three components of positive psychological capital (PsyCap) (hope, optimism, and resiliency) are more likely to become authentic leaders.<sup>[13]</sup> This is true for several reasons. First, leaders who can set and explain goals effectively create a more hopeful environment for their followers. Second, optimistic leaders have a greater ability to motivate their followers and help them more easily anticipate future events. Third, resilient leaders are

better equipped to function in changing environments in order to support their followers.<sup>[13]</sup>

High and low degrees of self-monitoring in an individual has also been suggested as an antecedent of authentic leadership. Self-monitoring reflect how likely someone is to actively construct a public image that aligns with the expectations of others.<sup>[14]</sup> It has been proposed that low self-monitoring leads to a higher degree of authentic leadership characteristics because low self-monitors and authentic leaders both act in a way that is consistent with what they believe and value. However, empirical research has not supported this theory thus far.<sup>[15]</sup>

### 6.3.2 Mediators

Among the proponents of authentic leadership, there are many theories regarding why authentic leadership is an effective leadership strategy.

Authentic leadership has been shown to promote team members' belief in the team's ability to succeed, known as team potency,<sup>[16]</sup> which has in turn been shown to improve team performance.<sup>[17][18]</sup> This occurs because authentic leadership behaviors promote team virtuousness which, in turn, promotes team potency and performance.<sup>[16]</sup>

Authentic leadership has also been shown to encourage team performance by promoting trust in the group or organization, because follower trust in the leader will encourage increased loyalty to the organization, increasing performance as a result.<sup>[19]</sup>

Other research has shown that the relationship between authentic leadership and both organizational citizenship behavior and empowerment is mediated by identification with supervisors. This is because a follower's interpersonal identification with his or her leader links leader and follower outcomes (in this case, empowerment and OCBs).<sup>[20]</sup>

Research into the mechanisms of authentic leadership is ongoing, but it is becoming clear that authentic leaders engender an emotional and/or psychological response from their followers that leads to an increase in individual and team performance.

### 6.3.3 Consequences

Initial research has shown that leaders who practice authentic leadership normally lead teams that perform better than teams with leaders who do not practice authentic leadership.<sup>[16][19][21]</sup> This is not necessarily surprising as the model itself arises from successful leaders who simply described what they did and put the label "authentic leadership" on that description. The academic model that has been developed over the years since the publishing of *True North*<sup>[7]</sup> has largely resulted from the work of aca-

demics to further describe the model so that it can be researched and duplicated.

## 6.4 Measures

Both research scientists and practitioners have an interest in measuring the level of authentic leadership exhibited by individual leaders. Scientists such as industrial-organizational psychologists and management researchers measure levels of authentic leadership as a way to study the interaction of authentic leaders with their organization. Practitioners such as management consultants and human resource professionals measure levels of authentic leadership to help assess leader behaviors within an organization.

### 6.4.1 Leader Authenticity Scale (LAS)

The first significant measure specifically gauging levels of authentic leadership was the 32-item Leader Authenticity Scale (LAS). The LAS measures the leader's tendency to behave genuinely regardless of formal job titles (referred to as salience of self over role), to acknowledge accountability for mistakes, and to avoid manipulation of subordinates. The LAS was developed by education researchers who identified leader authenticity as an important indicator of organizational climate in schools.<sup>[22]</sup> Later researchers questioned the reliability and generalizability of the LAS due to the small and non-diverse sample used in its development.<sup>[1]</sup>

### 6.4.2 Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)

The Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) is a survey completed by followers to capture the level of authentic leadership behaviors exhibited by supervisors. A self-assessment version is also available. The measure, developed specifically with the emerging authentic leadership theory in mind, includes sixteen items grouped into four major subcategories: self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing.<sup>[9]</sup> Most academic research since the development of the ALQ has used it to measure levels of authentic leadership.<sup>[1]</sup> However, the ALQ has been criticized for using a qualitative (and therefore subjective) approach to validation rather than a quantitative approach. Additionally, the ALQ is a commercially copyrighted measure (only sample measures are freely available), potentially limiting its availability to scientists and practitioners.<sup>[23]</sup>

### 6.4.3 Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI)

The Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI), developed in 2011, is a survey completed by followers to capture the level of authentic leadership behaviors exhibited by supervisors. Building on the theoretical research used to develop the ALQ, the ALI provides a more rigorously developed and tested measure of authentic leadership. In addition, the entire 16 item inventory is freely available.<sup>[23]</sup>

### 6.4.4 Authenticity Inventory (AI:3)

An additional measure related to authentic leadership, the Authenticity Inventory (AI:3), is used to measure individual authenticity.<sup>[3][24]</sup> Though not a leadership measure per se, it is used by some as a measure of the authenticity of a leader.<sup>[1]</sup>

## 6.5 Becoming an authentic leader

The basis of authentic leadership comes from the leader's personal history, including life-events (often called trigger events) that direct the flow of leadership formation.<sup>[11]</sup> How leaders interpret these personal histories and trigger events will inform their self-identity as leaders and influence their moral development and values, two essential components in the development of authentic leaders.<sup>[25]</sup> Because authenticity in leadership is rooted in being true to one's own ideals of leadership and ethical values, authentic leadership is brought about through a lifetime of experiences and is resistant to traditional training programs. Development of authentic leaders involves guided self-reflection, building self-awareness through the use of a life-stories approach. It may also be facilitated by the intervention of developmental trigger events coupled with directed self-reflection.<sup>[25]</sup> Recognizing leadership contingency theory, which suggest that leaders must adapt their styles and behaviors to be effective across different situations, some leadership development theorists have pointed out that only the most expert of leaders can incorporate the needs of varying situations and different followers into their own underlying value system so as to remain authentic while also being effective across diverse leadership contexts.<sup>[26]</sup>

## 6.6 Relationship to other leadership theories

The end of the twentieth century saw a rise of new theories of leadership that attempt to understand how leaders not only direct and manage, but also inspire their followers in unique ways. The construct of charismatic leadership was introduced in Max Weber in the 1920s

but greatly expanded upon by leadership theorists beginning in the 1970s and continuing to today.<sup>[27]</sup> Charismatic leadership theories attempt to capture the attributes and behaviors of extraordinary leaders in extraordinary situations (including variances of either dimension) in order to understand unusual or unique responses of followers.<sup>[28]</sup>

A short time later, **transformational leadership** theory was developed extensively. This theory differentiated “transformational” leadership behaviors from “transactional” leadership behaviors; transformational leaders inspire extraordinary action by providing insight to followers regarding the importance of their work and its outcomes, by calling on followers to subordinate their self-interest to that of the organization, and by motivating followers through activation of **higher-order needs**.<sup>[27]</sup> More recent examples of what have been called neo-charismatic leadership theories include **servant leadership**, **ethical leadership**, **spiritual leadership**, and **visionary leadership**.

Authentic leadership proponents and scholars suggest that authentic leadership is conceptually distinct from these other approaches to leadership. There is empirical support for this position, as studies have shown that authentic leadership can explain variance in leadership performance over and above that explained by other leadership theories, such as transformational leadership and ethical leadership.<sup>[9]</sup> At the same time, some theorists have suggested that authentic leadership is but one (albeit important) aspect of other forms of leadership.<sup>[29]</sup> Still others have suggested that authentic leadership is a root construct that underpins positive leadership in general.<sup>[30]</sup> This ambiguous understanding of what distinguishes authentic leadership theory from other leadership theories may be considered a signal that, despite growing research into authentic leadership, the theory remains at the beginning stages of construct development; more research will be required to draw distinctions among these various leadership theories.<sup>[1]</sup> It should also be noted, however, that many of these theories are also underdeveloped; thus the differentiation problem cannot be strictly attributed to authentic leadership theory development.<sup>[30]</sup>

## 6.7 Future research

Since authentic leadership is still in its infancy from a research point of view, it is necessary to further develop the theory behind it. Most articles written on the topic so far have been theoretical, suggesting that the pursuit of more empirical research is an appropriate next step.<sup>[1]</sup>

## 6.8 Further reading

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George, W., & Sims, P. (2007). *True North: Discover your Authentic Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.<sup>[7]</sup>

## 6.9 See also

- Leadership
- Servant leadership
- Charismatic leadership
- Transformational leadership
- Positive psychology

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## 6.11 External links

- [Mindgarden.com](http://Mindgarden.com)
- [Authleadership.com](http://Authleadership.com)
- [Hbr.org](http://Hbr.org)
- [Leadership.uoregon.edu](http://Leadership.uoregon.edu)

# Chapter 7

## Counterproductive work behavior

**Counterproductive work behavior (CWB)** is employee behavior that goes against the legitimate interests of an organization.<sup>[1]</sup> These behaviors can harm organizations or people in organizations including employees and clients, customers, or patients. It has been proposed that a person-by-environment interaction can be utilized to explain a variety of counterproductive behaviors.<sup>[2]</sup> For instance, an employee who is high on trait anger (tendency to experience anger) is more likely to respond to a stressful incident at work (being treated rudely by a supervisor) with CWB.

Some researchers use the CWB term to subsume related constructs that are distinct. **Workplace deviance** is behavior at work that violates norms for appropriate behavior.<sup>[3]</sup> Retaliation consists of harmful behaviors done by employees to get back at someone who has treated them unfairly.<sup>[4]</sup> **Workplace revenge** are behaviors by employees intended to hurt another person who has done something harmful to them.<sup>[5]</sup> **Workplace aggression** consists of harmful acts that harm others in organizations.<sup>[6]</sup>

### 7.1 Dimensional models

Several typologies of CWB exist.

Using the term deviance (behavior that violates accepted norms),<sup>[7]</sup> Robinson and Bennett created a four-class typology of CWBs divided the CWBs into the following dimensions:<sup>[8]</sup>

1. **production deviance**, involving behaviors like leaving early, intentionally working slow, or taking long breaks;
2. **property deviance**, involving sabotage of equipment, theft of property, and taking kickbacks;
3. **political deviance**, involving showing favoritism, gossiping, or blaming others; and,
4. **personal aggression**, involving harassment, verbal abuse, and endangerment.

A five dimension typology of CWB<sup>[9]</sup>

1. abuse against others;
2. production deviance;
3. sabotage;
4. theft; and
5. withdrawal.

An 11 dimension typology of CWB<sup>[10]</sup>

1. theft of property;
2. destruction of property;
3. misuse of information;
4. misuse of time and resources;
5. unsafe behavior;
6. poor attendance;
7. poor quality of work;
8. alcohol use;
9. drug use;
10. inappropriate verbal action; and
11. inappropriate physical action.

A two-dimensional model of CWBs distinguished by organizational versus person target has gained considerable acceptance.<sup>[11][12]</sup> Additional dimensions have been proposed for research purposes, including a legal v. illegal dimension, a hostile v. instrumental aggression dimension, and a task-related v. a non-task-related dimension.<sup>[13]</sup> CWBs that violate criminal law may have different antecedents than milder forms of CWBs. Similarly, instrumental aggression (i.e., aggression with a deliberate goal in mind) may have different antecedents than those CWBs caused by anger.

## 7.2 Dimensions

### 7.2.1 Absenteeism

Main article: [Absenteeism](#)

Absenteeism is typically measured by time lost (number of days absent) measures and frequency (number of absence episodes) measures. It is weakly linked to affective predictors such as [job satisfaction](#) and commitment. Absences fit into two types of categories. Excused absences are those due to personal or family illness; unexcused absences include an employee who does not come to work in order to do another preferred activity or neglects to call in to a supervisor. Absence can be linked to job dissatisfaction. Major determinants of [employee](#) absence are employee affect, [demographic](#) characteristics, organizational absence culture, and organization absence policies. Absence due to non-work obligations is related to external features of a job with respect to dissatisfaction with role conflict, role ambiguity, and feelings of tension. Absences due to stress and illness are related to internal and external features of the job, fatigue and gender. Research has found that women are more likely to be absent than men, and that the absence-control policies and culture of an organization will predict absenteeism.

### 7.2.2 Abuse against others

Physical acts of aggression by members of an organization, committed in organizational settings are considered as [workplace violence](#). While most researchers examine overall workplace aggression, there is a line of research that separates workplace aggression according to its targets, whether interpersonal or organizational.<sup>[14]</sup> In this model of workplace aggression, trait anger and interpersonal conflict have been found to be significant predictors of interpersonal aggression, while interpersonal conflict, situational constraints, and organizational constraints have been found to be predictors of organizational aggression. Other factors significantly linked to aggression are sex and trait anger, with men and individuals with higher levels of trait anger showing more aggressive behaviors.

### 7.2.3 Bullying

Main article: [Workplace bullying](#)

Workplace bullying consists of progressive and systematic mistreatment of one employee by another.<sup>[15]</sup> It may include verbal abuse, [gossiping](#), social exclusion, or the spreading of rumors.<sup>[15]</sup> The terms 'bullying' and 'mobbing' are sometimes used interchangeably, but 'bullying' is more often used to refer to lower levels

of antisocial behavior that do not include workgroup participation.<sup>[16]</sup> The costs of bullying include losses in [productivity](#), higher absenteeism, higher turnover rates, and legal fees when the victims of bullying sue the organization.<sup>[17]</sup> Reported incidence of bullying is ambiguous with rates being reported from under 3% to over 37% depending on the method used to gather incidence statistics.<sup>[15][16]</sup> The strongest factor predicting bullying behavior seems to be exposure to incidents of bullying.<sup>[15]</sup> This suggests that bullying is a cascading problem that needs to be curtailed in its earliest stages. In addition to exposure to incidents of bullying, being male also seems to increase the likelihood that one will engage in bullying behavior.<sup>[15]</sup> It is proposed that the human resources function can provide guidance in the mitigation of bullying behavior by taking an active role in identifying and stopping the behaviors.<sup>[18]</sup>

### 7.2.4 Cyber loafing

Main article: [Cyber loafing](#)

Cyber loafing can be defined as surfing the web in any form of non-job-related tasks performed by the employee.<sup>[19]</sup> Cyber loafing has emerged as more and more people use computers at work. One survey showed that 64% of US workers use the internet for personal tasks at work.<sup>[20]</sup> It has been suggested that cyber-loafing is responsible for a 30-40% decrease in employee productivity<sup>[21]</sup> and was estimated to have cost US business \$5.3 billion in 1999.<sup>[22]</sup>

### 7.2.5 Incivility

Main article: [Workplace incivility](#)

Workplace incivility is disrespectful and rude behavior in violation of workplace norms for respect.<sup>[23]</sup> The effects of incivility include increased competitiveness, increases in sadistic behavior, and inattentiveness.<sup>[23]</sup> A study of cyber incivility showed that higher levels of incivility are associated with lower job satisfaction, lower organizational commitment, and higher turnover rates.<sup>[24]</sup> Two factors that seem to be associated with becoming a victim of incivility are low levels of [agreeableness](#) and high levels of [neuroticism](#).<sup>[25]</sup> Affective Events Theory suggests that individuals who experience more incidents of incivility may be more sensitive to these behaviors and therefore more likely to report them.<sup>[25]</sup>

### 7.2.6 Lateness

Lateness is described as arriving at work later or leaving earlier than required. Problems associated with lateness include compromised organizational efficiency.<sup>[26]</sup> Tardy

and late employees responsible for critical tasks can negatively affect organizational production.<sup>[27]</sup> Other workers may experience psychological effects of the tardy employee including morale and motivational problems as they attempt to “pick up the slack.”<sup>[28]</sup> Other employees may begin to imitate the example set by the behavior of tardy employees. Lateness costs US business more than \$3 billion annually.<sup>[29]</sup>

### 7.2.7 Production deviance

Production deviance is ineffective job performance that is done on purpose, such as doing tasks incorrectly or withholding of effort. Such behaviors can be seen in disciplinary actions and safety violations).

### 7.2.8 Sabotage

Employee **sabotage** are behaviors that can “damage or disrupt the organization’s production, damaging property, the destruction of relationships, or the harming of employees or customers.”<sup>[30]</sup> Research has shown that often acts of sabotage or acts of retaliation are motivated by perceptions of organizational injustice<sup>[31]</sup> and performed with the intention of causing harm to the target.<sup>[32]</sup>

### 7.2.9 Sexual harassment

Main article: [Sexual harassment](#)

Sexual harassment is defined as “unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical contact when (a) submission to the conduct by the employee is either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual’s employment, (b) submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as a basis for employment decisions affecting the individual and/or (c) such conduct [that] has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with work performance, or creating an intimidating, hostile or offensive working environment.” (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1980)

### 7.2.10 Substance abuse

**Substance abuse** by employees at work is a problem that can have an effect on work attendance, performance, and safety and can lead to other injuries outside of work and health problems.

### 7.2.11 Theft

Employee **theft** is defined as employees taking things not belonging to them from an organization. Employee

theft is estimated to account for billions of dollars of loss globally each year,<sup>[33]</sup> with employees accounting for more theft than customers.<sup>[34]</sup> This may include large **embezzlements** or the pilfering of pencils and paperclips, but the losses in the aggregate are substantial. At least one study suggests that 45% of companies experience financial fraud, with average losses of \$1.7 million.<sup>[35]</sup> Factors such as **Conscientiousness** have been shown to be negatively related to theft behaviors.<sup>[36]</sup> Many organizations use integrity tests during the initial screening process for new employees in an effort to eliminate those considered most likely to commit theft.<sup>[37]</sup> Causes of employee theft include characteristics of the individual and environmental conditions such as frustrating and unfair working conditions.

### 7.2.12 Turnover

Main article: [Turnover \(employment\)](#)

Turnover is when employees leave the organization, either voluntarily (quitting) or involuntarily (being fired or laid off). Research on voluntary employee job turnover has attempted to understand the causes of individual decisions to leave an organization. It has been found that lower performance, lack of reward contingencies for performance, and better external job opportunities are the main causes. Other variables related to turnover are conditions in the external job market and the availability of other job opportunities,<sup>[38]</sup> and length of employee tenure. Turnover can be optimal as when a poorly performing employee decides to leave an organization, or dysfunctional when the high turnover rates increase the costs associated with recruitment and training of new employees, or if good employees consistently decide to leave. Avoidable turnover is when the organization could have prevented it and unavoidable turnover is when the employee’s decision to leave could not be prevented.

### 7.2.13 Withdrawal

Employee withdrawal consists of behaviors such as absence, lateness, and ultimately job turnover. Absence and lateness has attracted research as they disrupt organizational production, deliveries and services. Unsatisfied employees withdraw in order to avoid work tasks or pain, and remove themselves from their jobs.<sup>[39]</sup> Withdrawal behavior may be explained as employee retaliation against inequity in the work setting.<sup>[40]</sup> Withdrawal may also be part of a progressive model and relate to job dissatisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment.<sup>[41]</sup>



### 7.3 Notable behavior exclusions

CWBs are “active and volitional acts engaged in by individuals, as opposed to accidental or unintentional actions.”<sup>[42]</sup> CWBs, therefore do not include acts that lack volition, such as the inability to successfully complete a task. Nor do CWBs include involvement in an accident, although purposeful avoidance of the safety rules that may have led to the accident would represent a CWB.

The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2002) estimates the cost of accidents to organizations to be \$145 million annually. Most research on this topic has attempted to evaluate characteristics of the workplace environment that lead to accidents and determination of ways to avoid accidents. There has also been some research on the characteristics of accident-prone employees that has found they are typically younger, more distractible, and less socially adjusted than other employees. Recent research has shown that an organization’s safety climate has been associated with lower accident involvement, compliance with safety procedures, and increased proactive safety behaviors.

Another set of behaviors that do not fit easily into the accepted definition of CWBs, are those described as unethical pro-organizational behaviors (UPBs). UPBs represent illegitimate means intended to further the legitimate interests of an organization.<sup>[43]</sup> UPBs are not necessarily intended to harm the organization, although the UPBs may result in adverse consequences to the organization, such as a loss of trust and goodwill, or in criminal charges against the organization.<sup>[43]</sup> In law enforcement, UPBs are exhibited in a form of misconduct called Noble Cause Corruption.<sup>[44]</sup> Noble Cause Corruption occurs when a police officer violates the law or ethical rules in order to reduce crime or the fear of crime. An example of Noble Cause Corruption is *testilying*,<sup>[45]</sup> in which a police officer commits perjury to obtain the conviction of a supposed criminal. UPBs have not received the same attention from researchers that CWBs have received.<sup>[43]</sup>

### 7.4 Organizational citizenship behavior

Main article: [Organizational citizenship behavior](#)

Counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), which consists of behaviors that help organizations but go beyond required tasks, have been studied together and are generally found to be related in that individuals who do one are unlikely to do the other.<sup>[46]</sup>

### 7.5 Current research topics and trends

By definition, counterproductive work behaviors are voluntary acts that are detrimental to an organization.<sup>[10]</sup> They have important implications for the well-being of an organization.<sup>[47]</sup> Theft alone is estimated to cause worldwide losses in the billions of dollars each year.<sup>[33]</sup> These estimated losses do not include losses from other sources, nor do they consider the fact that many losses attributable to CWBs go undetected.<sup>[48]</sup>

The consequences of CWBs and their persistence in the workplace<sup>[49]</sup> have led to increased attention being given to the study of such behaviors.<sup>[50]</sup> Current trends in industrial organizational psychology suggest a continuing increase in the study of CWBs.<sup>[47][51]</sup> Research into CWBs appears to fall into three broad categories: (1) classification of CWBs;<sup>[1][10]</sup> (2) predicting counterproductive behaviors;<sup>[52][53][54]</sup> and (3) furthering the theoretical framework of CWBs.<sup>[47][55][56][57]</sup>

A review of peer reviewed journals following this article shows the broad interest in CWBs. A brief list of noted journals includes *The International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Computers in Human Behavior*, *Personality and Individual Differences*, *Occupational Health Psychology*, *Human Resource Management Review*, *Military Justice*, *Criminal Justice Ethics*, *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, and *International Journal of Nursing Studies*. The variety of journals reporting in the area of CWBs reflects the breadth of the topic and the global interest in studying these behaviors.

Researchers use many sources in attempting to measure CWBs. These include potentially subjective measures such as self-reports, peer reports, and supervisor reports.<sup>[58]</sup> More objective methods for assessing CWBs include disciplinary records, absentee records, and job performance statistics.<sup>[59]</sup> Each of these methods present potential problems in the measurement of CWBs. For example, self-reports always have the potential for bias with individuals trying to cast themselves in a good light.<sup>[59]</sup> Self-reports may also cause problems for researchers when they measure what an incumbent 'can-do' and what an incumbent 'will-do.'<sup>[1]</sup> Peer and supervisor reports can suffer from personal bias, but they also suffer from lack of knowledge of the private behaviors of the job incumbent whose behavior is being studied.<sup>[1]</sup> Archival records suffer from lack of information about the private behaviors of incumbents, providing instead information about instances where incumbents are caught engaging in CWBs. Some researchers have proposed a differential detection hypothesis which predicts that there will be discrepancies between reports of detected CWBs and other reports of CWBs.<sup>[60]</sup>

The lack of accurate measures for CWBs jeopardizes the ability of researchers to find the relationships between

CWB and other factors they are evaluating.<sup>[60]</sup> The primary criticism of research in CWBs has been that too much of the research relies on a single-source method of measurement relying primarily on self-reports of counterproductive work behavior.<sup>[58][60][61]</sup> Several studies have therefore attempted to compare self-reports with other forms of evidence about CWBs. These studies seek to determine whether different forms of evidence converge, or effectively measure the same behaviors.<sup>[61]</sup> Convergence has been established between self-reports and peer and supervisor reports for interpersonal CWBs but not organizational CWBs.<sup>[59][60]</sup> This finding is significant because it promotes the ability of researchers to use multiple sources of evidence in evaluating CWBs.<sup>[59]</sup>

## 7.6 Correlates, predictors, moderators and mediators

### 7.6.1 Affect

Main article: *Affect (psychology)*

Affect or emotion at work, especially the experience of negative emotions like anger or anxiety, predict the likelihood of counterproductive work behaviors occurring.<sup>[62]</sup> Affective personality traits, the tendency for individuals to experience emotions, can also predict CWB. For example, employees with high *negative affectivity*, the tendency to experience negative emotions, typically display more counterproductive work behaviors than those with *positive affectivity*, the tendency to experience positive emotions.<sup>[63]</sup>

### 7.6.2 Age

Age appears to be an important factor in predicting CWBs. While age does not appear to be strongly related to core task performance, creativity, or performance in training, it does appear to be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors and negatively related to CWBs.<sup>[64]</sup> Older employees seem to exhibit less aggression, tardiness, substance abuse, and voluntary absenteeism (although sickness related absenteeism is somewhat higher than younger employees). Some researchers argue that the lower rate of CWBs may be due to better self-regulation and self-control.

### 7.6.3 Cognitive ability

Research into the relationship between cognitive ability and CWBs is contradictory. When CWBs are operationalized as disciplinary records of detected CWBs, a strong negative relationship between cognitive ability

has been found.<sup>[65]</sup> This relationship did not hold, however, when cognitive ability was operationalized as educational attainment.<sup>[65]</sup> A longitudinal study of adolescents through young adulthood found that, among those individuals who exhibited conduct disorders as youths, high levels of cognitive ability were associated with higher levels of CWBs, a positive relationship.<sup>[53]</sup> Other research has found that *general mental ability* is largely unrelated to self-reports of CWBs including theft (although a weak link to incidents of lateness was detected).<sup>[60]</sup> In the same study, grade point average showed a stronger relationship to CWBs.<sup>[60]</sup> Contradictions in the findings may be explained in the differential effects between measures of cognitive ability and self-reported versus detected incidents of CWBs.

### 7.6.4 Emotional intelligence

Main article: *Emotional intelligence*

Emotional intelligence (EI) has been defined as the ability to identify and manage emotional information in oneself and others and focus energy on required behaviors.<sup>[66]</sup> The factors making up EI include:<sup>[52]</sup>

1. appraisal and expression of emotion in self
2. appraisal and recognition of emotions in others
3. regulation of emotions, and
4. use of emotions.

To the extent that EI includes the ability to manage emotions, it can be expected that it will have an influence on CWBs similar to that found for self-control. Research in this area is limited, however, one study looking for the moderating effects of EI on the relationships between distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice failed to find a significant moderating effect in any of these relationships.<sup>[52]</sup>

### 7.6.5 Interpersonal conflict

Main article: *Interpersonal conflict*

Interpersonal conflict in the workplace can also lead to counterproductive work behaviors.<sup>[67]</sup> Interpersonal conflict with the supervisor can lead to counterproductive work behaviors such as defiance, undermining, and colluding with coworkers to engage in deviant behavior.<sup>[68]</sup> Interpersonal conflict with peers can lead to counterproductive work behaviors such as harassment, bullying, and physical altercations.<sup>[10][69]</sup>

### 7.6.6 Organizational constraints

Organizational constraints, the extent to which conditions at work interfere with job tasks, has been shown to relate to CWB so that jobs with high constraints have employees who engage in CWB.<sup>[70]</sup> Not only do constraints lead to CWB, but CWB can lead to constraints. Employees who engage in CWB can find that constraints increase over time.<sup>[71]</sup>

### 7.6.7 Organizational justice

Main article: [Organizational justice](#)

Organizational justice or fairness perceptions have been shown to influence the display of counterproductive work behaviors.<sup>[72]</sup> Distributive justice, procedural justice, and [interactional justice](#) have all been shown to include both counterproductive work behaviors aimed at individuals, such as political deviance and personal aggression; and counterproductive work behaviors aimed at the organization, such as production slowdown and property deviance.<sup>[73]</sup>

Overall perceptions of unfairness may particularly elicit interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors such as political deviance and personal aggressions. Interpersonal justice and informational justice may also predict counterproductive work behaviors aimed at the supervisor, such as neglecting to follow supervisory instructions, acting rudely toward one's supervisor, spreading unconfirmed rumors about a supervisor, intentionally doing something to get one's supervisor in trouble, and encouraging coworkers to get back at one's supervisor.<sup>[68]</sup>

### 7.6.8 Personality

Personality is a predictor of an employee's proclivity toward counterproductive work behaviors. With regard to the [Big Five personality traits](#): conscientiousness, agreeableness, extroversion and openness to experience all predict counterproductive behaviors. When an employee is low in conscientiousness, counterproductive work behaviors related to the organization are more likely to occur.<sup>[69][74]</sup> Employees who are low in agreeableness will exhibit counterproductive work behaviors related to interpersonal deviant behaviors.<sup>[69][74]</sup> Furthermore, in terms of greater specificity, for employees low in conscientiousness, sabotage and withdrawal are more likely to occur. For employees low in extraversion, theft is likely to occur. Finally, for employees high in openness to experience, production deviance is likely to occur.<sup>[75]</sup>

### Narcissistic personalities

Main article: [Narcissism](#)

Employees with narcissistic personalities tend to exhibit more counterproductive work behaviors, especially when the workplace is stressful.<sup>[76]</sup>

### Self-control

Main article: [Self-control](#)

Self-control has been evaluated as a significant explanation of CWBs. Like, conscientiousness, self-control, or internal control, is seen as a stable individual difference that tends to inhibit deviant behaviors.<sup>[77]</sup> The identification of self-control as a factor in deviant behaviors flows from work in criminology, where self-control is seen as the strength of one's ability to avoid short-term gain for long-term costs.<sup>[77]</sup> Using multiple regression analysis, one study compared the effects of 25 characteristics (including self-control, justicial factors, equity factors, positive affect, levels of autonomy, and a variety of other individual characteristics) on CWBs. The study showed that self-control was the best predictor of CWBs and that most of the other factors had negligible predictive value.<sup>[57]</sup> Cognitive ability and age were among the remaining factors that showed some effect. These additional findings are consistent with research that tends to show older employees exercise a greater level of self-control.<sup>[64]</sup>

### Target personality

One line of research in CWBs looks not at the instigators of CWBs, but the victims' provocative target behavior, or the behaviors of the victims of CWBs, which are seen as potential mediating factors in the frequency and intensity of CWBs originated against them.<sup>[25]</sup> This line of research suggests that low levels of Agreeableness and Conscientiousness, and high levels of Neuroticism, in the victims of CWBs may lead to more incidents of CWBs, like incivility. Affective Events Theory has been used to explain that some individuals report being the victim of incivility more often because they are more sensitive to it than other workers.

## 7.7 Peer reporting

[Normative behavior](#) within organizations tends to discourage workers from reporting the observed CWBs of their peers, although this tendency can be reduced when a group is punished for the CWBs of individual members.<sup>[78]</sup> There are three factors that seem to be most influential on peer reporting of CWBs: the emotional closeness between the person exhibiting the CWBs and

the person observing the CWBs; the severity of the misconduct observed, and the presence of witness.<sup>[78]</sup> Peers are more likely to report the CWBs of colleagues when the conduct is severe, or when there are other witnesses present, and less likely to report CWBs when they are emotionally close to the person committing the CWBs. A key problem in the use of peer reports of CWBs instead of self-reports of CWBs is that peer reports only capture observed behaviors and are not able to identify CWBs committed secretly.<sup>[1]</sup>

## 7.8 Managing strategies

A substantial body of research has demonstrated that stable characteristics of individuals are associated with the likelihood of CWBs. Some examples of stable characteristics that have been demonstrated to have relationships with CWBs include Conscientiousness and Agreeability,<sup>[35]</sup> motivation avoidance,<sup>[56]</sup> cognitive ability,<sup>[65]</sup> and self-control.<sup>[57]</sup> To the extent that these stable conditions predict CWBs, reduction of CWBs in an organization can begin at the recruitment and selection phase of new employees.

Integrity screening is one common form of screening used by organizations<sup>[79]</sup> as is cognitive ability screening.<sup>[65]</sup> Personality testing is also common in screening out individuals who may have a higher incidence of CWBs.<sup>[36]</sup> Work samples have been found to be a more effective screening tool than integrity testing alone, but integrity testing and cognitive testing together are even better screening tools.<sup>[77]</sup> While the use of screening instruments may be an imperfect decision-making tool, the question often facing the recruiter is not whether the instrument is perfect, but whether, relative to other available screening tools, the screening tool is functional.<sup>[48]</sup>

However, organizations must do more than screen employees in order to successfully manage CWBs. Substantial research has demonstrated that CWBs arise out of situational factors that occur in the day-to-day operations of an organization, including organizational constraints,<sup>[80]</sup> lack of rewards,<sup>[42]</sup> illegitimate tasks,<sup>[81]</sup> interpersonal conflicts,<sup>[80]</sup> and lack of organizational justice.<sup>[59]</sup> Research has shown that individuals who are treated unfairly are more likely to engage in CWBs.<sup>[52]</sup> One major step that organizations can take to reduce the impetus for CWBs is therefore to enhance organizational justice.<sup>[82]</sup> Maintaining communications and feedback, allowing participation of employees, and supervisory training are other suggestions for mitigating CWBs.<sup>[83]</sup> Organizations must also pay close attention to employees for signs and sources of interpersonal conflicts so that they can be identified and tended to as necessary.<sup>[25][84]</sup>

Combating CWBs comes with some costs, including the costs of selection, monitoring, and implementing preven-

tive measures to reduce triggers for CWBs. Before undertaking costly measures to reduce CWBs, it may be worthwhile for an organization to identify the costs of CWBs.<sup>[50]</sup> If the cost-benefit analysis does not show a savings, then the organization must decide whether the battle against CWBs is worth fighting. As part of this consideration, the organization should be aware that at least one set of researchers suggest that production deviance (withholding effort) and withdrawal can be a benefit to employees by allowing them to relieve tension in certain circumstances.<sup>[85]</sup>

### 7.8.1 Information technology

The increasing use of the Internet in the workplace is making it easier for workers to steal time and engage in counter productive work behavior. Stealing from the workplace can be through the unauthorized use of a work computer or network. The aforementioned type of theft is known as time and resource theft. As social media and gaming sites become more popular, time and resources theft does as well. Companies may use sniffers to monitor their network. Sniffers monitor network traffic, evaluate network capacity, and can be used to reveal evidence of improper use. Some companies go further than sniffers and use software which allows companies to block and monitor websites that they deem undesirable.

## 7.9 See also

- Cognitive resource theory
- Cyberslacking
- Employee silence
- Industrial and organizational psychology
- Malicious compliance
- Narcissism in the workplace
- Passive-aggressive behavior
- Procrastination
- Psychopathy in the workplace
- Workplace harassment

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## 7.12 External links

## Chapter 8

# Employee engagement



*According to legend, an engaged janitorial employee at NASA, when asked what he was doing, is said to have replied “I’m helping to put a man on the Moon”.*

**Employee engagement** is a property of the relationship between an organization and its employees. An “engaged employee” is one who is fully absorbed by and enthusiastic about their work and so takes positive action to further the organization's reputation and interests.

An organization with 'high' employee engagement might therefore be expected to outperform those with 'low' employee engagement, all else being equal.<sup>[1]</sup>

### 8.1 Definitions

William Kahn provided the first formal definition of employee engagement as “the harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances.” Kahn (1990).

In 1993, Schmidt et al. proposed a bridge between the pre-existing concept of 'job satisfaction' and employee engagement with the definition: “an employee’s involve-

ment with, commitment to, and satisfaction with work. Employee engagement is a part of employee retention.” This definition integrates the classic constructs of job satisfaction (Smith et al., 1969), and organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Defining employee engagement remains problematic. In their review of the literature in 2011, Shuck and Wollard<sup>[2]</sup> identify four main sub-concepts within the term:

1. “Needs satisfying” approach, in which engagement is the expression of one’s preferred self in task behaviours.
2. “Burnout antithesis” approach, in which energy, involvement, efficacy are presented as the opposites of established “burnout” constructs: exhaustion, cynicism and lack of accomplishment.
3. Satisfaction-engagement approach, in which engagement is a more technical version of job satisfaction, evidenced by Gallup’s own Q12 engagement survey which gives an  $r=.91$  correlation with one (job satisfaction) measure.<sup>[3]</sup>
4. The multidimensional approach, in which a clear distinction is maintained between job and organisational engagement, usually with the primary focus on antecedents and consequents to role performance rather than organisational identification.

Definitions of engagement vary in the weight they give to the individual vs the organisation in creating engagement. Recent practice has situated the drivers of engagement across this spectrum, from within the psyche of the individual employee (for example, promising recruitment services that will filter out 'disengaged' job applicants<sup>[4]</sup>) to focusing mainly on the actions and investments the organisation makes to support engagement.<sup>[5]</sup>

These definitional issues are potentially severe for practitioners. With different (and often proprietary) definitions of the object being measured, statistics from different sources are not readily comparable. Engagement work remains open to the challenge that its basic assumptions are, as Tom Keenoy describes them, 'normative' and 'aspirational', rather than analytic or operational - and so

risk being seen by other organizational participants as “motherhood and apple pie” rhetoric.<sup>[6]</sup>

## 8.2 Correlates

Prior to the mid-1990s, a series of concepts relating to employee morale, work ethic, productivity and motivation had been investigated in management theory, in a line dating back to the work of Mary Parker Follett in the early 1920s. See for example the work of Frederick Herzberg, who concluded <sup>[7]</sup> that positive motivation is driven by managers giving their employees developmental opportunities, activity he termed 'vertical enrichment'.

With the wide range of definitions of employee engagement come a wide range of identified causes and effects. For some examples:

### 8.2.1 Involvement

Eileen Appelbaum and her colleagues (2000) studied 15 steel mills, 17 apparel manufacturers, and 10 electronic instrument and imaging equipment producers. Their purpose was to compare traditional production systems with flexible high-performance production systems involving teams, training, and incentive pay systems. In all three industries, the plants utilizing high-involvement practices showed superior performance. In addition, workers in the high-involvement plants showed more positive attitudes, including trust, organizational commitment and intrinsic enjoyment of the work.<sup>[8]</sup> The concept has gained popularity as various studies have demonstrated links with productivity. It is often linked to the notion of employee voice and empowerment.<sup>[9]</sup>

Two studies of employees in the life insurance industry examined the impact of employee perceptions that they had the power to make decisions, sufficient knowledge and information to do the job effectively, and rewards for high performance. Both studies included large samples of employees (3,570 employees in 49 organizations and 4,828 employees in 92 organizations). In both studies, high-involvement management practices were positively associated with employee morale, employee retention, and firm financial performance.<sup>[8]</sup> Watson Wyatt found that high-commitment organizations (one with loyal and dedicated employees) out-performed those with low commitment by 47% in the 2000 study and by 200% in the 2002 study.<sup>[10]</sup>

### 8.2.2 Commitment

Employees with the highest level of commitment perform 20% better and are 87% less likely to leave the organization, which indicates that engagement is linked to organizational performance.<sup>[11]</sup>

### 8.2.3 Productivity

In a study of professional service firms, the Hay Group found that offices with engaged employees were up to 43% more productive.<sup>[12]</sup> Job satisfaction is also linked to productivity.<sup>[13]</sup>

## 8.3 Generating engagement

While it is possible to measure engagement itself through employee surveys, this does not assist in identifying areas for improvement within organisations. To manage employee engagement upwards, it is necessary to identify what drives engagement. Some points from research into drivers of engagement are presented below:

- **Employee perceptions of job importance** - "...an employee's attitude toward the job's importance and the company had the greatest impact on loyalty and customer service than all other employee factors combined."<sup>[1]</sup>
- **Employee clarity of job expectations** - "If expectations are not clear and basic materials and equipment are not provided, negative emotions such as boredom or resentment may result, and the employee may then become focused on surviving more than thinking about how he can help the organization succeed."<sup>[14]</sup>
- **Career advancement / improvement opportunities** - "Plant supervisors and managers indicated that many plant improvements were being made outside the suggestion system, where employees initiated changes in order to reap the bonuses generated by the subsequent cost savings."<sup>[15]</sup>
- **Regular feedback and dialogue with superiors** - "Feedback is the key to giving employees a sense of where they're going, but many organizations are remarkably bad at giving it."<sup>[14]</sup> "What I really wanted to hear was 'Thanks. You did a good job.' But all my boss did was hand me a check."<sup>[12]</sup>
- **Quality of working relationships with peers, superiors, and subordinates** - "...if employees' relationship with their managers is fractured, then no amount of perks will persuade the employees to perform at top levels. Employee engagement is a direct reflection of how employees feel about their relationship with the boss."<sup>[16]</sup>
- **Perceptions of the ethos and values of the organization** - "Inspiration and values' is the most important of the six drivers in our Engaged Performance model. Inspirational leadership is the ultimate perk. In its absence, [it] is unlikely to engage employees."

- **Effective internal employee communications** - which convey a clear description of “what’s going on”. ”

Commitment theories are rather based on creating conditions, under which the employee will feel compelled to work for an organization, whereas engagement theories aim to bring about a situation in which the employee by free choice has an intrinsic desire to work in the best interests of the organization.<sup>[17]</sup>

Recent research has focused on developing a better understanding of how variables such as quality of work relationships and values of the organization interact, and their link to important work outcomes.<sup>[18]</sup> From the perspective of the employee, “outcomes” range from strong commitment to the isolation of oneself from the organization.<sup>[16]</sup>

## 8.4 Hazards

- *Methodological*: Bad use of statistics: practitioners face a number of risks in working with engagement data, which are typically drawn from survey evidence. These include the risk of mistaking correlations for causation, making invalid comparisons between similar-sounding data drawn from diverging methodologies and/or incomparable populations, misunderstanding or misrepresented basic concepts and assumptions, and accurately establishing margins of error in data (ensuring signal and noise are kept distinct).<sup>[19]</sup>
- *Administrative*: A focus on survey administration, data gathering and analysis of results (rather than taking action) may also damage engagement efforts. Organizations that survey their workforce without acting on the feedback appear to negatively impact engagement scores.<sup>[20]</sup> The reporting and oversight requirements of engagement initiatives represent a claim on the scarcest resources (time and money) of the organisation, and therefore requires management time to demonstrate value added. At the same time, actions on the basis of engagement surveys are usually devolved to local management, where any 'value add' is counted in local performance. Central administration of 'employee engagement' is therefore challenging to maintain over time.
- *Ethical*: Were it proven possible to alter employees' attitudes and behaviours in the manner intended, and with the expected value-adding results for the organisation, a question remains <sup>[21]</sup> whether it would be ethical to do so. Practitioners generally acknowledge that the old model of the psychological contract is gone, but attempting to programme a one-way identification in its place, from employee

to organization, may be seen as morally and perhaps politically loaded.

- *Externalities*: According to the Conference Board and other recent studies, employee engagement has deteriorated significantly in the US and the UK over the last five years.

## 8.5 References in popular culture

- Dilbert comic strip #1
- Dilbert comic strip #2

## 8.6 See also

- Brand engagement
- Corporate social responsibility
- Empowerment
- Flow (psychology)
- Human resources
- Internal communications
- Internal marketing
- Onboarding
- Organizational citizenship behavior
- Organizational commitment
- Positive psychology in the workplace
- Work engagement

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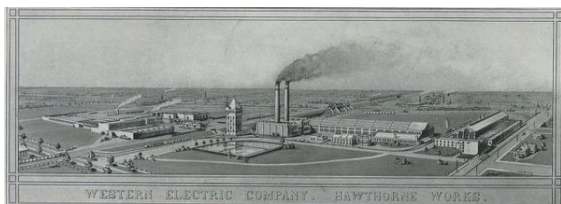
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## Chapter 9

# Hawthorne effect



*Aerial view of the Hawthorne Works, c. 1920*

The **Hawthorne effect** (also referred to as the **observer effect**) refers to a **phenomenon** whereby individuals improve or modify an aspect of their behavior in response to their awareness of being observed.<sup>[1][2]</sup> The original “Hawthorne effect” study suggested that the novelty of being research subjects and the increased attention from such could lead to temporary increases in workers’ productivity.

### 9.1 History

The term was coined in 1950 by Henry A. Landsberger<sup>[3]</sup> when analyzing earlier experiments from 1924–32 at the Hawthorne Works (a Western Electric factory outside Chicago). The Hawthorne Works had commissioned a study to see if their workers would become more productive in higher or lower levels of light. The workers’ productivity seemed to improve when changes were made, and slumped when the study ended. It was suggested that the productivity gain occurred as a result of the **motivational** effect on the workers of the interest being shown in them.

This effect was observed for minute increases in illumination. In these lighting studies, light intensity was altered to examine its effect on worker productivity. Most industrial/occupational psychology and organizational behavior textbooks refer to the illumination studies.<sup>[4]</sup> Only occasionally are the rest of the studies mentioned.<sup>[5]</sup>

Although illumination research of workplace lighting formed the basis of the Hawthorne effect, other changes such as maintaining clean work stations, clearing floors of obstacles, and even relocating workstations resulted in increased productivity for short periods. Thus the term is used to identify any type of short-lived increase in

productivity.<sup>[3][6][7]</sup>

Interpretations and views vary. Parsons defines the Hawthorne effect as “the confounding that occurs if experimenters fail to realize how the consequences of subjects’ performance affect what subjects do” [i.e. performance is affected – possibly unconsciously – by possible positive or negative personal consequences not considered by the experimenter],<sup>[8]</sup> George Elton Mayo describes it in terms of a positive emotional effect due to the perception of a sympathetic or interested observer, Clark and Sugrue (1991) say that uncontrolled novelty effects cause on average 30% of a standard deviation (SD) rise (i.e. 50–63% score rise), which decays to small level after eight weeks, Braverman argues that the studies really showed that the workplace was not “a system of bureaucratic formal organisation on the Weberian model, nor a system of informal group relations, as in the interpretation of Mayo and his followers but rather a system of power, of class antagonisms”,<sup>[9]</sup> and studies of the **demand effect** also suggests that people might take on pleasing the experimenter as a goal.<sup>[10]</sup>

Evaluation of the Hawthorne effect continues in the present day.<sup>[11][12][13]</sup>

#### 9.1.1 Relay assembly experiments

In one of the studies, experimenters chose two women as test subjects and asked them to choose four other workers to join the test group. Together the women worked in a separate room over the course of five years (1927–1932) assembling telephone **relays**.

Output was measured mechanically by counting how many finished relays each worker dropped down a chute. This measuring began in secret two weeks before moving the women to an experiment room and continued throughout the study. In the experiment room, they had a supervisor who discussed changes with them and at times used their suggestions. Then the researchers spent five years measuring how different variables affected the group’s and individuals’ productivity. Some of the variables were:

- giving two 5-minute breaks (after a discussion with



them on the best length of time), and then changing to two 10-minute breaks (not their preference). Productivity increased, but when they received six 5-minute rests, they disliked it and reduced output.

- providing food during the breaks
- shortening the day by 30 minutes (output went up); shortening it more (output per hour went up, but overall output decreased); returning to the first condition (where output peaked).

Changing a variable usually increased productivity, even if the variable was just a change back to the original condition. However it is said that this is the natural process of the human being to adapt to the environment without knowing the objective of the experiment occurring. Researchers concluded that the workers worked harder because they thought that they were being monitored individually.

Researchers hypothesized that choosing one's own coworkers, working as a group, being treated as special (as evidenced by working in a separate room), and having a sympathetic supervisor were the real reasons for the productivity increase. One interpretation, mainly due to Elton Mayo,<sup>[14]</sup> was that "the six individuals became a team and the team gave itself wholeheartedly and spontaneously to cooperation in the experiment." (There was a second relay assembly test room study whose results were not as significant as the first experiment.)

### 9.1.2 Bank wiring room experiments

The purpose of the next study was to find out how payment incentives would affect productivity. The surprising result was that productivity actually decreased. Workers apparently had become suspicious that their productivity may have been boosted to justify firing some of the workers later on.<sup>[15]</sup> The study was conducted by Elton Mayo and W. Lloyd Warner between 1931 and 1932 on a group of fourteen men who put together telephone switching equipment. The researchers found that although the workers were paid according to individual productivity, productivity decreased because the men were afraid that the company would lower the base rate. Detailed observation of the men revealed the existence of informal groups or "cliques" within the formal groups. These cliques developed informal rules of behavior as well as mechanisms to enforce them. The cliques served to control group members and to manage bosses; when bosses asked questions, clique members gave the same responses, even if they were untrue. These results show that workers were more responsive to the social force of their peer groups than to the control and incentives of management.

## 9.2 Interpretation and criticism

Richard Nisbett has described the Hawthorne effect as 'a glorified anecdote', saying that 'once you have got the anecdote, you can throw away the data.'<sup>[16]</sup> Other researchers have attempted to explain the effects with various interpretations.

Adair warns of gross factual inaccuracy in most secondary publications on Hawthorne effect and that many studies failed to find it.<sup>[17]</sup> He argues that it should be viewed as a variant of Orne's (1973) experimental demand effect. So for Adair, the issue is that an experimental effect depends on the participants' interpretation of the situation; this is why manipulation checks are important in social sciences experiments. So he thinks it is not awareness per se, nor special attention per se, but participants' interpretation that must be investigated in order to discover if/how the experimental conditions interact with the participants' goals. This can affect whether participants believe something, if they act on it or do not see it as in their interest, etc.

Possible explanations for the Hawthorne effect include the impact of feedback and motivation towards the experimenter. Receiving feedback on their performance may improve their skills when an experiment provides this feedback for the first time.<sup>[8]</sup> Research on the demand effect also suggests that people may be motivated to please the experimenter, at least if it does not conflict with any other motive.<sup>[10]</sup> They may also be suspicious of the purpose of the experimenter.<sup>[8]</sup> Therefore, Hawthorne effect may only occur when there is usable feedback or a change in motivation.

Parsons defines the Hawthorne effect as "the confounding that occurs if experimenters fail to realize how the consequences of subjects' performance affect what subjects do" [i.e. learning effects, both permanent skill improvement and feedback-enabled adjustments to suit current goals]. His key argument is that in the studies where workers dropped their finished goods down chutes, the participants had access to the counters of their work rate.<sup>[8]</sup>

Mayo contended that the effect was due to the workers reacting to the sympathy and interest of the observers. He does say that this experiment is about testing overall effect, not testing factors separately. He also discusses it not really as an experimenter effect but as a management effect: how management can make workers perform differently because they feel differently. A lot to do with feeling free, not feeling supervised but more in control as a group. The experimental manipulations were important in convincing the workers to feel this way: that conditions were really different. The experiment was repeated with similar effects on mica-splitting workers.<sup>[14]</sup>

Richard E. Clark and Brenda M. Sugrue (1991, p. 333) in a review of educational research say that uncontrolled novelty effects cause on average 30% of a standard devi-

ation (SD) rise (i.e. 50%–63% score rise), which decays to small level after 8 weeks. In more detail: 50% of a SD for up to 4 weeks; 30% of SD for 5–8 weeks; and 20% of SD for > 8 weeks, (which is < 1% of the variance).

Harry Braverman points out that the Hawthorne tests were based on industrial psychology and were investigating whether workers' performance could be predicted by pre-hire testing. The Hawthorne study showed "that the performance of workers had little relation to ability and in fact often bore an inverse relation to test scores...".<sup>[9]</sup> Braverman argues that the studies really showed that the workplace was not "a system of bureaucratic formal organisation on the Weberian model, nor a system of informal group relations, as in the interpretation of Mayo and his followers but rather a system of power, of class antagonisms". This discovery was a blow to those hoping to apply the behavioral sciences to manipulate workers in the interest of management.

The economists Steven Levitt and John A. List long pursued without success a search for the base data of the original illumination experiments, before running it to earth in a microfilm at the University of Wisconsin in Milwaukee in 2011.<sup>[18]</sup> Re-analysing it, they found that the variance in productivity could be fully accounted for by the fact that the lighting changes were made on Sundays and therefore followed by Mondays when workers' productivity was refreshed by a day off.<sup>[19]</sup> Despite the absence of evidence for the Hawthorne Effect in the original study, List has said that he remains confident that the effect is genuine.<sup>[20]</sup> This finding supported the analysis of an article by S R G Jones in 1992 examining the relay experiments.<sup>[21][22]</sup>

It is also possible that the illumination experiments can be explained by a longitudinal learning effect. Parsons has declined to analyse the illumination experiments, on the grounds that they have not been properly published and so he cannot get at details, whereas he had extensive personal communication with Roethlisberger and Dickson.<sup>[8]</sup>

Despite these alternative explanations, the Hawthorne effect has been well established in the empirical literature beyond the original studies. The output ("dependent") variables were human work, and the educational effects can be expected to be similar (but it is not so obvious that medical effects would be). The experiments stand as a warning about simple experiments on human participants viewed as if they were only material systems. There is less certainty about the nature of the surprise factor, other than it certainly depended on the mental states of the participants: their knowledge, beliefs, etc.

### 9.3 Trial effect in clinical trials

Various medical scientists have studied possible **trial effect (clinical trial effect)** in clinical trials.<sup>[23] [24] [25]</sup> Some postulate that, beyond just attention and observa-

tion, there may be other factors involved, such as slightly better care; slightly better compliance/adherence; and selection bias. The latter may have several mechanisms: (1) Physicians may tend to recruit patients who seem to have better adherence potential and lesser likelihood of future loss to follow-up. (2) The inclusion/exclusion criteria of trials often exclude at least some comorbidities; although this is often necessary to prevent confounding, it also means that trials may tend to work with healthier patient subpopulations.

### 9.4 See also

- Self-determination theory
- John Henry effect
- Reflexivity (social theory)
- Pygmalion effect
- Placebo effect
- Social facilitation
- Stereotype threat
- Novelty effect
- Demand characteristics

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## 9.6 External links

- *The Hawthorne, Pygmalion, placebo and other expectancy effects: some notes*, by Stephen W. Draper, Department of Psychology, University of Glasgow.
- BBC Radio 4: Mind Changers: The Hawthorne Effect
- *Harvard Business School and the Hawthorne Experiments (1924–1933)*, Harvard Business School.

# Chapter 10

## Human resources

“Manpower” redirects here. For other uses, see [Manpower \(disambiguation\)](#).

For the 1999 film, see [Human Resources \(film\)](#). For the “Doctor Who” episode, see [Human Resources \(audio drama\)](#).

**Human resources** is the set of individuals who make up the workforce of an organization, business sector, or economy. "Human capital" is sometimes used synonymously with human resources, although human capital typically refers to a more narrow view (i.e., the knowledge the individuals embody and can contribute to an organization). Likewise, other terms sometimes used include “manpower”, “talent”, “labour”, or simply “people”.

The professional discipline and business function that oversees an organization’s human resources is called **human resource management** (HRM, or simply HR).

### 10.1 Overview

#### 10.1.1 The term in practice

From the corporate objective, employees have been traditionally viewed as assets to the enterprise, whose value is enhanced by further learning and development, referred to as **human resource development**.<sup>[1]</sup> Organizations will engage in a broad range of **human resource management** practices to capitalize on those assets.

In governing human resources, three major trends are typically considered:

1. **Demographics**: the characteristics of a population/workforce, for example, age, gender or social class. This type of trend may have an effect in relation to pension offerings, insurance packages etc.
2. **Diversity**: the variation within the population/workplace. Changes in society now mean that a larger proportion of organizations are made up of “baby-boomers” or older employees in comparison to thirty years ago. Advocates of “workplace diversity” advocate an employee base that is a

mirror reflection of the make-up of society insofar as race, gender, sexual orientation etc.

3. **Skills and qualifications**: as industries move from manual to more managerial professions so does the need for more highly skilled graduates. If the market is “tight” (i.e. not enough staff for the jobs), employers must compete for employees by offering financial rewards, community investment, etc.

In regard to how individuals respond to the changes in a **labour market**, the following must be understood:

- **Geographical spread**: how far is the job from the individual? The distance to travel to work should be in line with remuneration, and the transportation and infrastructure of the area also influence who applies for a position.
- **Occupational structure**: the norms and values of the different careers within an organization. Mahoney 1989 developed 3 different types of occupational structure, namely, craft (loyalty to the profession), organization career path (promotion through the firm) and unstructured (lower/unskilled workers who work when needed).
- **Generational difference**: different age categories of employees have certain characteristics, for example, their behavior and their expectations of the organization.

#### 10.1.2 Concerns about the terminology

One major concern about considering people as assets or resources is that they will be commoditized and abused. Some analysis suggests that human beings are not “commodities” or “resources”, but are creative and social beings in a productive enterprise. The 2000 revision of ISO 9001, in contrast, requires identifying the processes, their sequence and interaction, and to define and communicate responsibilities and authorities. In general, heavily unionised nations such as France and Germany have adopted and encouraged such approaches. Also, in 2001, the **International Labour Organization** decided to revisit

and revise its 1975 Recommendation 150 on Human Resources Development,<sup>[2]</sup> resulting in its "Labour is not a commodity" principle. One view of these trends is that a strong social consensus on political economy and a good social welfare system facilitate labour mobility and tend to make the entire economy more productive, as labour can develop skills and experience in various ways, and move from one enterprise to another with little controversy or difficulty in adapting.

Another important controversy regards labour mobility and the broader philosophical issue with usage of the phrase "human resources". Governments of developing nations often regard developed nations that encourage immigration or "guest workers" as appropriating human capital that is more rightfully part of the developing nation and required to further its economic growth. Over time, the United Nations have come to more generally support the developing nations' point of view, and have requested significant offsetting "foreign aid" contributions so that a developing nation losing human capital does not lose the capacity to continue to train new people in trades, professions, and the arts.<sup>[3]</sup>

## 10.2 See also

- Human resource management
- Industrial and organizational psychology
- Chief human resources officer

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# Chapter 11

## Individual psychological assessment

*Individual psychological assessment (IPA)* is a tool used by organizations to make decisions on employment. IPA allows employers to evaluate and maintain potential candidates for hiring, promotion, and development by using a series of job analysis instruments such as Position Analysis Questionnaires (PAQ), Occupational Analysis Inventory (OAI), and Functional Job Analysis (FJI). These instruments allow the assessor to develop valid measures of intelligence, personality tests, and a range of other factors as means to determine selection and promotion decisions.<sup>[1]</sup> Personality and cognitive ability are great predictors of performance.<sup>[2]</sup> Emotional Intelligence helps individuals navigate through challenging organizational and interpersonal encounters.<sup>[3]</sup> Since individual differences have a long history in explaining human behavior and the different ways in which individuals respond to similar events and circumstances, these factors allow the organization to determine if an applicant has the competence to effectively and successfully do the work that the job requires. These assessments are administered throughout organizations in different forms, but shares one common goal in the selection process and that is the right candidate for the job.

### 11.1 Overview

In the past, the use of Individual psychological assessment has increased and improved within Human Resources to evaluate and maintain potential candidates for employment in various levels of position in the workforce.<sup>[4]</sup> The use of this type of assessment has become defined and set criteria have been developed to test job applicants. By collecting the needed information utilizing the tools listed below, the individual can be assessed as being right for the job at hand.

### 11.2 Individual factors

#### 11.2.1 Personality

Main article: [Personality](#)

*Personality* is an individual's relatively stable characteristic patterns of thought, emotion, behavior and the psychological mechanisms that support and drive those patterns.<sup>[5]</sup> The vast majority of investigations of the personality correlates of performance have used the Big Five taxonomy as the basis of their selection of predictors. The Big Five model (or Five Factor Model) holds that personality comprises five dimensions: *Openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness and neuroticism*. Of the five dimensions, conscientiousness appears to have the strongest relation to overall job performance across a wide variety of jobs.<sup>[6][7]</sup>

#### 11.2.2 Leadership style

Main article: [Leadership styles](#)

*Leadership style* is the behaviors of leaders, focusing on what leaders do and how they act. The relates to how leaders delegate and communicate with their subordinates. Their leadership style may be one or a combination of a(n); authoritarian leadership, democratic leadership, charismatic leadership and laissez-faire leadership.<sup>[8]</sup>

#### 11.2.3 Cognitive ability

See also: [Cognition](#)

Cognitive ability measures should predict performance outcomes in most, if not all, jobs and situations.

#### 11.2.4 Emotional Intelligence

Main article: [Emotional Intelligence](#)

*Emotional intelligence (EI)* is the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. This form of intelligence allows someone to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and gives

them the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought.<sup>[9]</sup> Assessing an individual's EI enhances the prediction and understanding of the outcomes of organization members, such as their job performance and their effectiveness as leaders within an organization.

### Branches

There are four dimensions of emotional intelligence:

1. *The Perceiving and Expressing Branch* - This branch concerns how accurately and how fast individuals can express emotions and identify, detect, and decipher aspects of emotional experiences and emotional displays
2. *The Using Emotion Branch* - This branch concerns how well individuals capitalize on the systematic effects of emotions on cognitive activities such as creativity and risking
3. *The Understanding Branch* - This branch concerns how accurately individuals reason about various aspects of emotions, such as when they attach labels to emotions and identify connections between events and emotional reactions
4. *The Regulating Emotions Branch* - This branch concerns how well individuals can increase, maintain, or decrease the magnitude or duration of their or others' emotions<sup>[10]</sup>

## 11.3 Process

Information is collected, from an assessor or group of assessors, in person or via other assessment methods. Simulation of exercises related to the job being tested could also be used which takes place in a replicated work setting as the one used on the job. Once all the information is gathered, the assessor(s) presents the information in a special format to the client or organization, grants the participant recommendations based on the assessment and provides feedback to the participant and the organization.<sup>[11]</sup>

## 11.4 Validity

The validity of IPA depends on variables such as the standardization of the tests and personality factors, however important variables is the accuracy of the assessor's judgement. More research is required regarding the assessor's judgment to help improve the effectiveness of the assessments.<sup>[12]</sup> The way that scientists have conceptualized validity has changed over the past several decades, as documented in the several versions of the APA Standards (AERA et al. 1999) and SIOP (2003) Principles.

The most recent versions of both these documents treat validity as a unitary concept that is supported by a variety of evidence. However, The APA Standards and SIOP Principles has documented validity to be the unitary concept that is supported by a variety of evidence (see issue 4 of the 2009 volume and issue 3 of the 2010 volume of *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice*, respectively).

## 11.5 Assessing individuals

The final aspect of Industrial & Organizational Assessment is assessing individuals. The analysis must have great knowledge base in knowing a variety of procedures for assessing individuals. While this aspect seems broad, there are many detailed tools to help narrow down the ways in which this branch of assessment can be carried out.<sup>[13]</sup>

These tools include:

- Psychological testing
- Biographical information
- Interviews
- Work sampling
- Assessments
- Surveys
- Onboarding
- Use of computers in assessment

## 11.6 Areas of assessment

The four main areas of I/O Psychology highlight—Jobs, Work, Performance, and People.<sup>[14]</sup> Looking at each category gives great insight into how Industrial & Organizational Assessment truly works, and what is necessary to complete each step of the process. These four categories can be further broken down into three sections and looked at in greater detail.

## 11.7 Job analysis

Main article: [Job analysis](#)

A *Job Analysis* is the process through which one gains an understanding of the activities, goals, and requirements demanded by a work assignment. Job analysis constitutes the preceding step of every application of psychology to human resource management including,

but not limited to, the development of personnel selection, training, performance evaluation, job design, deployment, and compensation systems.<sup>[15]</sup>

### 11.7.1 Types of Job analysis

#### The Position Analysis Questionnaire

Main article: Position analysis questionnaire

The Position Analysis Questionnaire (PAQ) developed by McCormick, Jeanneret, and Mecham (1972) is a structured job analysis instrument to measure job characteristics and relate them to human characteristics. It consists of 195 job elements that represent human behavior involved in work activities”.<sup>[16]</sup>

The items that fall into five categories:<sup>[17]</sup>

1. Information input (where and how the worker gets information)
2. Mental processes (reasoning and other processes that workers use)
3. Work output (physical activities and tools used on the job)
4. Relationships with other persons
5. Job context (the physical and social contexts of work)

PAQ researchers have aggregated PAQ data for hundreds of jobs; that database are maintained by Purdue University. Many research exists on the PAQ; it has yielded reasonably good reliability estimates and has been linked to several assessment tools”.<sup>[18]</sup> Job seekers and employers answer questions on form outlining skills, abilities and knowledge needed to perform the job.<sup>[19]</sup> Responses are calculated and a composite job requirement statement is produced.<sup>[20]</sup> In a study of the comparative of 4 job analysis methods, PAQ method is structured to allow for easy quantification. The study also indicated it was closest and compatible to receive important information about an applicant<sup>[21]</sup> The format of this method include in both data collection and computer analysis and can yield results much faster than the other methods. It has been shown to be extremely reliable, results usually replicate on a second administration.<sup>[22]</sup> Because PAQ is worker oriented, it does not qualify if work is actually getting done on the job. Task differences on the job is not picked up because PAQ primarily focus on behaviors.<sup>[23]</sup>

#### Occupational Analysis Inventory

The Occupational Analysis Inventory (OAI) contains 617 “work elements.”<sup>[24]</sup> It was designed to yield more specific job information than other multi-job questionnaires

such as the PAQ while still capturing work requirements for virtually all occupations. The major categories of items are five-fold:

1. Information Received
2. Mental Activities
3. Work Behavior
4. Work Goals
5. Work Context

OAI respondents rate each job element on one of four rating scales: part-of-job, extent, applicability, or a special scale designed for the element. The OAI has been used to gather information on 1,400 jobs selected to represent five major occupational categories. Reliabilities obtained with the OAI have been moderate, somewhat lower than those achieved with the PAQ”.<sup>[25]</sup>

#### Functional job analysis

This last tool is the final tool examined by Job-Analysis.Net, Job analysis as a management technique was developed around 1900. It became one of the tools by which managers understood and directed organization<sup>[26]</sup> the website’s findings state, “Beginning in the 1940s, functional job analysis<sup>[27]</sup>(FJA) was used by U.S. Employment Service job analysts to classify jobs for the DOT (Fine & Wiley, 1971). The most recent version of FJA uses seven scales to describe what workers do in jobs:

1. Things
2. Data
3. People
4. Worker Instructions
5. Reasoning
6. Math
7. Language

Each scale has several levels that are anchored with specific behavioral statements and illustrative tasks. Like other job analysis instruments, FJA is a methodology for collecting job information. While it was used for many years as a part of the DOT, the Department of Labor is replacing the DOT with O\*NET and will not be using FJA in O\*NET. There is no current database of jobs (other than the DOT) containing FJA data for jobs in the national economy”.



## 11.8 Goal of Individual Assessment Methods

Organizations aim to reach their goals, for the goal of individual assessment the most important attribute is to collect as much information from individuals aiming to work in a common company. They are collectivities rather than individuals because achieving the goals requires the efforts (work) of a number of people (workers). The point at which the work and the worker come together is called a job. The company and the Industrial and organization psychologist need to obtain a lot of information. Some of the information they need to find out is:<sup>[28]</sup>

- What does or should the person do?
- What knowledge, skill, and abilities does it take to perform this job?
- What is the result of the person performing the job?
- How does this job fit in with other jobs in the organization?
- What is the job's contribution toward the organization's goals?

## 11.9 See also

- Industrial and organizational psychology
- Personnel psychology
- Personnel selection
- Personality psychology
- Psychometrics
- Psychological testing
- Differential psychology
- Job analysis
- Position analysis questionnaire

## 11.10 External links

- Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology

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# Chapter 12

## Personnel selection

**Personnel selection** is the process used to hire (or, less commonly, promote) individuals. Although the term can apply to all aspects of the process (recruitment, selection, hiring, acculturation, etc.) the most common meaning focuses on the selection of workers. In this respect, selected prospects are separated from rejected applicants with the intention of choosing the person who will be the most successful and make the most valuable contributions to the organization.<sup>[1]</sup>

### 12.1 Overview

The professional standards of industrial-organizational psychologists (I-O psychologists) require that any selection system be based on a job analysis to ensure that the selection criteria are job-related. The requirements for a selection system are knowledge, skills, ability, and other characteristics, known as KSAOs. US law also recognizes *bona fide occupational qualifications* (BFOQs), which are requirements for a job which would be discriminatory were they not necessary—such as only employing men as wardens of maximum-security male prisons, enforcing a mandatory retirement age for airline pilots, or a religious college only employing professors of its religion to teach its theology.<sup>[1]</sup>

Personnel selection systems employ evidence-based practices to determine the most qualified candidates and involve both the newly hired and those individuals who can be promoted from within the organization.<sup>[1]</sup> Common selection tools include ability tests (e.g., cognitive, physical, or psychomotor), knowledge tests, personality tests, structured interviews, the systematic collection of biographical data, and work samples. Development and implementation of such screening methods is sometimes done by human resources departments; larger organizations hire consultants or firms that specialize in developing personnel selection systems. I-O psychologists must evaluate evidence regarding the extent to which selection tools predict job performance, evidence that bears on the validity of selection tools. These procedures are usually validated (shown to be job relevant), using one or more of the following types of validity: content validity, construct validity, and/or criterion-related validity.

### 12.2 History and development

Selection into organizations has as ancient a history as organizations themselves. Chinese civil servant exams, established in AD 605, may be the first documented “modern” selection tests, and have influenced subsequent examination systems.<sup>[2]</sup> As a scientific and scholarly field, personnel selection owes much to psychometric theory and the art of integrating selection systems falls to human resource professionals.

In the United States of America, members of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) conduct much of the research on selection. Primary research topics include:

- the practicality, reliability, validity, and utility of various forms of selection measures
- methods for demonstrating return on investment for selection systems
- assessing fairness and making selection systems as fair as possible
- legal issues—such as disparate treatment and disparate impact—and overall compliance with laws
- the generalizability of validity across different work contexts
- alternative methods of demonstrating validity, such as synthetic validity<sup>[3]</sup>
- the predictive validity of non-traditional measures, such as personality

### 12.3 Predictor validity and selection ratio

Two major factors determine the quality of newly hired employees, predictor validity and selection ratio.<sup>[1]</sup> The predictor cutoff is a test score differentiating those passing a selection measure from those who did not. People above this score are hired or are further considered while those below it are not.

The selection ratio (SR), on the other hand is the number of job openings  $n$  divided by the number of job applicants  $N$ . This value will range between 0 and 1, reflecting the selectivity of the organization's hiring practices. When the SR is equal to 1 or greater, the use of any selection device has little meaning, but this is not often the case as there are usually more applicants than job openings. Finally, the **base rate** is defined by the percentage of employees thought to be performing their jobs satisfactorily following measurement.

## 12.4 Selection decisions

Tests designed to determine an individual's aptitude for a particular position, company or industry may be referred to as personnel assessment tools. Such tests can aid those charged with hiring personnel in both selecting individuals for hire and in placing new hires in the appropriate positions. They vary in the measurements they use and level of standardization they employ, though all are subject to error.<sup>[4]</sup>

Predictors for selection always have less than perfect validity and scatter plots can help us to find these mistakes.<sup>[1]</sup> The criterion cutoff is the point separating successful and unsuccessful performers according to a standard set by the hiring organization. **True positives** are applied those thought to succeed on the job as a result of having passed the selection test and who have, in fact, performed satisfactorily. **True negatives** describe those who were correctly rejected based on the measure because they would not be successful employees.

False negatives occur when people are rejected as a result of selection test failure, but would have performed well on the job anyway.<sup>[1]</sup> Finally, false positives are applied to individuals who are selected for having passed the selection measure, but do not make successful employees. These selection errors can be minimized by increasing the validity of the predictor test.

Standards for determination of the cutoff score vary widely, but should be set to be consistent with the expectations of the relevant job.<sup>[1]</sup> Adjusting the cutoff in either direction will automatically increase the error in the other. Thus, it is important to determine which type of error is more harmful on a case-by-case basis.

Banding is another method for setting cutoff values.<sup>[1][5]</sup> Some differences in test scores are ignored as applicants whose scores fall within the same band (or, range) are selected not on the basis of individual scores, but of another factor spas to reduce adverse impact. The width of the band itself is a function of test reliability, the two being negatively correlated. Banding allows employers to ignore test scores altogether by using random selection, and many have criticized the technique for this reason.

## 12.5 Predicting job performance

A meta-analysis of selection methods in personnel psychology found that **general mental ability** was the best overall predictor of job performance and training performance.<sup>[6]</sup>

Regarding interview procedures, there are data which put into question these tools for selecting employees.<sup>[7]</sup> While the aim of a job interview is ostensibly to choose a candidate who will perform well in the job role, other methods of selection provide greater predictive power and often entail lower costs. Unstructured interviews are commonly used, but structured interviews tend to yield better outcomes and are considered a better practice.<sup>[8]</sup>

Interview structure is defined as "the reduction in procedural variance across applicants, which can translate into the degree of discretion that an interviewer is allowed in conducting the interview."<sup>[9]</sup> Structure in an interview can be compared to a typical paper and pencil test: we would not think it was fair if every test taker were given different questions and a different number of questions on an exam, or if their answers were each graded differently. Yet this is exactly what occurs in an unstructured interview; thus, a structured interview attempts to standardize this popular selection tool.

Multiple studies and meta-analyses have also been conducted to look at the relationship between **organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)** and organizational performance and success.<sup>[1][10]</sup> Job candidates exhibiting higher levels of helping, voice, and loyalty behaviors were generally rated as more confident, received higher salaries, and received higher salary recommendations than job candidates exhibiting these behaviors to a lesser degree.<sup>[10]</sup> This was found to be true even candidate responses regarding task performance were taken into account. Finally, content analyses of open-ended question responses indicated selection decisions were highly sensitive to candidates with low expression of voice and helping behaviors.

## 12.6 See also

- Onboarding
- Personnel psychology
- Recruitment
- Team composition
- Industrial & Organizational Assessment

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## 12.8 External links

- [Canadian Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology](#)
- [European Academy of Occupational Health Psychology](#)
- [European Association of Work and Organizational Psychology](#)
- [Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology](#)

Category:Human resource management

# Chapter 13

## Job analysis

**Job analysis** (also known as **Work analysis**<sup>[1]</sup>) is a family of procedures to identify the content of a job in terms of activities involved and attributes or job requirements needed to perform the activities. Job analyses provide information to organizations which helps to determine which employees are best fit for specific jobs. Through job analysis, the analyst needs to understand what the important tasks of the job are, how they are carried out, and the necessary human qualities needed to complete the job successfully. The process of job analysis involves the analyst describing the duties of the incumbent, then the nature and conditions of work, and finally some basic qualifications. After this, the job analyst has completed a form called a *job psychograph*, which displays the mental requirements of the job.<sup>[2]</sup> The measure of a sound job analysis is a valid task list. This list contains the functional or duty areas of a position, the related tasks, and the basic training recommendations. Subject matter experts (incumbents) and supervisors for the position being analyzed need to validate this final list in order to validate the job analysis.<sup>[3]</sup> Job analysis is crucial for first, helping individuals develop their careers, and also for helping organizations develop their employees in order to maximize talent. The outcomes of job analysis are key influences in designing learning, developing performance interventions, and improving processes.<sup>[4]</sup> The application of job analysis techniques makes the implicit assumption that information about a job as it presently exists may be used to develop programs to recruit, select, train, and appraise people for the job as it will exist in the future.<sup>[5]</sup>

Job analysts are typically industrial-organizational (I-O) psychologists or human resource officers who have been trained by, and are acting under the supervision of an I-O psychologist. One of the first I-O psychologists to introduce job analysis was Morris Viteles. In 1922, he used job analysis in order to select employees for a trolley car company. Viteles' techniques could then be applied to any other area of employment using the same process.<sup>[6]</sup> Job analysis was also conceptualized by two of the founders of I-O psychology, Frederick Winslow Taylor and Lillian Moller Gilbreth in the early 20th century.<sup>[1]</sup> Since then, experts have presented many different systems to accomplish job analysis that have become increasingly detailed over the decades. However, evi-

dence shows that the root purpose of job analysis, understanding the behavioral requirements of work, has not changed in over 85 years.<sup>[7]</sup>

### 13.1 Purpose

One of the main purposes of conducting job analysis is to prepare job descriptions and job specifications which in turn helps hire the right quality of workforce into an organization. The general purpose of job analysis is to document the requirements of a job and the work performed. Job and task analysis is performed as a basis for later improvements, including: definition of a job domain; description of a job; development of performance appraisals, personnel selection, selection systems, promotion criteria, training needs assessment, legal defense of selection processes, and compensation plans.<sup>[8]</sup> The human performance improvement industry uses job analysis to make sure training and development activities are focused and effective.<sup>[3]</sup> In the fields of human resources (HR) and industrial psychology, job analysis is often used to gather information for use in personnel selection, training, classification, and/or compensation.<sup>[9]</sup>

Industrial psychologists use job analysis to determine the physical requirements of a job to determine whether an individual who has suffered some diminished capacity is capable of performing the job with, or without, some accommodation. Edwin Flieshman, Ph.D. is credited with determining the underlying factors of human physical fitness.<sup>[10]</sup> Professionals developing certification exams use job analysis (often called something slightly different, such as "task analysis" or "work analysis") to determine the elements of the domain which must be sampled in order to create a content valid exam. When a job analysis is conducted for the purpose of valuing the job (i.e., determining the appropriate compensation for incumbents) this is called "job evaluation."

Job analysis aims to answer questions such as:

- Why does the job exist?
- What physical and mental activities does the worker undertake?

- When is the job to be performed?
- Where is the job to be performed?
- How does the worker do the job?
- What qualifications are needed to perform the job?

## 13.2 Procedures

As stated before, the purpose of job analysis is to combine the task demands of a job with our knowledge of human attributes and produce a theory of behavior for the job in question. There are two ways to approach building that theory, meaning there are two different approaches to job analysis.<sup>[11]</sup>

### 13.2.1 Task-oriented

Task-oriented procedures focus on the actual activities involved in performing work.<sup>[8]</sup> This procedure takes into consideration work duties, responsibilities, and functions. The job analyst then develops task statements which clearly state the tasks that are performed with great detail. After creating task statements, job analysts rate the tasks on scales indicating importance, difficulty, frequency, and consequences of error. Based on these ratings, a greater sense of understanding of a job can be attained.<sup>[12]</sup> Task analysis, such as cognitively oriented task analysis (COTA), are techniques used to describe job expertise. For example, the job analysts may tour the job site and observe workers performing their jobs. During the tour the analyst may collect materials that directly or indirectly indicate required skills (duty statements, instructions, safety manuals, quality charts, etc.).<sup>[9]</sup>

Functional job analysis (FJA)<sup>[13]</sup> is a classic example of a task-oriented technique. Developed by Fine and Cronshaw in 1944, work elements are scored in terms of relatedness to data (0–6), people (0–8), and things (0–6), with lower scores representing greater complexity. Incumbents, considered *subject matter experts* (SMEs), are relied upon, usually in a panel, to report elements of their work to the job analyst. Using incumbent reports, the analyst uses Fine’s terminology to compile statements reflecting the work being performed in terms of data, people, and things. The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* uses elements of the FJA in defining jobs.<sup>[12]</sup>

### 13.2.2 Worker-oriented

Worker-oriented procedures aim to examine the human attributes needed to perform the job successfully.<sup>[8]</sup> These human attributes have been commonly classified into four categories: *knowledge*, *skills*, *abilities*, and *other*

*characteristics* (KSAO). *Knowledge* is the information people need in order to perform the job. *Skills* are the proficiencies needed to perform each task. *Abilities* are the attributes that are relatively stable over time. *Other characteristics* are all other attributes, usually personality factors.<sup>[12]</sup> The KSAOs required for a job are inferred from the most frequently-occurring, important tasks. In a worker-oriented job analysis, the skills are inferred from tasks and the skills are rated directly in terms of importance of frequency. This often results in data that immediately imply the important KSAOs. However, it can be hard for SMEs to rate skills directly.

The Fleishman Job Analysis System (F-JAS) developed by Edwin A. Fleishman represents a worker-oriented approach. Fleishman factor-analyzed large data sets to discover a common, minimum set of KSAOs across different jobs. His system of 73 specific scales measure three broad areas: Cognitive (Verbal Abilities; Idea Generation & Reasoning Abilities; Quantitative Abilities; Memory; Perceptual Abilities; Spatial Abilities; and Attentiveness), Psychomotor (Fine Manipulative Abilities; Control Movement Abilities; and Reaction Time and Speed Abilities), and Physical (Physical Strength Abilities; Endurance; Flexibility, Balance, and Coordination; Visual Abilities; and Auditory and Speech Abilities).

JobScan is a measurement instrument which defines the personality dynamics within a specific type of job.<sup>[14]</sup> By collecting PDP ProScan Survey results of actual performers and results of job dynamics analysis surveys completed by knowledgeable people related to a specific job, JobScan provides a suggested ideal job model for that position. Although it does not evaluate the intellect or experience necessary to accomplish a task, it does deal with the personality of the type of work itself.

## 13.3 Example

For the job of a snow-cat operator at a ski slope, a work or task-oriented job analysis might include this statement: Operates Bombardier Sno-cat, usually at night, to smooth out snow rutted by skiers and snowboard riders and new snow that has fallen. On the other hand, a worker-oriented job analysis might include this statement: Evaluates terrain, snow depth, and snow condition and chooses the correct setting for the depth of the snow cat, as well as the number of passes necessary on a given ski slope.<sup>[11]</sup>

Job analysis methods have evolved using both task-oriented and worker-oriented approaches. Since the end result of both approaches is a statement of KSAOs, neither can be considered the “correct” way to conduct job analysis. Because worker-oriented job analyses tend to provide more generalized human behavior and behavior patterns and are less tied to the technological parts of a job, they produce data more useful for developing train-

ing programs and giving feed back to employees in the form of performance appraisal information. Also, the volatility that exists in the typical workplace of today can make specific task statements less valuable in isolation. For these reasons, employers are significantly more likely to use worker-oriented approaches to job analysis today than they were in the past.<sup>[11]</sup>

## 13.4 Knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics (KSAOs)

Regardless of which approach to job analysis is taken, the next step in the process is to identify the attributes—the KSAOs that an incumbent needs for either performing the tasks at hand or executing the human behaviors described in the job analysis.<sup>[15]</sup>

- **Knowledge:** “A collection of discrete but related facts and information about a particular domain...acquired through formal education or training, or accumulated through specific experiences.”
- **Skill:** “A practiced act”
- **Ability:** “The stable capacity to engage in a specific behavior”
- **Other characteristics:** “Personality variables, interests, training, and experiences”<sup>[15]</sup>

## 13.5 Methods

Finally, once the appropriate KSAOs are identified, tests and other assessment techniques can be chosen to measure those KSAOs. Over the years, experts have presented several different systems and methods to accomplish job analysis. Many forms of systems are no longer in use, but those systems that still exist have become increasingly detailed over the decades with a greater concentration on tasks and less concentration on human attributes. That trend, however, has reversed in recent years for the better. Newer methods and systems have brought I-O psychology back to an examination of the *behavioral* aspects of work.<sup>[7]</sup>

There are several ways to conduct a job analysis, including: interviews with incumbents and supervisors, work sampling,<sup>[5]</sup> the repertory grid technique,<sup>[6]</sup> questionnaires (structured, open-ended, or both), observation, critical incident investigations,<sup>[7]</sup> hierarchical task analysis,<sup>[8]</sup> and gathering background information such as duty statements or classification specifications. In job analyses conducted by HR professionals, it is common to use more than one of these methods.<sup>[3]</sup> Traditional job analysis methods of analysis can be laborious

and time consuming, and there is always a tendency on the part of management to over analyze some jobs and under analyze some others. These traditional job analysis methods include: one-on-one interviewing; behavioral event interviews; phone interviews; surveys; work assessments; Developing a Curriculum (DACUM); job analysis worksheets; observations and procedural review.<sup>[16]</sup> Job analysis at the speed of reality. Amherst, Mass.: HRD Press. All of these methods can be used to gather information for job analysis. The DACUM process developed in the late 1960s has been viewed as the fastest method used, but it can still can take two or three days to obtain a validated task list.

1. **Observation:** This was the first method of job analysis used by I-O psychologists. The process involves simply watching incumbents perform their jobs and taking notes. Sometimes they ask questions while watching, and commonly they even perform job tasks themselves. Near the end of World War II, Morris Viteles studied the job of navigator on a submarine. He attempted to steer the submarine toward Bermuda. After multiple misses by over 100 miles in one direction or another, one officer suggested that Viteles raise the periscope, look for clouds, and steer toward them since clouds tend to form above or near land masses. The vessel reached Bermuda shortly after that suggestion. The more jobs one seriously observes, the better one’s understanding becomes of both the jobs in question and work in general.
2. **Interviews:** It is essential to supplement observation by talking with incumbents. These interviews are most effective when structured with a specific set of questions based on observations, other analyses of the types of jobs in question, or prior discussions with human resources representatives, trainers, or managers knowledgeable about jobs.
3. **Critical incidents and work diaries:** The critical incident technique asks subject matter experts to identify critical aspects of behavior or performance in a particular job that led to success or failure. For example, the supervisor of an electric utility repairman might report that in a very time-pressing project, the repairman failed to check a blueprint and as a result cut a line, causing a massive power loss. In fact, this is what happened in Los Angeles in September 2005 when half the city lost power over a period of 12 hours. The second method, a work diary, asks workers and/or supervisors to keep a log of activities over a prescribed period of time. They may be asked to simply write down what they were doing at 15 minutes after the hour for each hour of the work day. Or, they may list everything they have done up to a break.
4. **Questionnaires and surveys:** Expert incumbents or supervisors often respond to questionnaires or



surveys as a part of job analysis. These questionnaires include task statements in the form of worker behaviors. Subject matter experts are asked to rate each statement from their experience on a number of different dimensions like importance to overall job success, frequency performance and whether the task must be performed on the first day of work or can be learned gradually on the job. Questionnaires also ask incumbents to rate the importance of KSAOs for performing tasks, and may ask the subject matter experts to rate work context. Unlike the results of observations and interviews, the questionnaire responses can be statistically analyzed to provide a more objective record of the components of the job. To a greater and greater extent, these questionnaires and surveys are being administered online to incumbents.

5. **Position Analysis Questionnaire:** The Position Analysis Questionnaire (PAQ) is a well-known job analysis instrument. Although it is labeled a questionnaire, the PAQ is actually designed to be completed by a trained job analyst who interviews the SMEs (e.g., job incumbents and their supervisors).[2] The PAQ was designed to measure job component validity of attributes presented in aptitude tests. Job component validity is the relationship between test scores and skills required for good job performance. There are 195 behavior-related statements in the PAQ divided into six major sections: information input, mental process, work output, relationships with others, job context, and other job characteristics.
  6. **Checklists:** Checklists are also used as a job analysis method, specifically with areas like the Air Force. In the checklist method, the incumbent checks the tasks he or she performs from a list of task statements that describe the job. The checklist is preceded by some sort of job analysis and is usually followed by the development of work activity compilations or job descriptions. The scope of task statements listed depends upon the judgment of the checklist constructor.<sup>[17]</sup>
2. Review appropriate background information like organization charts, process charts, and job descriptions. *Organization charts* show the organization-wide work division, how the job in question relates to other jobs, and where the job fits in the overall organization. The chart should show the title of each position and, through connecting lines, show reports to whom and with whom the job incumbent communicates. A *process chart* provides a more detailed picture of the work flow. In its simplest, most organic form, a process chart shows the flow of inputs to and outputs from the job being analyzed. Finally, the existing job description (if there is one) usually provides a starting point for building the revised job description.
  3. Select representative positions. This is because there may be too many similar jobs to analyze. For example, it is usually unnecessary to analyze jobs of 200 assembly workers when a sample of 10 jobs will be sufficient.
  4. Actually analyze the job by collecting data on job activities, necessary employee behaviors and actions, working conditions, and human traits and abilities required to perform the job. For this step, one or more than one methods of job analysis may be needed
  5. Verify the job analysis information with the worker performing the job and with his or her immediate supervisor. This will help confirm that the information is factually correct and complete. This review can also help gain the employee's acceptance of the job analysis data and conclusions by giving that person a chance to review and modify descriptions of the job activities.
  6. Develop a job description and job specification. These are two tangible products of the job analysis process. The *job description* is a written statement that describes the activities and responsibilities of the job as well as its important features such as working conditions and safety hazards. The *job specification* summarizes the personal qualities, traits, skills, and background required for completing a certain job. These two may be completely separate or in the same document.<sup>[18]</sup>

## 13.6 Six steps

1. Decide how to use the information since this will determine the data to collect and how to collect it. Some data collection techniques such as interviewing the employee and asking what the job entails are good for writing job descriptions and selecting employees for the job. Other techniques like the position analysis questionnaire do not provide qualitative information for job descriptions. Rather, they provide numerical ratings for each job and can be used to compare jobs for compensation purposes.<sup>[18]</sup>

## 13.7 Uses of information

1. **Recruitment and selection:** Job analysis provides information about what the job entails and what human characteristics are required in order to perform these activities. This information, in the form of job descriptions and specifications, helps management officials decide what sort of people they need to recruit and hire and select.

2. **Compensation:** Job analysis information is crucial for estimating the value of each job and its appropriate compensation. Compensation (salary and bonus) usually depends on the job's required skill and education level, safety hazards, degree of responsibility, etc. -- all factors which can be assessed through job analysis. Also, many employers group jobs into classes. Job analysis provides the information to determine the relative worth of each job and its appropriate class.
  3. **Performance appraisal:** A performance appraisal compares each employee's actual performance with his or her performance standards. Managers use job analysis to determine the job's specific activities and performance standards.
  4. **Training:** The job description should show the activities and skills, and therefore training, that the job requires
  5. **Discovering unassigned duties:** Job Analysis can also help reveal unassigned duties. For example, a company's production manager says an employee is responsible for ten duties, such as production scheduling and raw material purchasing. Missing, however, is any reference to managing raw material inventories. On further study, it is revealed that none of the other manufacturing employees are responsible for inventory management, either. From review of other jobs like these, it is clear that someone should be managing raw material inventories. Therefore, an essential unassigned duty has been revealed.
  6. **EEO compliance:** Job analysis plays a large role in EEO compliance. United States Federal Agencies' Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection stipulate that job analysis is a necessary step in validating all major personnel activities. For example, employers must be able to show that their selection criteria and job performance are actually related. Doing this requires knowing what the job entails, which in turn requires job analysis.<sup>[18]</sup>
1. Job incumbents should know their jobs better than anyone else. They can provide accurate, timely content information about the job.
  2. JASR participants want to spend a minimum amount of time providing job data during a session and business leadership wants to minimize disruption to business operations.
  3. Since JASR participants do not spend as much time thinking about training as training professionals do, they do not require much orientation to the process.
  4. JASR uses the quickest methods and best possible technology to complete the job analysis.<sup>[3]</sup>

## 13.9 Systems

For many years, the U.S. Department of labor published the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, which was a comprehensive description of over 20,000 jobs. However, the Department replaced the DOT with O NET online database, which includes all occupations from the DOT plus an additional 3,500. This makes O NET very useful for job analysis.<sup>[20]</sup>

The O\*Net<sup>[21]</sup> (an online resource which has replaced the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT)) lists job requirements for a variety of jobs and is often considered basic, generic, or initial job analysis data. Everyone can use this database at no cost and is continually updated by observing workers from each occupation. O\*net also has a Career Exploration Tool which is an assessment to help workers and students who are searching for new careers. Data available from O\*Net includes physical requirements, educational level, and some mental requirements. Task-based statements describing the work performed are derived from the functional job analysis technique. O\*Net also provides links to salary data at the US national, state and city level for each job.

O\*NET was designed with several features in mind, including:

- The inclusion of multiple descriptors and content domains to capture the range of ways that work can be described
- The development of cross-job descriptors in order to enable comparisons between various jobs
- The use of a taxonomic approach to occupational classification to enable full coverage within a content domain

Using these principles, a content model was developed that identified six content domains and specific categories within each domain. These six domains and categories within them include:

## 13.8 Job Analysis at the Speed of Reality (JASR)

The Job Analysis at the Speed of Reality (JASR) method for job analysis is a reliable, proven method to quickly create validated task lists. The end product, which can be used for many purposes, is the basis for many potential training opportunities. This method is a tested process that helps analysts complete a job analysis of a typical job with a group of subject matter experts and managers in two to three hours then deliver a validated task list.<sup>[19]</sup>

1. **Worker characteristics:** enduring individual attributes that influence the capacities workers can develop - abilities, occupational values and interests, and work styles
2. **Worker requirements:** general attributes developed through education and experience, thus are more amenable to change than worker characteristics - knowledge skills and education
3. **Occupational requirements:** descriptors of the work itself rather than the worker - Generalized work activities, work context, and organizational context
4. **Experience requirements:** types and quantities of experience required for specific occupations - worker experience in other jobs, related training, on-the-job training, and certification requirements
5. **Individual occupation characteristics:** reflects labor demand, supply, and other labor market information
6. **Occupation-specific requirements:** information unique to a particular job - occupation-specific skills and knowledge, tasks and duties, and equipment used <sup>[22]</sup>

### 13.10 In modern United States

Over the past years, the concept of job analysis has been changing dramatically. One observer put it: “The modern world is on the verge of another huge leap in creativity and productivity, but the job is not going to be part of tomorrow’s economic reality. There still is and will always be an enormous amount of work to do, but it is not going to be contained in the familiar envelopes we call jobs. In fact, many organizations are today well along the path toward being “de-jobbed.”.”<sup>[18]</sup>

Jobs and job descriptions, until recently, tended to follow their prescriptions and to be fairly detailed and specific. By the mid-1900s writers were reacting to what they viewed as “dehumanizing” aspects of pigeonholing workers into highly repetitive and specialized jobs; many proposed solutions like job enlargement, job rotation, and job enrichment. *Job enlargement* means assigning workers additional same-level tasks, thus increasing the number of activities they perform. *Job rotation* means systematically moving workers from one job to another. Psychologist Frederick Herzberg argued that the best way to motivate workers is to build opportunities for challenge and achievement into their jobs through job enrichment. *Job enrichment* means re-designing jobs in a way that increases the opportunities for the worker to experience feelings of responsibility, achievement, growth and recognition.<sup>[18]</sup>

Whether enriched, specialized or enlarged, workers still generally have specific jobs to do, and these jobs have required job descriptions. In many firms today, however, jobs are becoming more amorphous and difficult to define. In other words, the trend is toward *dejobbing*.

*Dejobbing*, broadening the responsibilities of the company’s jobs, and encouraging employees to not limit themselves to what’s on their job descriptions, is a result of the changes taking place in business today. Organizations need to grapple with trends like rapid product and technological changes, and a shift to a service economy. This has increased the need for firms to be responsive, flexible, and generally more competitive. In turn, the organizational methods managers use to accomplish this have helped weaken the meaning of JOB as a well-defined and clearly delineated set of responsibilities. Here are some methods that have contributed to this weakening of JOB’s meaning:

- **Flatter organizations:** Instead of traditional pyramid-shaped organizations with seven or more management layers, flat organizations with only three or four levels are becoming more prevalent
- **Work teams:** Managers increasingly organize tasks around teams and processes rather than around specialized functions. In an organization like this, employees’ jobs change daily and there is an intentional effort to avoid having employees view their jobs as a specific set of responsibilities.
- **The Boundaryless Organization:** In a *boundaryless organization*, the widespread use of teams and similar structural mechanisms reduces and makes more permeable the boundaries that typically separate departments and hierarchical levels. These organizations foster responsiveness by encouraging employees to rid themselves of the ‘its not my job’ attitudes that typically create walls between one employee’s area and another’s. Instead, the focus is on defining the project or task at hand in terms of the overall best interests of the organization, therefore further reducing the idea of a job as a clearly defined set of duties.<sup>[18]</sup>

Most firms today continue to use job analysis and rely on jobs as traditionally defined. More firms are moving toward new organizational configurations built around jobs that are broad and could change daily. Also, modern job analysis and job design techniques could help companies implement high-performance strategies.<sup>[18]</sup>

### 13.11 See also

- Industrial & organizational psychology

- Task analysis
- Work sampling

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## 13.14 External links

- O\*Net

# Chapter 14

## Employment

“Personnel” redirects here. For Military service members, see [Military personnel](#).

This article is about work. For the Kaiser Chiefs album, see [Employment \(album\)](#).

**Employment** is a relationship between two parties, usually based on a [contract](#), one being the employer and the other being the [employee](#).

### 14.1 Employee

Further information: [List of largest employers](#), [List of professions and Tradesman](#)

An employee contributes labor and/or expertise to an endeavor of an employer and is usually hired to perform specific duties which are packaged into a job. An Employee is a person who is hired to provide services to a company on a regular basis in exchange for compensation and who does not provide these services as part of an independent business.

#### 14.1.1 U.S. Federal income tax withholding

For purposes of U.S. federal income tax withholding, 26 U.S.C. § 3401(c) provides a definition for the term “employee” specific to chapter 24 of the [Internal Revenue Code](#):

“For purposes of this chapter, the term “employee” includes an officer, employee, or elected official of the United States, a State, or any political subdivision thereof, or the District of Columbia, or any agency or instrumentality of any one or more of the foregoing. The term “employee” also includes an officer of a corporation.”<sup>[1]</sup> This definition does not exclude all those who are commonly known as 'employees'. “Similarly, Latham’s instruction which indicated that under 26 U.S.C. § 3401(c) the category of ‘employee’ does not include privately employed wage earners is a preposterous reading of the statute. It is obvious that within the context of both statutes the word

‘includes’ is a term of enlargement not of limitation, and the reference to certain entities or categories is not intended to exclude all others.”--*United States v. Latham*, 754 F.2d 747, 750 (7th Cir. 1985).

### 14.2 Employer-worker relationship

Employer and managerial control within an organization rests at many levels and has important implications for staff and productivity alike, with control forming the fundamental link between desired outcomes and actual processes. Employers must balance interests such as decreasing wage constraints with a maximization of labor productivity in order to achieve a profitable and productive employment relationship.

#### 14.2.1 Finding employees or employment

The main ways for employers to find workers and for people to find employers are via jobs listings in newspapers (via [classified advertising](#)) and online, also called [job boards](#). Employers and job seekers also often find each other via professional [recruitment consultants](#) which receive a [commission](#) from the employer to find, screen and select suitable candidates. However, a study has shown that such consultants may not be reliable when they fail to use established principles in selecting employees.<sup>[2]</sup> A more traditional approach is with a “Help Wanted” sign in the establishment (usually hung on a window or door<sup>[3]</sup> or placed on a store counter).<sup>[4]</sup> Assessing different employees can be quite laborious but setting up different techniques to analyze their skill to measure their talents within the field can be best through [Assessments](#).<sup>[5]</sup> Employer and potential employee commonly take the additional step of getting to know each other through the process of [job interview](#).

#### 14.2.2 Training and development

[Training and development](#) refers to the employer’s effort to equip a newly hired employee with necessary skills to perform at the job, and to help the employee grow within

the organization. An appropriate level of training and development helps to improve employee's job satisfaction.

### 14.2.3 Employee benefits

Employee benefits are various non-wage compensation provided to employee in addition to their wages or salaries. The benefits can include: housing (employer-provided or employer-paid), group insurance (health, dental, life etc.), disability income protection, retirement benefits, daycare, tuition reimbursement, sick leave, vacation (paid and non-paid), social security, profit sharing, funding of education, and other specialized benefits. Employee benefits improves the relationship between employee and employer and lowers staff turnover.

### 14.2.4 Organizational justice

Organizational justice is an employee's perception and judgement of employer's treatment in the context of fairness or justice. The resulting actions to influence the employee-employer relationship is also a part of organizational justice.

### 14.2.5 Workforce organizing

Employees can organize into trade or labor unions, which represent the work force to collectively bargain with the management of organizations about working, and contractual conditions and services.

### 14.2.6 Ending employment

Usually, either an employee or employer may end the relationship at any time. This is referred to as at-will employment. The contract between the two parties specifies the responsibilities of each when ending the relationship and may include requirements such as notice periods, severance pay, and security measures.

## 14.3 Wage labor

Main article: [Wage labor](#)

Wage labor is the socioeconomic relationship between a worker and an employer, where the worker sells their labor under a formal or informal employment contract. These transactions usually occur in a labor market where wages are market determined.<sup>[6][7]</sup> In exchange for the wages paid, the work product generally becomes the undifferentiated property of the employer, except for special cases such as the vesting of intellectual property patents in the United States where patent rights are usually vested in the original personal inventor. A wage laborer



*Worker assembling rebar for a water treatment plant in Mazatlan, Sinaloa, Mexico.*

is a person whose primary means of income is from the selling of his or her labor in this way.

In modern mixed economies such as that of the OECD countries, it is currently the dominant form of work arrangement. Although most work occurs following this structure, the wage work arrangements of CEOs, professional employees, and professional contract workers are sometimes conflated with class assignments, so that "wage labor" is considered to apply only to unskilled, semi-skilled or manual labor.

### 14.3.1 Wage slavery

Main article: [Labour economics](#)

Wage labour, as institutionalised under today's market economic systems, has been criticized,<sup>[8]</sup> especially by both mainstream socialists and anarcho-syndicalists,<sup>[9][10][11][12]</sup> using the pejorative term wage slavery.<sup>[13][14]</sup> Socialists draw parallels between the trade of labour as a commodity and slavery. Cicero is also known to have suggested such parallels.<sup>[15]</sup>

The American philosopher John Dewey posited that until "industrial feudalism" is replaced by "industrial democracy," politics will be "the shadow cast on society by big business".<sup>[16]</sup> Thomas Ferguson has postulated in his investment theory of party competition that the undemocratic nature of economic institutions under capitalism causes elections to become occasions when blocs of investors coalesce and compete to control the state.<sup>[17]</sup>

## 14.4 Employment contract

Main article: [Employment contract](#)

### 14.4.1 Australia

Australian Employment has been governed by the Fair Work Act since 2009.<sup>[18]</sup>

### 14.4.2 Bangladesh

Bangladesh Association of International Recruiting Agencies (BAIRA) is an association of national level with its international reputation of co-operation and welfare of the migrant workforce as well as its approximately 1200 members agencies in collaboration with and support from the Government of Bangladesh.

### 14.4.3 Canada

In the Canadian province of Ontario, formal complaints can be brought to the Ministry of Labour. In the province of Quebec, grievances can be filed with the Commission des normes du travail.

### 14.4.4 Pakistan

Pakistan has Contract Labor, Minimum Wage and Provident Funds Acts. Contract labor in Pakistan must be paid minimum wage and certain facilities are to be provided to labor. However, the Acts are not yet fully implemented.

### 14.4.5 India

India has Contract Labor, Minimum Wage, Provident Funds Act and various other acts to comply with. Contract labor in India must be paid minimum wage and certain facilities are to be provided to labor. However, there is still a large amount of work that remains to be done to fully implement the Act.

### 14.4.6 Philippines

In the Philippines, private employment is regulated under the Labor Code of the Philippines by the Department of Labor and Employment.

### 14.4.7 United Kingdom

In the United Kingdom employment contracts are categorised by the government into the following types:<sup>[19]</sup>

- **Fixed-term contract:** last for a certain length of time, are set in advance, end when a specific task is completed, ends when a specific event takes place.
- **Full-time or part-time contract:** has no defined length of time, can be terminated by either party,

is to accomplish a specific task, specified number of hours.

- Agency staff
- freelancers, consultants, contractors
- zero hour contracts

### 14.4.8 United States

See also: United States labor law and List of largest employers in the United States

In the United States, the standard employment relationship is considered to be at-will, meaning that the employer and employee are both free to terminate the employment at any time and for any cause, or for no cause at all. However, if a termination of employment<sup>[20]</sup> by the employer is deemed unjust by the employee, there can be legal recourse to challenge such a termination. Unjust termination may include termination due to discrimination because of an individual's race, national origin, sex or gender, pregnancy, age, physical or mental disability, religion, or military status. Additional protections apply in some states, for instance in California unjust termination reasons include marital status, ancestry, sexual orientation or medical condition. Despite whatever agreement an employer makes with an employee for the employee's wages, an employee is entitled to certain minimum wages set by the federal government. The states may set their own minimum wage that is higher than the federal government's to ensure a higher standard of living or living wage for those who are employed. Under the Equal Pay Act of 1963 an employer may not give different wages based on sex alone.<sup>[21]</sup>

Employees are often contrasted with independent contractors, especially when there is dispute as to the worker's entitlement to have matching taxes paid, workers compensation, and unemployment insurance benefits. However, in September 2009, the court case of *Brown v. J. Kaz, Inc.* ruled that independent contractors are regarded as employees for the purpose of discrimination laws if they work for the employer on a regular basis, and said employer directs the time, place, and manner of employment.<sup>[22]</sup>

In non-union work environments, in the United States, unjust termination complaints can be brought to the United States Department of Labor.<sup>[23]</sup>

#### Labor unions

Main article: Labor unions in the United States

Labor unions are legally recognized as representatives of workers in many industries in the United States. Their activity today centers on collective bargaining over wages,

benefits, and working conditions for their membership, and on representing their members in disputes with management over violations of contract provisions. Larger unions also typically engage in lobbying activities and electioneering at the state and federal level.

Most unions in America are aligned with one of two larger umbrella organizations: the **AFL-CIO** created in 1955, and the **Change to Win Federation** which split from the AFL-CIO in 2005. Both advocate policies and legislation on behalf of workers in the United States and Canada, and take an active role in politics. The AFL-CIO is especially concerned with global trade issues.

#### 14.4.9 Sweden

According to Swedish law,<sup>[24]</sup> there are three types of employment.

- Test employment (*swe: Provanställning*), where the employer hires a person for a test period of max 6 months. The employment can be ended at any time without giving any reason. This type of employment can be offered only once per employer and employee combination. Usually a time limited or normal employment is offered after a test employment.
- Time limited employment (*swe: Tidsbegränsad anställning*). The employer hires a person for a specified time. Usually they are extended for a new period. Total maximum two years per employee and employee combination, then it automatically counts as a normal employment.
- Normal employment (*swe: Tillvidareanställning / Fast anställning*), which has no time limit (except for retirement etc.). It can still be ended for two reasons: personal reason, immediate end of employment, only for strong reasons such as crime. Or: lack of work tasks (*swe: Arbetsbrist*), cancellation of employment, usually because of bad income for the company. There is a cancellation period of 1–6 months, and rules for how to select employees, basically those with shortest employment time shall be cancelled first.

There are no laws about **minimum salary** in Sweden. Instead there are agreements between employer organizations and trade unions about minimum salaries, and other employment conditions.

There is a type of employment contract which is common but not regulated in law, and that is Hour employment (*swe: Timanställning*), which can be Normal employment (unlimited), but the work time is unregulated and decided per immediate need basis. The employee is expected to be answering the phone and come to work when needed, e.g. when someone is ill and absent from work. They will receive salary only for actual work time and can be in

reality be fired for no reason by not being called anymore. This type of contract is common in the public sector.

## 14.5 Youth employment

Youth employment rate in the US, i.e. the ratio of employed persons (15-24Y) in an economy to total labor force (15-24Y). [1]

Research has looked at understanding private sector led youth employment programmes that contain or are supported through temporary employment/employer placement, and not in only training. Researchers claimed that a problem rising up the international agenda involves enlarging the share of the population in employment. After looking at literature they concluded that youth employment programmes are most effective when combining elements. The most effective programmes involve the private sector with training provided both in the classroom and in work placements. The majority of interventions worldwide include a large element of such training initiatives. Wage subsidies have some incidences of fairly strong impacts. With other types of interventions like in entrepreneurship and in job placement assistance, the evidence is more mixed.<sup>[25]</sup>

## 14.6 Working poor



Worker, Dhaka, Bangladesh.

Employment is no guarantee of escaping poverty, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) estimates that as many as 40% of workers are poor, not earning enough to keep their families above the \$2 a day poverty line.<sup>[26]</sup> For instance, in India most of the chronically poor are wage earners in formal employment, because their jobs are insecure and low paid and offer no chance to accumulate wealth to avoid risks.<sup>[26]</sup> According to the UNRISD, increasing labor productivity appears to have a negative impact on job creation: in the 1960s, a 1% increase in output



per worker was associated with a reduction in employment growth of 0.07%, by the first decade of this century the same productivity increase implies reduced employment growth by 0.54%.<sup>[26]</sup> Both increased employment opportunities and increased labor productivity (as long as it also translates into higher wages) are needed to tackle poverty. Increases in employment without increases in productivity leads to a rise in the number of “working poor”, which is why some experts are now promoting the creation of “quality” and not “quantity” in labor market policies.<sup>[26]</sup> This approach does highlight how higher productivity has helped reduce poverty in East Asia, but the negative impact is beginning to show.<sup>[26]</sup> In Vietnam, for example, employment growth has slowed while productivity growth has continued.<sup>[26]</sup> Furthermore, productivity increases do not always lead to increased wages, as can be seen in the United States, where the gap between productivity and wages has been rising since the 1980s.<sup>[26]</sup>

Researchers at the Overseas Development Institute argue that there are differences across economic sectors in creating employment that reduces poverty.<sup>[26]</sup> 24 instances of growth were examined, in which 18 reduced poverty. This study showed that other sectors were just as important in reducing unemployment, as manufacturing.<sup>[26]</sup> The services sector is most effective at translating productivity growth into employment growth. Agriculture provides a safety net for jobs and economic buffer when other sectors are struggling.<sup>[26]</sup>

## 14.7 Models of the employment relationship

Scholars conceptualize the employment relationship in various ways.<sup>[27]</sup> A key assumption is the extent to which the employment relationship necessarily includes conflicts of interests between employers and employees, and the form of such conflicts.<sup>[28]</sup> In economic theorizing, the labor market mediates all such conflicts such that employers and employees who enter into an employment relationship are assumed to find this arrangement in their own self-interest. In human resource management theorizing, employers and employees are assumed to have shared interests (or a unity of interests, hence the label “unitarism”). Any conflicts that exist are seen as a manifestation of poor human resource management policies or interpersonal clashes such as personality conflicts, both of which can and should be managed away. From the perspective of pluralist industrial relations, the employment relationship is characterized by a plurality of stakeholders with legitimate interests (hence the label “pluralism”), and some conflicts of interests are seen as inherent in the employment relationship (e.g., wages v. profits). Lastly, the critical paradigm emphasizes antagonistic conflicts of interests between various groups (e.g., the competing capitalist and working classes in a Marxist framework) that are part of a deeper social conflict of unequal power re-

lations. As a result, there are four common models of employment:<sup>[29]</sup>

1. **Mainstream economics:** employment is seen as a mutually advantageous transaction in a free market between self-interested legal and economic equals
2. **Human resource management (unitarism):** employment is a long-term partnership of employees and employers with common interests
3. **Pluralist industrial relations:** employment is a bargained exchange between stakeholders with some common and some competing economic interests and unequal bargaining power due to imperfect labor markets
4. **Critical industrial relations:** employment is an unequal power relation between competing groups that is embedded in and inseparable from systemic inequalities throughout the socio-politico-economic system.

These models are important because they help reveal why individuals hold differing perspectives on human resource management policies, labor unions, and employment regulation.<sup>[30]</sup> For example, human resource management policies are seen as dictated by the market in the first view, as essential mechanisms for aligning the interests of employees and employers and thereby creating profitable companies in the second view, as insufficient for looking out for workers’ interests in the third view, and as manipulative managerial tools for shaping the ideology and structure of the workplace in the fourth view.<sup>[31]</sup>

## 14.8 Academic literature

Literature on the employment impact of economic growth and on how growth is associated with employment at a macro, sector and industry level was aggregated in 2013.<sup>[32]</sup>

Researchers found evidence to suggest growth in manufacturing and services have good impact on employment. They found GDP growth on employment in agriculture to be limited, but that value-added growth had a relatively larger impact. The impact on job creation by industries/economic activities as well as the extent of the body of evidence and the key studies. For extractives, they again found extensive evidence suggesting growth in the sector has limited impact on employment. In textiles however, although evidence was low, studies suggest growth there positively contributed to job creation. In agri-business and food processing, they found impact growth to be positive.<sup>[32]</sup>

They found that most available literature focuses on OECD and middle-income countries somewhat, where economic growth impact has been shown to be positive

on employment. The researchers didn't find sufficient evidence to conclude any impact of growth on employment in LDCs despite some pointing to the positive impact, others point to limitations. They recommended that complementary policies are necessary to ensure economic growth's positive impact on LDC employment. With trade, industry and investment, they only found limited evidence of positive impact on employment from industrial and investment policies and for others, while large bodies of evidence does exist, the exact impact remains contested.<sup>[32]</sup>

## 14.9 Globalization and employment relations

The balance of economic efficiency and social equity is the ultimate debate in the field of employment relations.<sup>[33]</sup> By meeting the needs of the employer; generating profits to establish and maintain economic efficiency; whilst maintaining a balance with the employee and creating social equity that benefits the worker so that he/she can fund and enjoy healthy living; proves to be a continuous revolving issue in westernized societies.

Globalization has effected these issues by creating certain economic factors that disallow or allow various employment issues. Economist Edward Lee (1996) studies the effects of globalization and summarizes the four major points of concern that affect employment relations:

1. International competition, from the newly industrialized countries, will cause unemployment growth and increased wage disparity for unskilled workers in industrialized countries. Imports from low-wage countries exert pressure on the manufacturing sector in industrialized countries and foreign direct investment (FDI) is attracted away from the industrialized nations, towards low-waged countries.
2. Economic liberalization will result in unemployment and wage inequality in developing countries. This happens as job losses in uncompetitive industries outstrip job opportunities in new industries.
3. Workers will be forced to accept worsening wages and conditions, as a global labor market results in a "race to the bottom". Increased international competition creates a pressure to reduce the wages and conditions of workers.
4. Globalization reduces the autonomy of the nation state. Capital is increasingly mobile and the ability of the state to regulate economic activity is reduced.

What also results from Lee's (1996) findings is that in industrialized countries an average of almost 70 per cent of workers are employed in the service sector, most of which consists of non-tradable activities. As a result, workers

are forced to become more skilled and develop sought after trades, or find other means of survival. Ultimately this is a result of changes and trends of employment, an evolving workforce, and globalization that is represented by a more skilled and increasing highly diverse labor force, that are growing in non standard forms of employment (Markey, R. et al. 2006).

## 14.10 Alternatives

### 14.10.1 Workplace democracy

Main article: [Workplace democracy](#)

Workplace democracy is the application of democracy in all its forms (including voting systems, debates, democratic structuring, due process, adversarial process, systems of appeal) to the workplace.<sup>[34]</sup>

### 14.10.2 Self-employment

When an individual entirely owns the business for which they labor, this is known as self-employment. Self-employment often leads to incorporation. Incorporation offers certain protections of one's personal assets.

### 14.10.3 Volunteerism

Workers who are not paid wages, such as volunteers, are generally not considered as being employed. One exception to this is an *internship*, an employment situation in which the worker receives training or experience (and possibly college credit) as the chief form of compensation.

### 14.10.4 Indenturing and slavery

Those who work under obligation for the purpose of fulfilling a debt, such as an indentured servant, or as property of the person or entity they work for, such as a slave, do not receive pay for their services and are not considered employed. Some historians suggest that slavery is older than employment, but both arrangements have existed for all recorded history. Indenturing and slavery are not considered compatible with human rights and democracy.

## 14.11 See also

## 14.12 Notes and references

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# Chapter 15

## Job design

**Job design** (also referred to as **work design** or **task design**) is the specification of contents, methods and relationship of jobs in order to satisfy technological and organizational requirements as well as the social and personal requirements of the job holder.<sup>[1]</sup> Its principles are geared towards how the nature of a person's job affects their attitudes and behavior at work, particularly relating to characteristics such as skill variety and autonomy.<sup>[2]</sup> The aim of a job design is to improve job satisfaction, to improve through-put, to improve quality and to reduce employee problems (e.g., grievances, absenteeism).

### 15.1 Job characteristic theory

See also: [Job characteristic theory](#)

The job characteristic theory proposed by Hackman & Oldham (1976)<sup>[3]</sup> stated that work should be designed to have five core job characteristics, which engender three critical psychological states in individuals—experiencing meaning, feeling responsible for outcomes, and understanding the results of their efforts. In turn, these psychological states were proposed to enhance employees' intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, quality of work and performance, while reducing turnover.<sup>[4]</sup>

#### 15.1.1 Core job dimensions

1. *Skill variety* — This refers to the range of skills and activities necessary to complete the job. The more a person is required to use a wide variety of skills, the more satisfying the job is likely to be.
2. *Task identity* — This dimension measures the degree to which the job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work. Employees who are involved in an activity from start to finish are usually more satisfied.
3. *Task significance* — This looks at the impact and influence of a job. Jobs are more satisfying if people believe that they make a difference, and are

adding real value to colleagues, the organization, or the larger community.

4. *Autonomy* — This describes the amount of individual choice and discretion involved in a job. More autonomy leads to more satisfaction. For instance, a job is likely to be more satisfying if people are involved in making decisions, instead of simply being told what to do.
5. *Feedback* — This dimension measures the amount of information an employee receives about his or her performance, and the extent to which he or she can see the impact of the work. The more people are told about their performance, the more interested they will be in doing a good job. So, sharing production figures, customer satisfaction scores etc. can increase the feedback levels.

#### 15.1.2 Critical psychological states

The five core job dimensions listed above result in three different psychological states.

- *Experienced meaningfulness of the work*: The extent to which people believe that their job is meaningful, and that their work is valued and appreciated (comes from core dimensions 1-3).
- *Experienced responsibility for the outcomes of work*: The extent to which people feel accountable for the results of their work, and for the outcomes they have produced (comes from core dimension 4).
- *Knowledge of the actual results of the work activity*: The extent to which people know how well they are doing (comes from core dimension 5).

### 15.2 Techniques of job design

#### 15.2.1 Job rotation

See also: [Job rotation](#)

*Job rotation* is a job design method which is able to enhance motivation, develop workers' outlook, increase productivity, improve the organization's performance on various levels by its multi-skilled workers, and provides new opportunities to improve the attitude, thought, capabilities and skills of workers.<sup>[5]</sup> Job rotation is also process by which employees laterally mobilize and serve their tasks in different organizational levels; when an individual experiences different posts and responsibilities in an organization, ability increases to evaluate his capabilities in the organization.<sup>[6]</sup>

### 15.2.2 Job enlargement

See also: Job enlargement

Hulin and Blood (1968)<sup>[7]</sup> define *Job enlargement* as the process of allowing individual workers to determine their own pace (within limits), to serve as their own inspectors by giving them responsibility for quality control, to repair their own mistakes, to be responsible for their own machine set-up and repair, and to attain choice of method. Frederick Herzberg<sup>[8]</sup> referred to the addition of interrelated tasks as 'horizontal job loading'.

### 15.2.3 Job enrichment

See also: Job enrichment

*Job enrichment* increases the employees' autonomy over the planning and execution of their own work. Job enrichment has the same motivational advantages of job enlargement, however it has the added benefit of granting workers autonomy. Frederick Herzberg<sup>[9]</sup> viewed job enrichment as 'vertical job loading' because it also includes tasks formerly performed by someone at a higher level where planning and control are involved.

### 15.2.4 Scientific management

See also: Scientific management

Under *scientific management* people would be directed by reason and the problems of industrial unrest would be appropriately (i.e., scientifically) addressed. This philosophy is oriented toward the maximum gains possible to employees. Managers would guarantee that their subordinates would have access to the maximum of economic gains by means of rationalized processes. Organizations were portrayed as rationalized sites, designed and managed according to a rule of rationality imported from the world of technique.<sup>[10]</sup>

### 15.2.5 Human Relations School

See also: Human relations movement

The *Human Relations School* takes the view that businesses are social systems in which psychological and emotional factors have a significant influence on productivity. The common elements in human relations theory are the beliefs that

- Performance can be improved by good human relations
- Managers should consult employees in matters that affect staff
- Leaders should be democratic rather than authoritarian
- Employees are motivated by social and psychological rewards and are not just "economic animals"
- The work group plays an important part in influencing performance<sup>[11]</sup>

### 15.2.6 Socio-technical systems

See also: Sociotechnical systems

*Socio-technical systems* aims on jointly optimizing the operation of the social and technical system; the good or service would then be efficiently produced and psychological needs of the workers fulfilled. Embedded in Socio-technical Systems are motivational assumptions, such as intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.<sup>[12]</sup>

### 15.2.7 Work reform

Work reform states about the workplace relation and the changes made which are more suitable to management and employee to encourage increased workforce participation.

### 15.2.8 Motivational work design

The psychological literature on employee motivation contains considerable evidence that job design can influence satisfaction, motivation and job performance. It influences them primarily because it affects the relationship between the employee's expectancy that increased performance will lead to rewards and the preference of different rewards for the individual.<sup>[13]</sup>

Hackman and Oldman developed the theory that a workplace can be redesigned to greater improve their core job characteristics. Their overall concept consists of:

- Making larger work units by combining smaller, more specialized tasks.
- Mandating worker(s) to be responsible via having direct contact with clients.
- Having employee evaluations done frequently in order to provide feedback for learning.
- Allowing workers to be responsible for their job by giving them authority and control.<sup>[14]</sup>

A similar theory was also mentioned earlier by Frederick Herzberg. Herzberg's theory consists of a *Two Factor Theory*:

1. Hygiene Factors
2. Motivational Factors

### 15.3 See also

- Eric Trist
- Fred Emery
- Industrial and organizational psychology

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# Chapter 16

## Job performance

**Job performance** is whether a person performs their job well. Job performance is studied in industrial and organizational psychology, the branch of psychology that deals with the workplace. Job performance is also part of human resources management. Performance is an important criterion for organizational outcomes and success.

John P. Campbell describes job performance as an individual level variable, or something a single person does. This differentiates it from more encompassing constructs such as organizational performance or national performance which are higher level variables.<sup>[1][2]</sup>

### 16.1 Features

There are several key features to Campbell's conceptualization of job performance which help clarify what job performance means.

#### 16.1.1 Outcomes

First, Campbell defines performance as **behavior**. It is something done by the employee. This concept differentiates performance from outcomes. Outcomes are the result of an individual's performance, but they are also the result of other influences. In other words, there are more factors that determine outcomes than just an employee's behaviors and actions.

Campbell allows for exceptions when defining performance as behavior. For instance, he clarifies that performance does not have to be directly observable actions of an individual. It can consist of mental productions such as answers or decisions. However, performance needs to be under the individual's control, regardless of whether the performance of interest is mental or behavioral.

The difference between individual controlled action and outcomes is best conveyed through an example. On a sales job, a favorable outcome is a certain level of revenue generated through the sale of something (merchandise, some service, insurance). Revenue can be generated or not, depending on the behavior of employees. When the employee performs this sales job well, he is able to move

more merchandise. However, certain factors other than employees' behavior influence revenue generated. For example, sales might slump due to economic conditions, changes in customer preferences, production bottlenecks, etc. In these conditions, employee performance can be adequate, yet sales can still be low. The first is performance and the second is the effectiveness of that performance. These two can be decoupled because performance is not the same as effectiveness.<sup>[3]</sup>

Another closely related construct is **productivity**.<sup>[4]</sup> This can be thought of as a comparison of the amount of effectiveness that results from a certain level of cost associated with that effectiveness. In other words, effectiveness is the ratio of outputs to inputs—those inputs being effort, monetary costs, resources, etc.

Utility is another related construct which is defined as the value of a particular level of performance, effectiveness, or productivity. Utilities of performance, effectiveness, and productivity are value judgments.

#### 16.1.2 Organizational goal relevance

Another key feature of job performance is that it has to be goal relevant. Performance must be directed toward organizational goals that are relevant to the job or role. Therefore, performance does not include activities where effort is expended toward achieving peripheral goals. For example, the effort put toward the goal of getting to work in the shortest amount of time is not performance (except where it is concerned with avoiding lateness).

#### 16.1.3 Multidimensionality

Despite the emphasis on defining and predicting job performance, it is not a single unified construct. There are vastly many jobs each with different performance standards. Therefore, job performance is conceptualized as a multidimensional construct consisting of more than one kind of behavior. Campbell (1990) proposed an eight factor model of performance based on factor analytic research that attempts to capture dimensions of job performance existent (to a greater or lesser extent) across all jobs.



1. The first factor is **task specific behaviors** which include those behaviors that an individual undertakes as part of a job. They are the core substantive tasks that delineate one job from another.
2. On the other hand, **non-task specific behaviors**, the second factor, are those behaviors which an individual is required to undertake which do not pertain only to a particular job. Returning to the sales person, an example of a task specific behavior would be showing a product to a potential customer. A non-task specific behavior of a sales person might be training new staff members.
3. Written and oral **communication** tasks refer to activities where the incumbent is evaluated, not on the content of a message necessarily, but on the adeptness with which they deliver the communication. Employees need to make formal and informal oral and written presentations to various audiences in many different jobs in the work force.
4. An individual's performance can also be assessed in terms of **effort**, either day to day, or when there are extraordinary circumstances. This factor reflects the degree to which people commit themselves to job tasks.
5. The performance domain might also include an aspect of **personal discipline**. Individuals would be expected to be in good standing with the law, not abuse alcohol, etc.
6. In jobs where people work closely or are highly interdependent, performance may include the degree to which a person **helps out the groups and his or her colleagues**. This might include acting as a good role model, coaching, giving advice or helping maintain group goals.
7. Many jobs also have a **supervisory or leadership component**. The individual will be relied upon to undertake many of the things delineated under the previous factor and in addition will be responsible for meting out rewards and punishments. These aspects of performance happen in a face to face manner.
8. **Managerial** and administrative performance entails those aspects of a job which serve the group or organization but do not involve direct supervision. A **managerial task** would be setting an organizational goal or responding to external stimuli to assist a group in achieving its goals. In addition a manager might be responsible for monitoring group and individual progress towards goals and monitoring organizational resources.

Another taxonomy of job performance was proposed and developed for the US Navy by Murphy (1994). This

model is significantly broader and breaks performance into only four dimensions.

1. Task-oriented behaviors are similar to task-specific behaviors in Campbell's model. This dimension includes any major tasks relevant to someone's job.
2. Interpersonally oriented behaviors are represented by any interaction the focal employee has with other employees. These can be task related or non-task related. This dimension diverges from Campbell's taxonomy because it included behaviors (small talk, socializing, etc.) that are not targeting an organization's goal.
3. Down-time behaviors are behaviors that employees engage in during their free time either at work or off-site. Down-time behaviors that occur off-site are only considered job performance when they subsequently affect job performance (for example, outside behaviors that cause absenteeism).
4. Destructive/hazardous behaviors

In addition to these models dividing performance into dimensions, others have identified different types of behaviors making up performance.

## 16.2 Types

Another way to divide up performance is in terms of task and **contextual** (**citizenship** and counterproductive) behaviors.<sup>[5]</sup> Whereas task performance describes obligatory behaviors, contextual behaviors are behaviors that do not fulfill specific aspects of the job's required role. Citizenship behaviors are defined as behaviors which contribute to the goals of the organization through their effect on the social and psychological conditions.<sup>[6]</sup> Counterproductive behaviors, on the other hand, are intentional actions by employees which circumvent the aims of the organization.<sup>[7]</sup>

## 16.3 Determinants

A meta-analysis of selection methods in personnel psychology found that **general mental ability** was the best overall predictor of job performance and training performance.<sup>[8]</sup>

Campbell (1990) also suggested determinants of performance components. Individual differences on performance are a function of three main determinants: declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and skill, and motivation.

Declarative knowledge refers to knowledge about facts, principles, objects, etc. It represents the knowledge of

a given task's requirements. For instance, declarative knowledge includes knowledge of principles, facts, ideas, etc.

If declarative knowledge is knowing what to do, procedural knowledge and skill is knowing how to do it. For example, procedural knowledge and skill includes cognitive skill, perceptual skill, interpersonal skill, etc.

The third predictor of performance is **motivation**, which refers to “a combined effect from three choice behaviors—choice to expend effort, choice of level of effort to expend, and choice to persist in the expenditure of that level of effort” (Campbell, 1990). It reflects the direction, intensity, and persistence of volitional behaviors.<sup>[9]</sup> Campbell (1990) emphasized that the only way to discuss motivation as a direct determinant of behavior is as one or more of these choices. (See also *Work motivation*.)

Campbell (1990) also mentioned several performance parameters that may have important implications for the job performance setting and should be investigated by industrial and organizational psychologists.

The first one is the distinction between speed and accuracy. This distinction is similar to the one between quantity and quality.<sup>[10]</sup> Important questions that should be considered include: which is most valued by the organization, maximized speed, maximized accuracy, or some balance between the two? What kind of trade offs should an employee make? The latter question is important because speed and accuracy for the same task may be independent of one another.

The second distinction is between typical and maximum performance. Sackett, Zedeck, and Fogli<sup>[11]</sup> did a study on supermarket cashiers and found that there was a substantial difference between scores reflecting their typical performance and scores reflecting their maximum performance. This study suggested the distinction between typical and maximum performance. Regular work situations reflect varying levels of motivation which result in typical performance. Special circumstances generate maximum employee motivation which results in maximum performance.

Additionally, the impact of **organizational justice** perceptions on performance is believed to stem from Equity Theory. This would suggest that when people perceive injustice they seek to restore justice. One way that employees restore justice is by altering their level of performance. Procedural justice affects performance as a result of its impact on employee attitudes. Distributive justice affects performance when efficiency and productivity are involved.<sup>[12]</sup> Improving justice perceptions improves productivity and performance.<sup>[13]</sup>

### 16.3.1 Detrimental impact of bullying

Main article: [Workplace bullying](#)

Bullying results in a loss of productivity. In one study a moderate negative correlation was found between self-rated performance and bullying, with the “currently bullied” on average reporting a decrease of productivity of approximately 7% compared with those who were neither bullied nor had witnessed bullying taking place.<sup>[14]</sup>

## 16.4 Core self-evaluations

Job performance is a consistent and important outcome of **core self-evaluations (CSE)**.<sup>[15][16][17][18]</sup> The concept of core self-evaluations was first examined by Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) as a dispositional predictor of job satisfaction,<sup>[19]</sup> and involves four personality dimensions; **locus of control**, **neuroticism**, **self-efficacy**, and **self-esteem**. The way in which people appraise themselves using core self-evaluations has the ability to predict positive work outcomes, specifically, **job satisfaction** and **job performance**. The most popular theory relating the CSE trait to job performance argues that people with high CSE will be more motivated to perform well because they are confident they have the ability to do so.<sup>[15]</sup> Motivation is generally the most accepted mediator of the core self-evaluations and job performance relationship.<sup>[16]</sup> These relationships have inspired increasing amounts of research on core self-evaluations and suggest valuable implications about the importance this trait may have for organizations.

## 16.5 Role conflict

Main article: [Role conflict](#)

Role conflict can have many different effects on the work-life of an individual as well as their family-life. In a study in Taiwan, it was found that those suffering from role conflict also suffered greatly in their work performance, mainly in the form of lack of **motivation**. Those with role conflict did not do more than the bare minimum requirements at work. There was also a decline in the ability to assign tasks. Having multiple roles will often lead to job dissatisfaction. While there are many de-motivational effects of role conflict on work, there is also a positive. Those undergoing role conflict often had an increase in work creativity. Due to multiple roles, there is an increase in flexibility, different sources of information, and these people have many different perspectives to bring to the table.<sup>[20]</sup>

Experiencing role conflict within the work place may also lead to **workplace bullying**. When companies undergo

organizational change workers often experience either a loss or a gain in areas of a workers job, thus changing the expectations of the worker. Change is often very stressful for workers. Workers who might have lost a degree of power may feel like they lost their authority and begin to lash out at other employees by being verbally abusive, purposefully withholding work related items, or sometimes even physically to withhold their status.<sup>[21]</sup>

## 16.6 Emotional intelligence

Main article: [Emotional intelligence](#)

Research of emotional intelligence (EI) and job performance shows mixed results: a positive relation has been found in some of the studies, in others there was no relation or an inconsistent one. This led researchers Cote and Miners (2006)<sup>[22]</sup> to offer a compensatory model between EI and IQ, that posits that the association between EI and job performance becomes more positive as cognitive intelligence decreases, an idea first proposed in the context of academic performance (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004). The results of the former study supported the compensatory model: employees with low IQ get higher task performance and organizational citizenship behavior directed at the organization, the higher their EI.

A meta-analytic review by Joseph and Newman<sup>[23]</sup> also revealed that both Ability EI and Trait EI tend to predict job performance much better in jobs that require a high degree of emotional labor (where 'emotional labor' was defined as jobs that require the effective display of positive emotion). In contrast, EI shows little relationship to job performance in jobs that do not require emotional labor. In other words, emotional intelligence tends to predict job performance for emotional jobs only.

A more recent study suggests that EI is not necessarily a universally positive trait.<sup>[24]</sup> They found a negative correlation between EI and managerial work demands; while under low levels of managerial work demands, they found a negative relationship between EI and teamwork effectiveness. An explanation for this may suggest gender differences in EI, as women tend to score higher levels than men.<sup>[23]</sup> This furthers the idea that job context plays a role in the relationships between EI, teamwork effectiveness, and job performance.

Another study assessed a possible link between EI and entrepreneurial behaviors and success.<sup>[25]</sup> In accordance with much of the other findings regarding EI and job performance, they found that levels of EI only predicted a small amount of entrepreneurial behavior.

## 16.7 See also

- Core self-evaluations
- Goal orientation
- High commitment management
- Onboarding
- Organizational commitment
- Performance appraisal
- Typical versus maximum performance

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# Chapter 17

## Job satisfaction

**Job satisfaction** or **employee satisfaction** has been defined in many different ways. Some believe it is simply how content an individual is with his or her job, in other words, whether or not they like the job or individual aspects or facets of jobs, such as nature of work or supervision.<sup>[1]</sup> Others believe it is not so simplistic as this definition suggests and instead that multidimensional **psychological** responses to one's job are involved.<sup>[2]</sup> Researchers have also noted that job satisfaction measures vary in the extent to which they measure feelings about the job (affective job satisfaction).<sup>[3]</sup> or cognitions about the job (cognitive job satisfaction).<sup>[4]</sup>

### 17.1 Definitional issues

The concept of job satisfaction has been developed in many ways by many different researchers and practitioners. One of the most widely used definitions in organizational research is that of Locke (1976), who defines job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1304).<sup>[5]</sup> Others have defined it as simply how content an individual is with his or her job; whether he or she likes the job or not.<sup>[6]</sup> It is assessed at both the global level (whether or not the individual is satisfied with the job overall), or at the facet level (whether or not the individual is satisfied with different aspects of the job).<sup>[1]</sup> Spector (1997)<sup>[1]</sup> lists 14 common facets: Appreciation, Communication, Coworkers, Fringe benefits, Job conditions, Nature of the work, Organization, Personal growth, Policies and procedures, Promotion opportunities, Recognition, Security, and Supervision).

A more recent definition of the concept of job satisfaction is from Hulin and Judge (2003), who have noted that job satisfaction includes multidimensional **psychological** responses to an individual's job, and that these personal responses have cognitive (evaluative), affective (or emotional), and behavioral components.<sup>[2]</sup> Job satisfaction scales vary in the extent to which they assess the affective feelings about the job or the cognitive assessment of the job. Affective job satisfaction is a subjective construct representing an emotional feeling individuals have about their job.<sup>[1][3][4][7]</sup> Hence, affective job satisfaction

for individuals reflects the degree of pleasure or happiness their job in general induces. Cognitive job satisfaction is a more objective and logical evaluation of various facets of a job. Cognitive job satisfaction can be unidimensional if it comprises evaluation of just one facet of a job, such as pay or maternity leave, or multidimensional if two or more facets of a job are simultaneously evaluated. Cognitive job satisfaction does not assess the degree of pleasure or happiness that arises from specific job facets, but rather gauges the extent to which those job facets are judged by the job holder to be satisfactory in comparison with objectives they themselves set or with other jobs. While cognitive job satisfaction might help to bring about affective job satisfaction, the two constructs are distinct, not necessarily directly related, and have different antecedents and consequences.<sup>[4]</sup>

Job satisfaction can also be seen within the broader context of the range of issues which affect an individual's experience of work, or their **quality of working life**. Job satisfaction can be understood in terms of its relationships with other key factors, such as general well-being, stress at work, control at work, home-work interface, and working conditions.<sup>[8]</sup>

A study titled "Analysis of Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction of the Employees in Public and Private Sector", in India concluded that in India Employees tend to love their job if they get what they believe is an important attribute of a good job. Weightage factor of each such attribute based on exhaustive survey has been calculated. Region, sector and gender wise study of job satisfaction has provided consistent picture with respect to distribution of data set analyzed showed that most of the employees in Indian industry are not satisfied with their job except for a few like male in commerce sector and female in education sector. Total job satisfaction level of males is found to be higher than that of woman. Total job satisfaction level in manufacturing sector is found to be very low.<sup>[9]</sup>

### 17.2 History

The assessment of job satisfaction through employee anonymous surveys became commonplace in the

1930s.<sup>[10]</sup> Although prior to that time there was the beginning of interest in employee attitudes, there were only a handful of studies published.<sup>[11]</sup> Latham and Budworth<sup>[10]</sup> note that Uhrbrock<sup>[12]</sup> in 1934 was one of the first psychologists to use the newly developed attitude measurement techniques to assess factory worker attitudes. They also note that in 1935 Hoppock<sup>[13]</sup> conducted a study that focused explicitly on job satisfaction that is affected by both the nature of the job and relationships with coworkers and supervisors.

## 17.3 Models (methods)

### 17.3.1 Affect theory

Edwin A. Locke's Range of Affect Theory (1976) is arguably the most famous job satisfaction model. The main premise of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren't met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who doesn't value that facet. To illustrate, if Employee A values autonomy in the workplace and Employee B is indifferent about autonomy, then Employee A would be more satisfied in a position that offers a high degree of autonomy and less satisfied in a position with little or no autonomy compared to Employee B. This theory also states that too much of a particular facet will produce stronger feelings of dissatisfaction the more a worker values that facet.

### 17.3.2 Dispositional approach

The dispositional approach suggests that individuals vary in their tendency to be satisfied with their jobs, in other words, job satisfaction is to some extent an individual trait.<sup>[14]</sup> This approach became a notable explanation of job satisfaction in light of evidence that job satisfaction tends to be stable over time and across careers and jobs.<sup>[15]</sup> Research also indicates that identical twins raised apart have similar levels of job satisfaction.<sup>[16]</sup>

A significant model that narrowed the scope of the dispositional approach was the Core Self-evaluations Model, proposed by Timothy A. Judge, Edwin A. Locke, and Cathy C. Durham in 1997.<sup>[17]</sup> Judge et al. argued that there are four Core Self-evaluations that determine one's disposition towards job satisfaction: self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism. This model states that higher levels of self-esteem (the value one places on his/her self) and general self-efficacy (the

belief in one's own competence) lead to higher work satisfaction. Having an internal locus of control (believing one has control over her/his own life, as opposed to outside forces having control) leads to higher job satisfaction. Finally, lower levels of neuroticism lead to higher job satisfaction.<sup>[17]</sup>

### 17.3.3 Equity theory

Equity Theory shows how a person views fairness in regard to social relationships such as with an employer. A person identifies the amount of input (things gained) from a relationship compared to the output (things given) to produce an input/output ratio. They then compare this ratio to the ratio of other people in deciding whether or not they have an equitable relationship.<sup>[18][19]</sup> Equity Theory suggests that if an individual thinks there is an inequality between two social groups or individuals, the person is likely to be distressed because the ratio between the input and the output are not equal.<sup>[20]</sup>

For example, consider two employees who work the same job and receive the same pay and benefits. If one individual gets a pay raise for doing the same work than the other, then the less benefited individual will become distressed in his workplace. If, on the other hand, one individual gets a pay raise and new responsibilities, then the feeling of equity will be maintained.<sup>[20]</sup>

Other psychologists have extended the equity theory, suggesting three behavioral response patterns to situations of perceived equity or inequity (Huseman, Hatfield, & Mile, 1987; O'Neil & Mone 1998). These three types are benevolent, equity sensitive, and entitled. The level by each type affects motivation, job satisfaction, and job performance.

1. Benevolent-Satisfied when they are under-rewarded compared with co-workers
2. Equity sensitive-Believe everyone should be fairly rewarded
3. Entitled-People believe that everything they receive is their just due<sup>[21]</sup>

### 17.3.4 Discrepancy theory

The concept of discrepancy theory explains the ultimate source of anxiety and dejection.<sup>[22]</sup> An individual, who has not fulfilled his responsibility feels the sense of anxiety and regret for not performing well, they will also feel dejection due to not being able to achieve their hopes and aspirations. According to this theory, all individuals will learn what their obligations and responsibilities for a particular function, over a time period, and if they fail to fulfill those obligations then they are punished. Over time, these duties and obligations consolidate to form an abstracted set of principles, designated

as a self-guide.<sup>[23]</sup> Agitation and anxiety are the main responses when an individual fails to achieve the obligation or responsibility.<sup>[24]</sup> This theory also explains that if achievement of the obligations is obtained then the reward can be praise, approval, or love. These achievements and aspirations also form an abstracted set of principles, referred to as the ideal self guide.<sup>[23]</sup> When the individual fails to obtain these rewards, they begin to have feelings of dejection, disappointment, or even depression.<sup>[24]</sup>

Here's a thought, an individual does fulfill those obligations and responsibilities to the company; but the employer punishes the employee regardless of the fulfillment of duties. Agitation and anxiety is the main response toward an ungrateful employer who refuses to recognize improvement to companies bottom line because of employees endeavor.

### 17.3.5 Two-factor theory (motivator-hygiene theory)

Main article: [Two-factor theory](#)

Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory (also known as motivator-hygiene theory) attempts to explain satisfaction and motivation in the workplace.<sup>[25]</sup> This theory states that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are driven by different factors – motivation and hygiene factors, respectively. An employee's motivation to work is continually related to job satisfaction of a subordinate. Motivation can be seen as an inner force that drives individuals to attain personal and organizational goals (Hoskinson, Porter, & Wrench, p. 133). Motivating factors are those aspects of the job that make people want to perform, and provide people with satisfaction, for example achievement in work, recognition, promotion opportunities.<sup>[26]</sup> These motivating factors are considered to be intrinsic to the job, or the work carried out.<sup>[25]</sup> Hygiene factors include aspects of the working environment such as pay, company policies, supervisory practices, and other working conditions.<sup>[25]</sup>

While Herzberg's model has stimulated much research, researchers have been unable to reliably empirically prove the model, with Hackman & Oldham suggesting that Herzberg's original formulation of the model may have been a methodological artifact.<sup>[25]</sup> Furthermore, the theory does not consider individual differences, conversely predicting all employees will react in an identical manner to changes in motivating/hygiene factors.<sup>[25]</sup> Finally, the model has been criticised in that it does not specify how motivating/hygiene factors are to be measured.<sup>[25]</sup>

### 17.3.6 Job characteristics model

Main article: [Job characteristic theory](#)

Hackman & Oldham proposed the job characteristics model, which is widely used as a framework to study how particular job characteristics impact on job outcomes, including job satisfaction. The model states that there are five core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) which impact three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results), in turn influencing work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism, work motivation, and performance). The five core job characteristics can be combined to form a motivating potential score (MPS) for a job, which can be used as an index of how likely a job is to affect an employee's attitudes and behaviors. Not everyone is equally affected by the MPS of a job. People who are high in growth need strength (the desire for autonomy, challenge and development of new skills on the job) are particularly affected by job characteristics.<sup>[27]</sup> A meta-analysis of studies that assess the framework of the model provides some support for the validity of the JCM.<sup>[28]</sup>

## 17.4 Influencing factors

### 17.4.1 Environmental factors

#### Communication overload and underload

One of the most important aspects of an individual's work in a modern organization concerns the management of communication demands that he or she encounters on the job.<sup>[29]</sup> Demands can be characterized as a communication load, which refers to "the rate and complexity of communication inputs an individual must process in a particular time frame."<sup>[30]</sup> Individuals in an organization can experience communication over-load and communication under-load which can affect their level of job satisfaction. Communication overload can occur when "an individual receives too many messages in a short period of time which can result in unprocessed information or when an individual faces more complex messages that are more difficult to process."<sup>[30]</sup> Due to this process, "given an individual's style of work and motivation to complete a task, when more inputs exist than outputs, the individual perceives a condition of overload<sup>[29]</sup> which can be positively or negatively related to job satisfaction. In comparison, communication under load can occur when messages or inputs are sent below the individual's ability to process them."<sup>[30]</sup> According to the ideas of communication over-load and under-load, if an individual does not receive enough input on the job or is unsuccessful in processing these inputs, the individual is more likely to

become dissatisfied, aggravated, and unhappy with their work which leads to a low level of job satisfaction.

### Superior-subordinate communication

Main article: [Superior-subordinate communication](#)

Superior-subordinate communication is an important influence on job satisfaction in the workplace. The way in which subordinates perceive a supervisor's behavior can positively or negatively influence job satisfaction. Communication behavior such as facial expression, eye contact, vocal expression, and body movement is crucial to the superior-subordinate relationship (Teven, p. 156). Nonverbal messages play a central role in interpersonal interactions with respect to impression formation, deception, attraction, social influence, and emotional.<sup>[31]</sup> Nonverbal immediacy from the supervisor helps to increase interpersonal involvement with their subordinates impacting job satisfaction. The manner in which supervisors communicate with their subordinates non-verbally may be more important than the verbal content (Teven, p. 156). Individuals who dislike and think negatively about their supervisor are less willing to communicate or have motivation to work whereas individuals who like and think positively of their supervisor are more likely to communicate and are satisfied with their job and work environment. A supervisor who uses nonverbal immediacy, friendliness, and open communication lines is more likely to receive positive feedback and high job satisfaction from a subordinate. Conversely, a supervisor who is antisocial, unfriendly, and unwilling to communicate will naturally receive negative feedback and create low job satisfaction in their subordinates in the workplace.

### 17.4.2 Strategic employee recognition

A Watson Wyatt Worldwide study identified a positive outcome between a collegial and flexible work environment and an increase in shareholder value. Suggesting that employee satisfaction is directly related to financial gain. Over 40 percent of the companies listed in the top 100 of Fortune magazine's, "America's Best Companies to Work For" also appear on the Fortune 500. It is possible that successful workers enjoy working at successful companies, however, the Watson Wyatt Worldwide Human Capital Index study claims that effective human resources practices, such as employee recognition programs, lead to positive financial outcomes more often than positive financial outcomes lead to good practices.<sup>[32]</sup>

Employee recognition is not only about gifts and points. It's about changing the corporate culture in order to meet goals and initiatives and most importantly to connect employees to the company's core values and beliefs. Strategic employee recognition is seen as the most important

program not only to improve employee retention and motivation but also to positively influence the financial situation.<sup>[33]</sup> The difference between the traditional approach (gifts and points) and strategic recognition is the ability to serve as a serious business influencer that can advance a company's strategic objectives in a measurable way. "The vast majority of companies want to be innovative, coming up with new products, business models and better ways of doing things. However, innovation is not so easy to achieve. A CEO cannot just order it, and so it will be. You have to carefully manage an organization so that, over time, innovations will emerge."<sup>[34]</sup>

### 17.4.3 Individual factors

#### Emotion

**Mood and emotions** at work are related to job satisfaction. Moods tend to be longer lasting but often weaker states of uncertain origin, while emotions are often more intense, short-lived and have a clear object or cause.<sup>[35]</sup>

Some research suggests moods are related to overall job satisfaction.<sup>[36][37]</sup> Positive and negative emotions were also found to be significantly related to overall job satisfaction.<sup>[38]</sup>

Frequency of experiencing net positive emotion will be a better predictor of overall job satisfaction than will intensity of positive emotion when it is experienced.<sup>[38]</sup>

**Emotion work** (or emotion management) refers to various types of efforts to manage emotional states and displays. Emotion management includes all of the conscious and unconscious efforts to increase, maintain, or decrease one or more components of an emotion. Although early studies of the consequences of emotional work emphasized its harmful effects on workers, studies of workers in a variety of occupations suggest that the consequences of emotional work are not uniformly negative.<sup>[39]</sup>

It was found that suppression of unpleasant emotions decreases job satisfaction and the amplification of pleasant emotions increases job satisfaction.<sup>[40]</sup>

The understanding of how emotion regulation relates to job satisfaction concerns two models:

1. **Emotional dissonance.** Emotional dissonance is a state of discrepancy between public displays of emotions and internal experiences of emotions,<sup>[41][42]</sup> that often follows the process of emotion regulation. Emotional dissonance is associated with high emotional exhaustion, low organizational commitment, and low job satisfaction.<sup>[43][44]</sup>
2. **Social interaction model.** Taking the social interaction perspective, workers' emotion regulation might beget responses from others during interpersonal encounters that subsequently impact their own job satisfaction. For example: The accumulation of



favorable responses to displays of pleasant emotions might positively affect job satisfaction.<sup>[40]</sup>

### Genetics

It has been well documented that genetics influence a variety of individual differences.<sup>[45]</sup> Some research suggests genetics also play a role in the intrinsic, direct experiences of job satisfaction like challenge or achievement (as opposed to extrinsic, environmental factors like working conditions). One experiment used sets of monozygotic twins, reared apart, to test for the existence of genetic influence on job satisfaction. While the results indicate the majority of the variance in job satisfaction was due to environmental factors (70%), genetic influence is still a minor factor. Genetic heritability was also suggested for several of the job characteristics measured in the experiment, such as complexity level, motor skill requirements, and physical demands.<sup>[46]</sup>

### Personality

Some research suggests an association between personality and job satisfaction.<sup>[47]</sup> Specifically, this research describes the role of negative affectivity and positive affectivity. Negative affectivity is related strongly to the personality trait of neuroticism. Individuals high in negative affectivity are more prone to experience less job satisfaction. Positive affectivity is related strongly to the personality trait of extraversion. Those high in positive affectivity are more prone to be satisfied in most dimensions of their life, including their job. Differences in affectivity likely impact how individuals will perceive objective job circumstances like pay and working conditions, thus affecting their satisfaction in that job.<sup>[48]</sup>

There are two personality factors related to job satisfaction, *alienation* and *locus of control*. Employees who have an internal locus of control and feel less alienated are more likely to experience job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment. A meta-analysis of 187 studies of job satisfaction concluded that high satisfaction was positively associated with internal locus of control. The study also showed characteristics like high *machiavellianism*, *narcissism*, *trait anger*, *type A personality* dimensions of achievement striving and *impatience/irritability*, are also related to job satisfaction.<sup>[49]</sup>

#### 17.4.4 Psychological well-being

Psychological well-being (PWB) is defined as “the overall effectiveness of an individual’s psychological functioning” as related to primary facets of one’s life: work, family, community, etc.<sup>[50]</sup> There are three defining characteristics of PWB. First, it is a *phenomenological* event, meaning that people are happy when they subjectively believe themselves to be so. Second, well-being involves

some emotional conditions. Particularly, psychologically well people are more prone to experience positive emotions and less prone to experience negative emotions. Third, well-being refers to one’s life as a whole. It is a global evaluation.<sup>[50]</sup> PWB is primarily measured using the eight-item Index of Psychological Well-Being developed by Berkman (IPWB). IPWB asks respondents to reply to a series of questions on how often they felt “pleased about accomplishing something,” “bored,” “depressed or unhappy,” etc.<sup>[50]</sup>

PWB in the workplace plays an important role in determining job satisfaction and has attracted much research attention in recent years.<sup>[51]</sup> These studies have focused on the effects of PWB on job satisfaction as well as *job performance*.<sup>[52]</sup> One study noted that because job satisfaction is specific to one’s job, the research that examined job satisfaction had not taken into account aspects of one’s life external to the job.<sup>[53]</sup> Prior studies had focused only on the work environment as the main determinant of job satisfaction. Ultimately, to better understand job satisfaction (and its close relative, job performance), it is important to take into account an individual’s PWB. Research published in 2000 showed a significant correlation between PWB and job satisfaction ( $r = .35, p < .01$ ).<sup>[50]</sup> A follow-up study by the same authors in 2007 revealed similar results ( $r = .30, p < .01$ ).<sup>[53]</sup> In addition, these studies show that PWB is a better predictor of job performance than job satisfaction alone.

## 17.5 Measuring

The majority of job satisfaction measures are self-reports and based on multi-item scales. Several measures have been developed over the years, although they vary in terms of how carefully and distinctively they are conceptualized with respect to affective or cognitive job satisfaction. They also vary in terms of the extent and rigour of their psychometric validation.

The **Brief Index of Affective Job Satisfaction (BIAJS)** is a 4-item, overtly affective as opposed to cognitive, measure of overall affective job satisfaction. The BIAJS differs from other job satisfaction measures in being comprehensively validated not just for internal consistency reliability, temporal stability, convergent and criterion-related validities, but also for cross-population invariance by nationality, job level, and job type. Reported internal consistency reliabilities range between .81 and .87.<sup>[3]</sup>

The **Job Descriptive Index (JDI)**,<sup>[54]</sup> is a specifically cognitive job satisfaction measure. It measures one’s satisfaction in five facets: pay, promotions and promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself. The scale is simple, participants answer either yes, no, or can’t decide (indicated by “?”) in response to whether given statements accurately describe one’s job.

Other job satisfaction questionnaires include: the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and the Faces Scale.<sup>[1]</sup> The MSQ measures job satisfaction in 20 facets and has a long form with 100 questions (five items from each facet) and a short form with 20 questions (one item from each facet). The JSS is a 36 item questionnaire that measures nine facets of job satisfaction. Finally, the Faces Scale of job satisfaction, one of the first scales used widely, measured overall job satisfaction with just one item which participants respond to by choosing a face.

## 17.6 Relationships and practical implications

Job satisfaction can be indicative of work behaviors such as organizational citizenship,<sup>[55]</sup> and withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism,<sup>[56]</sup> and turnover.<sup>[57]</sup> Further, job satisfaction can partially mediate the relationship of personality variables and deviant work behaviors.<sup>[58]</sup>

One common research finding is that job satisfaction is correlated with life satisfaction.<sup>[59]</sup> This correlation is reciprocal, meaning people who are satisfied with life tend to be satisfied with their job and people who are satisfied with their job tend to be satisfied with life. However, some research has found that job satisfaction is not significantly related to life satisfaction when other variables such as nonwork satisfaction and core self-evaluations are taken into account.<sup>[60]</sup>

An important finding for organizations to note is that job satisfaction has a rather tenuous correlation to productivity on the job. This is a vital piece of information to researchers and businesses, as the idea that satisfaction and job performance are directly related to one another is often cited in the media and in some non-academic management literature. A recent meta-analysis found surprisingly low correlations between job satisfaction and performance.<sup>[61]</sup> Further, the meta-analysis found that the relationship between satisfaction and performance can be moderated by job complexity, such that for high-complexity jobs the correlation between satisfaction and performance is higher than for jobs of low to moderate complexity. Additionally, one longitudinal study indicated that among work attitudes, job satisfaction is a strong predictor of absenteeism, suggesting that increasing job satisfaction and organizational commitment are potentially good strategies for reducing absenteeism and turnover intentions.<sup>[62]</sup> Recent research has also shown that intention to quit alone can have negative effects on performance, organizational deviance, and organizational citizenship behaviours.<sup>[63]</sup> In short, the relationship of satisfaction to productivity is not as straightforward as often assumed and can be influenced by a number of different work-related constructs, and the notion that “a happy worker is a productive worker” should not be the founda-

tion of organizational decision-making. For example, employee personality may even be more important than job satisfaction in regards to performance.<sup>[64]</sup>

## 17.7 Absenteeism

Main article: [Absenteeism](#)

Numerous studies have been done to show the correla-



### Absenteeism

tion of job satisfaction and absenteeism.<sup>[65]</sup> For example, Goldberg and Waldman looked at absenteeism in two dimensions as total time lost (number of missed days) and the frequency of time lost. Self-reported data and records-based data were collected and compared. Following absenteeism measures were evaluated according to absenteeism predictors.

1. Self-report time lost
2. self-reported frequency
3. records-based time lost

Only three categories of predictors had a significant relationship ratio and were taken in account further:

- Health
- Wages
- Position level

This research results revealed that absenteeism cannot be predicted by job satisfaction, although other studies have found significant relationships.

## 17.8 See also

- Industrial and organizational psychology
- Person-environment fit
- Personality-Job Fit Theory
- Organizational Justice
- Onboarding
- Quality of working life
- Stigma management

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# Chapter 18

## Leadership

“Leader” redirects here. For other uses, see Leader (disambiguation).

**Leadership** has been described as “a process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task”.<sup>[1]</sup> For example, some understand a **leader** simply as somebody whom people follow, or as somebody who guides or directs others, while others define leadership as “organizing a group of people to achieve a common goal”.

Studies of leadership have produced theories involving traits,<sup>[2]</sup> situational interaction, function, behavior, power, vision and values,<sup>[3]</sup> charisma, and intelligence, among others.

### 18.1 Theories

#### 18.1.1 Early western history

The search for the characteristics or traits of leaders has continued for centuries. Philosophical writings from Plato’s *Republic*<sup>[4]</sup> to Plutarch’s *Lives* have explored the question “What qualities distinguish an individual as a leader?” Underlying this search was the early recognition of the importance of leadership and the assumption that leadership is rooted in the characteristics that certain individuals possess. This idea that leadership is based on individual attributes is known as the “trait theory of leadership”.

A number of works in the 19th century - when the traditional authority of monarchs, lords and bishops had begun to wane - explored the trait theory at length: note especially the writings of Thomas Carlyle and of Francis Galton, whose works have prompted decades of research. In *Heroes and Hero Worship* (1841), Carlyle identified the talents, skills, and physical characteristics of men who rose to power. Galton’s *Hereditary Genius* (1869) examined leadership qualities in the families of powerful men. After showing that the numbers of eminent relatives dropped off when his focus moved from first-degree to second-degree relatives, Galton concluded that leadership was inherited. In other words, leaders were born, not

developed. Both of these notable works lent great initial support for the notion that leadership is rooted in characteristics of a leader.

Cecil Rhodes (1853-1902) believed that public-spirited leadership could be nurtured by identifying young people with “moral force of character and instincts to lead”, and educating them in contexts (such as the collegiate environment of the University of Oxford which further developed such characteristics. International networks of such leaders could help to promote international understanding and help “render war impossible”. This vision of leadership underlay the creation of the Rhodes Scholarships, which have helped to shape notions of leadership since their creation in 1903.<sup>[5]</sup>

#### 18.1.2 Rise of alternative theories

In the late 1940s and early 1950s, however, a series of qualitative reviews of these studies (e.g., Bird, 1940;<sup>[6]</sup> Stogdill, 1948;<sup>[7]</sup> Mann, 1959<sup>[8]</sup>) prompted researchers to take a drastically different view of the driving forces behind leadership. In reviewing the extant literature, Stogdill and Mann found that while some traits were common across a number of studies, the overall evidence suggested that persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations. Subsequently, leadership was no longer characterized as an enduring individual trait, as situational approaches (see alternative leadership theories below) posited that individuals can be effective in certain situations, but not others. The focus then shifted away from traits of leaders to an investigation of the leader behaviors that were effective. This approach dominated much of the leadership theory and research for the next few decades.

#### 18.1.3 Reemergence of trait theory

New methods and measurements were developed after these influential reviews that would ultimately reestablish the trait theory as a viable approach to the study of leadership. For example, improvements in researchers’ use of the round robin research design methodology allowed researchers to see that individuals can and do emerge as

leaders across a variety of situations and tasks.<sup>[9]</sup> Additionally, during the 1980s statistical advances allowed researchers to conduct *meta-analyses*, in which they could quantitatively analyze and summarize the findings from a wide array of studies. This advent allowed trait theorists to create a comprehensive picture of previous leadership research rather than rely on the qualitative reviews of the past. Equipped with new methods, leadership researchers revealed the following:

- Individuals can and do emerge as leaders across a variety of situations and tasks.<sup>[9]</sup>
- Significant relationships exist between leadership emergence and such individual traits as:
  - Intelligence<sup>[10]</sup>
  - Adjustment<sup>[10]</sup>
  - Extraversion<sup>[10]</sup>
  - Conscientiousness<sup>[11][12][13]</sup>
  - Openness to experience<sup>[12][14]</sup>
  - General self-efficacy<sup>[15][16]</sup>

While the trait theory of leadership has certainly regained popularity, its reemergence has not been accompanied by a corresponding increase in sophisticated conceptual frameworks.<sup>[17]</sup>

Specifically, Zaccaro (2007)<sup>[17]</sup> noted that trait theories still:

- Focus on a small set of individual attributes such as Big Five personality traits, to the neglect of cognitive abilities, motives, values, social skills, expertise, and problem-solving skills.
- Fail to consider patterns or integrations of multiple attributes.
- Do not distinguish between those leader attributes that are generally not malleable over time and those that are shaped by, and bound to, situational influences.
- Do not consider how stable leader attributes account for the behavioral diversity necessary for effective leadership.

### 18.1.4 Attribute pattern approach

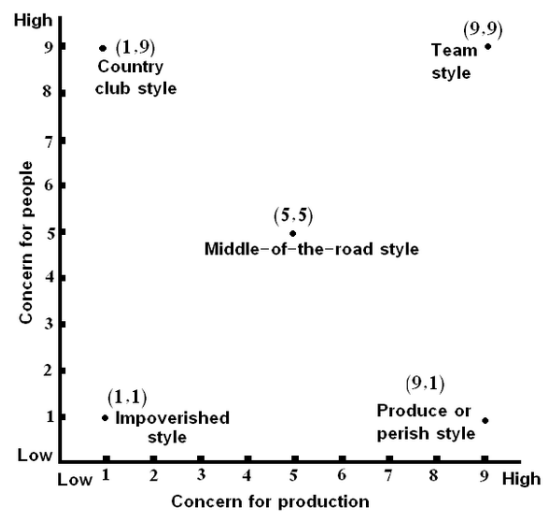
Considering the criticisms of the trait theory outlined above, several researchers have begun to adopt a different perspective of leader individual differences—the leader attribute pattern approach.<sup>[16][18][19][20][21]</sup> In contrast to the traditional approach, the leader attribute pattern approach is based on theorists' arguments that the influence

of individual characteristics on outcomes is best understood by considering the person as an integrated totality rather than a summation of individual variables.<sup>[20][22]</sup> In other words, the leader attribute pattern approach argues that integrated constellations or combinations of individual differences may explain substantial variance in both leader emergence and leader effectiveness beyond that explained by single attributes, or by additive combinations of multiple attributes.

### 18.1.5 Behavioral and style theories

Main article: *Managerial grid model*

In response to the early criticisms of the trait approach, theorists began to research leadership as a set of behaviors, evaluating the behavior of successful leaders, determining a behavior taxonomy, and identifying broad leadership styles.<sup>[23]</sup> David McClelland, for example, posited that leadership takes a strong personality with a well-developed positive ego. To lead, self-confidence and high self-esteem are useful, perhaps even essential.<sup>[24]</sup>



*A graphical representation of the managerial grid model*

Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lipitt, and Ralph White developed in 1939 the seminal work on the influence of leadership styles and performance. The researchers evaluated the performance of groups of eleven-year-old boys under different types of work climate. In each, the leader exercised his influence regarding the type of group decision making, praise and criticism (feedback), and the management of the group tasks (project management) according to three styles: authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire.<sup>[25]</sup>

The managerial grid model is also based on a behavioral theory. The model was developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1964 and suggests five different leadership styles, based on the leaders' concern for people and

their concern for goal achievement.<sup>[26]</sup>

### Positive reinforcement

B.F. Skinner is the father of behavior modification and developed the concept of positive reinforcement. Positive reinforcement occurs when a positive stimulus is presented in response to a behavior, increasing the likelihood of that behavior in the future.<sup>[27]</sup> The following is an example of how positive reinforcement can be used in a business setting. Assume praise is a positive reinforcer for a particular employee. This employee does not show up to work on time every day. The manager of this employee decides to praise the employee for showing up on time every day the employee actually shows up to work on time. As a result, the employee comes to work on time more often because the employee likes to be praised. In this example, praise (the stimulus) is a positive reinforcer for this employee because the employee arrives at work on time (the behavior) more frequently after being praised for showing up to work on time.

The use of positive reinforcement is a successful and growing technique used by leaders to motivate and attain desired behaviors from subordinates. Organizations such as Frito-Lay, 3M, Goodrich, Michigan Bell, and Emery Air Freight have all used reinforcement to increase productivity.<sup>[28]</sup> Empirical research covering the last 20 years suggests that reinforcement theory has a 17 percent increase in performance. Additionally, many reinforcement techniques such as the use of praise are inexpensive, providing higher performance for lower costs.

### 18.1.6 Situational and contingency theories

Main articles: Fiedler contingency model, Vroom–Yetton decision model, path–goal theory and situational leadership theory

Situational theory also appeared as a reaction to the trait theory of leadership. Social scientists argued that history was more than the result of intervention of great men as Carlyle suggested. Herbert Spencer (1884) (and Karl Marx) said that the times produce the person and not the other way around.<sup>[29]</sup> This theory assumes that different situations call for different characteristics; according to this group of theories, no single optimal psychographic profile of a leader exists. According to the theory, “what an individual actually does when acting as a leader is in large part dependent upon characteristics of the situation in which he functions.”<sup>[30]</sup>

Some theorists started to synthesize the trait and situational approaches. Building upon the research of Lewin et al., academics began to normalize the descriptive models of leadership climates, defining three leadership styles

and identifying which situations each style works better in. The authoritarian leadership style, for example, is approved in periods of crisis but fails to win the “hearts and minds” of followers in day-to-day management; the democratic leadership style is more adequate in situations that require consensus building; finally, the laissez-faire leadership style is appreciated for the degree of freedom it provides, but as the leaders do not “take charge”, they can be perceived as a failure in protracted or thorny organizational problems.<sup>[31]</sup> Thus, theorists defined the style of leadership as contingent to the situation, which is sometimes classified as contingency theory. Four contingency leadership theories appear more prominently in recent years: Fiedler contingency model, Vroom–Yetton decision model, the path-goal theory, and the Hersey–Blanchard situational theory.

The Fiedler contingency model bases the leader’s effectiveness on what Fred Fiedler called *situational contingency*. This results from the interaction of leadership style and situational favorability (later called *situational control*). The theory defined two types of leader: those who tend to accomplish the task by developing good relationships with the group (relationship-oriented), and those who have as their prime concern carrying out the task itself (task-oriented).<sup>[32]</sup> According to Fiedler, there is no ideal leader. Both task-oriented and relationship-oriented leaders can be effective if their leadership orientation fits the situation. When there is a good leader-member relation, a highly structured task, and high leader position power, the situation is considered a “favorable situation”. Fiedler found that task-oriented leaders are more effective in extremely favorable or unfavorable situations, whereas relationship-oriented leaders perform best in situations with intermediate favorability.

Victor Vroom, in collaboration with Phillip Yetton (1973)<sup>[33]</sup> and later with Arthur Jago (1988),<sup>[34]</sup> developed a taxonomy for describing leadership situations, which was used in a normative decision model where leadership styles were connected to situational variables, defining which approach was more suitable to which situation.<sup>[35]</sup> This approach was novel because it supported the idea that the same manager could rely on different group decision making approaches depending on the attributes of each situation. This model was later referred to as situational contingency theory.<sup>[36]</sup>

The path-goal theory of leadership was developed by Robert House (1971) and was based on the expectancy theory of Victor Vroom.<sup>[37]</sup> According to House, the essence of the theory is “the meta proposition that leaders, to be effective, engage in behaviors that complement subordinates’ environments and abilities in a manner that compensates for deficiencies and is instrumental to subordinate satisfaction and individual and work unit performance”.<sup>[38]</sup> The theory identifies four leader behaviors, *achievement-oriented*, *directive*, *participative*, and *supportive*, that are contingent to the environment factors and follower characteristics. In contrast to the Fiedler



**contingency model**, the path-goal model states that the four leadership behaviors are fluid, and that leaders can adopt any of the four depending on what the situation demands. The path-goal model can be classified both as a **contingency theory**, as it depends on the circumstances, and as a **transactional leadership theory**, as the theory emphasizes the reciprocity behavior between the leader and the followers.

The **situational leadership model** proposed by Hersey and Blanchard suggests four leadership-styles and four levels of follower-development. For effectiveness, the model posits that the leadership-style must match the appropriate level of follower-development. In this model, leadership behavior becomes a function not only of the characteristics of the leader, but of the characteristics of followers as well.<sup>[39]</sup>

### 18.1.7 Functional theory

Main article: **Functional leadership model**

Functional leadership theory (Hackman & Walton, 1986;



*General Petraeus talks with U.S. soldiers serving in Afghanistan*

McGrath, 1962; Adair, 1988; Kouzes & Posner, 1995) is a particularly useful theory for addressing specific leader behaviors expected to contribute to organizational or unit effectiveness. This theory argues that the leader's main job is to see that whatever is necessary to group needs is taken care of; thus, a leader can be said to have done their job well when they have contributed to group effectiveness and cohesion (Fleishman et al., 1991; Hackman & Wageman, 2005; Hackman & Walton, 1986). While functional leadership theory has most often been applied to team leadership (Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001), it has also been effectively applied to broader organizational leadership as well (Zaccaro, 2001). In summarizing literature on functional leadership (see Kozlowski et al. (1996), Zaccaro et al. (2001), Hackman and Walton (1986), Hackman & Wageman (2005), Morgeson (2005)), Klein, Zeigert, Knight, and Xiao (2006) observed five broad functions a leader performs when promoting organization's effectiveness. These functions include environmental monitoring, organizing subordinate

activities, teaching and coaching subordinates, motivating others, and intervening actively in the group's work.

A variety of leadership behaviors are expected to facilitate these functions. In initial work identifying leader behavior, Fleishman (1953) observed that subordinates perceived their supervisors' behavior in terms of two broad categories referred to as **consideration and initiating structure**. Consideration includes behavior involved in fostering effective relationships. Examples of such behavior would include showing concern for a subordinate or acting in a supportive manner towards others. Initiating structure involves the actions of the leader focused specifically on task accomplishment. This could include role clarification, setting performance standards, and holding subordinates accountable to those standards.

### 18.1.8 Integrated psychological theory

Main article: **Three Levels of Leadership model**

The Integrated Psychological theory of leadership is an attempt to integrate the strengths of the older theories (i.e. traits, behavioral/styles, situational and functional) while addressing their limitations, largely by introducing a new element – the need for leaders to develop their leadership presence, attitude toward others and behavioral flexibility by practicing psychological mastery. It also offers a foundation for leaders wanting to apply the philosophies of **servant leadership** and **authentic leadership**.<sup>[40]</sup>

Integrated Psychological theory began to attract attention after the publication of James Scouller's **Three Levels of Leadership model** (2011).<sup>[41]</sup> Scouller argued that the older theories offer only limited assistance in developing a person's ability to lead effectively.<sup>[42]</sup> He pointed out, for example, that:

- Traits theories, which tend to reinforce the idea that leaders are born not made, might help us select leaders, but they are less useful for developing leaders.
- An ideal style (e.g. Blake & Mouton's team style) would not suit all circumstances.
- Most of the situational/contingency and functional theories assume that leaders can change their behavior to meet differing circumstances or widen their behavioral range at will, when in practice many find it hard to do so because of unconscious beliefs, fears or ingrained habits. Thus, he argued, leaders need to work on their inner psychology.
- None of the old theories successfully address the challenge of developing "leadership presence"; that certain "something" in leaders that commands attention, inspires people, wins their trust and makes followers want to work with them.

Scouller therefore proposed the Three Levels of Leadership model, which was later categorized as an “Integrated Psychological” theory on the Businessballs education website.<sup>[43]</sup> In essence, his model aims to summarize what leaders have to do, not only to bring leadership to their group or organization, but also to develop themselves technically and psychologically as leaders.

The three levels in his model are Public, Private and Personal leadership:

- The first two – public and private leadership – are “outer” or behavioral levels. These are the behaviors that address what Scouller called “the four dimensions of leadership”. These dimensions are: (1) a shared, motivating group purpose; (2) action, progress and results; (3) collective unity or team spirit; (4) individual selection and motivation. **Public leadership** focuses on the 34 behaviors involved in influencing two or more people simultaneously. **Private leadership** covers the 14 behaviors needed to influence individuals one to one.
- The third – **personal leadership** – is an “inner” level and concerns a person’s growth toward greater leadership presence, knowhow and skill. Working on one’s personal leadership has three aspects: (1) Technical knowhow and skill (2) Developing the right attitude toward other people – which is the basis of servant leadership (3) Psychological self-mastery – the foundation for authentic leadership.

Scouller argued that self-mastery is the key to growing one’s leadership presence, building trusting relationships with followers and dissolving one’s limiting beliefs and habits, thereby enabling behavioral flexibility as circumstances change, while staying connected to one’s core values (that is, while remaining authentic). To support leaders’ development, he introduced a new model of the human psyche and outlined the principles and techniques of self-mastery, which include the practice of **mindfulness meditation**.<sup>[44]</sup>

### 18.1.9 Transactional and transformational theories

Main articles: **Transactional leadership** and **Transformational leadership**

Bernard Bass and colleagues developed the idea of two different types of leadership, transactional that involves exchange of labor for rewards and transformational which is based on concern for employees, intellectual stimulation, and providing a group vision.<sup>[45][46]</sup>

The transactional leader (Burns, 1978)<sup>[47]</sup> is given power to perform certain tasks and reward or punish for the team’s performance. It gives the opportunity to the manager to lead the group and the group agrees to follow his

lead to accomplish a predetermined goal in exchange for something else. Power is given to the leader to evaluate, correct, and train subordinates when productivity is not up to the desired level, and reward effectiveness when expected outcome is reached.

### 18.1.10 Leader–member exchange theory

Main article: **Leader–member exchange theory**

Another theory that addresses a specific aspect of the leadership process is the leader–member exchange (LMX) theory,<sup>[48]</sup> which evolved from an earlier theory called the vertical dyad linkage (VDL) model.<sup>[49]</sup> Both of these models focus on the interaction between leaders and individual followers. Similar to the transactional approach, this interaction is viewed as a fair exchange whereby the leader provides certain benefits such as task guidance, advice, support, and/or significant rewards and the followers reciprocate by giving the leader respect, cooperation, commitment to the task and good performance. However, LMX recognizes that leaders and individual followers will vary in the type of exchange that develops between them.<sup>[50]</sup> LMX theorizes that the type of exchanges between the leader and specific followers can lead to the creation of *in-groups* and *out-groups*. In-group members are said to have *high-quality exchanges* with the leader, while out-group members have *low-quality exchanges* with the leader.<sup>[51]</sup>

#### In-group members

**In-group** members are perceived by the leader as being more experienced, competent, and willing to assume responsibility than other followers. The leader begins to rely on these individuals to help with especially challenging tasks. If the follower responds well, the leader rewards him/her with extra coaching, favorable job assignments, and developmental experiences. If the follower shows high commitment and effort followed by additional rewards, both parties develop mutual trust, influence, and support of one another. Research shows the in-group members usually receive higher performance evaluations from the leader, higher satisfaction, and faster promotions than out-group members.<sup>[50]</sup> In-group members are also likely to build stronger bonds with their leaders by sharing the same social backgrounds and interests.

#### Out-group members

**Out-group** members often receive less time and more distant exchanges than their in-group counterparts. With out-group members, leaders expect no more than adequate job performance, good attendance, reasonable respect, and adherence to the job description in exchange for a fair wage and standard benefits. The leader spends

less time with out-group members, they have fewer developmental experiences, and the leader tends to emphasize his/her formal authority to obtain compliance to leader requests. Research shows that out-group members are less satisfied with their job and organization, receive lower performance evaluations from the leader, see their leader as less fair, and are more likely to file grievances or leave the organization.<sup>[50]</sup>

### 18.1.11 Emotions

Leadership can be perceived as a particularly emotion-laden process, with emotions entwined with the social influence process.<sup>[52]</sup> In an organization, the leader's mood has some effects on his/her group. These effects can be described in three levels:<sup>[53]</sup>

1. The mood of individual group members. Group members with leaders in a positive mood experience more positive mood than do group members with leaders in a negative mood. The leaders transmit their moods to other group members through the mechanism of emotional contagion.<sup>[53]</sup> Mood contagion may be one of the psychological mechanisms by which charismatic leaders influence followers.<sup>[54]</sup>
2. The affective tone of the group. Group affective tone represents the consistent or homogeneous affective reactions within a group. Group affective tone is an aggregate of the moods of the individual members of the group and refers to mood at the group level of analysis. Groups with leaders in a positive mood have a more positive affective tone than do groups with leaders in a negative mood.<sup>[53]</sup>
3. Group processes like coordination, effort expenditure, and task strategy. Public expressions of mood impact how group members think and act. When people experience and express mood, they send signals to others. Leaders signal their goals, intentions, and attitudes through their expressions of moods. For example, expressions of positive moods by leaders signal that leaders deem progress toward goals to be good. The group members respond to those signals cognitively and behaviorally in ways that are reflected in the group processes.<sup>[53]</sup>

In research about client service, it was found that expressions of positive mood by the leader improve the performance of the group, although in other sectors there were other findings.<sup>[55]</sup>

Beyond the leader's mood, her/his behavior is a source for employee positive and negative emotions at work. The leader creates situations and events that lead to emotional response. Certain leader behaviors displayed during interactions with their employees are the sources of these affective events. Leaders shape workplace affective events. Examples – feedback giving, allocating tasks,

resource distribution. Since employee behavior and productivity are directly affected by their emotional states, it is imperative to consider employee emotional responses to organizational leaders.<sup>[56]</sup> Emotional intelligence, the ability to understand and manage moods and emotions in the self and others, contributes to effective leadership within organizations.<sup>[55]</sup>

### 18.1.12 Neo-emergent theory

Main article: [Functional leadership model](#)

The neo-emergent leadership theory (from the Oxford school of leadership) sees leadership as created through the emergence of information by the leader or other stakeholders, not through the true actions of the leader himself. In other words, the reproduction of information or stories form the basis of the perception of leadership by the majority. It is well known that the naval hero Lord Nelson often wrote his own versions of battles he was involved in, so that when he arrived home in England he would receive a true hero's welcome. In modern society, the press, blogs and other sources report their own views of leaders, which may be based on reality, but may also be based on a political command, a payment, or an inherent interest of the author, media, or leader. Therefore, one can argue that the perception of all leaders is created and in fact does not reflect their true leadership qualities at all.

## 18.2 Styles

Main article: [Leadership styles](#)

A leadership style is a leader's style of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. It is the result of the philosophy, personality, and experience of the leader. Rhetoric specialists have also developed models for understanding leadership (Robert Hariman, *Political Style*,<sup>[57]</sup> Philippe-Joseph Salazar, *L'Hyperpolitique. Technologies politiques De La Domination*<sup>[58]</sup>).

Different situations call for different leadership styles. In an emergency when there is little time to converge on an agreement and where a designated authority has significantly more experience or expertise than the rest of the team, an autocratic leadership style may be most effective; however, in a highly motivated and aligned team with a homogeneous level of expertise, a more democratic or laissez-faire style may be more effective. The style adopted should be the one that most effectively achieves the objectives of the group while balancing the interests of its individual members.<sup>[59]</sup>

### 18.2.1 Autocratic or authoritarian

Under the autocratic leadership style, all decision-making powers are centralized in the leader, as with dictators.

Leaders do not entertain any suggestions or initiatives from subordinates. The autocratic management has been successful as it provides strong motivation to the manager. It permits quick decision-making, as only one person decides for the whole group and keeps each decision to him/herself until he/she feels it needs to be shared with the rest of the group.<sup>[59]</sup>

### 18.2.2 Participative or democratic

The democratic leadership style consists of the leader sharing the decision-making abilities with group members by promoting the interests of the group members and by practicing social equality. This has also been called shared leadership.

### 18.2.3 Laissez-faire or free-rein

A person may be in a leadership position without providing leadership, leaving the group to fend for itself. Subordinates are given a free hand in deciding their own policies and methods. The subordinates are motivated to be creative and innovative.

### 18.2.4 Narcissistic

Main article: [Narcissistic leadership](#)

Narcissistic leadership is a leadership style in which the leader is only interested in him/herself. Their priority is themselves - at the expense of their people/group members. This leader exhibits the characteristics of a narcissist: arrogance, dominance and hostility. It is a common leadership style. The narcissism may range from anywhere between healthy and destructive. To critics, narcissistic leadership (preferably destructive) is driven by unyielding arrogance, self-absorption, and a personal egotistic need for power and admiration.<sup>[60]</sup>

### 18.2.5 Toxic

Main article: [Toxic leader](#)

A toxic leader is someone who has responsibility over a group of people or an organization, and who abuses the leader-follower relationship by leaving the group or organization in a worse-off condition than when he/she joined it.

### 18.2.6 Task-oriented and relationship-oriented

Main article: [Task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership](#)

Task-oriented leadership is a style in which the leader is focused on the tasks that need to be performed in order to meet a certain production goal. Task-oriented leaders are generally more concerned with producing a step-by-step solution for given problem or goal, strictly making sure these deadlines are met, results and reaching target outcomes.<sup>[61]</sup>

Relationship-oriented leadership is a contrasting style in which the leader is more focused on the relationships amongst the group and is generally more concerned with the overall well-being and satisfaction of group members.<sup>[62]</sup> Relationship-oriented leaders emphasize communication within the group, shows trust and confidence in group members, and shows appreciation for work done.

Task-oriented leaders are typically less concerned with the idea of catering to group members, and more concerned with acquiring a certain solution to meet a production goal. For this reason, they typically are able to make sure that deadlines are met, yet their group members' well-being may suffer.<sup>[61]</sup> Relationship-oriented leaders are focused on developing the team and the relationships in it. The positives to having this kind of environment are that team members are more motivated and have support, however, the emphasis on relations as opposed to getting a job done might make productivity suffer.<sup>[61]</sup>

### 18.2.7 Sex differences

Another factor that covaries with leadership style is whether the person is male or female. When men and women come together in groups, they tend to adopt different leadership styles. Men generally assume an [agentic leadership](#) style. They are task-oriented, active, decision focused, independent and goal oriented. Women, on the other hand, are generally more communal when they assume a leadership position; they strive to be helpful towards others, warm in relation to others, understanding, and mindful of others' feelings. In general, when women are asked to describe themselves to others in newly formed groups, they emphasize their open, fair, responsible, and pleasant communal qualities. They give advice, offer assurances, and manage conflicts in an attempt to maintain positive relationships among group members. Women connect more positively to group members by smiling, maintaining eye contact and respond tactfully to others' comments. Men, conversely, describe themselves as influential, powerful and proficient at the task that needs to be done. They tend to place more focus on initiating structure within the group, setting stan-

dards and objectives, identifying roles, defining responsibilities and standard operating procedures, proposing solutions to problems, monitoring compliance with procedures, and finally, emphasizing the need for productivity and efficiency in the work that needs to be done. As leaders, men are primarily task-oriented, but women tend to be both task- and relationship-oriented. However, it is important to note that these sex differences are only tendencies, and do not manifest themselves within men and women across all groups and situations.<sup>[63]</sup>

### 18.3 Performance

In the past, some researchers have argued that the actual influence of leaders on organizational outcomes is overrated and romanticized as a result of biased attributions about leaders (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). Despite these assertions, however, it is largely recognized and accepted by practitioners and researchers that leadership is important, and research supports the notion that leaders do contribute to key organizational outcomes (Day & Lord, 1988; Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008). To facilitate successful performance it is important to understand and accurately measure leadership performance.

Job performance generally refers to behavior that is expected to contribute to organizational success (Campbell, 1990). Campbell identified a number of specific types of performance dimensions; leadership was one of the dimensions that he identified. There is no consistent, overall definition of leadership performance (Yukl, 2006). Many distinct conceptualizations are often lumped together under the umbrella of leadership performance, including outcomes such as leader effectiveness, leader advancement, and leader emergence (Kaiser et al., 2008). For instance, leadership performance may be used to refer to the career success of the individual leader, performance of the group or organization, or even leader emergence. Each of these measures can be considered conceptually distinct. While these aspects may be related, they are different outcomes and their inclusion should depend on the applied or research focus.

### 18.4 Traits

Most theories in the 20th century argued that great leaders were born, not made. Current studies have indicated that leadership is much more complex and cannot be boiled down to a few key traits of an individual. Years of observation and study have indicated that one such trait or a set of traits does not make an extraordinary leader. What scholars have been able to arrive at is that leadership traits of an individual do not change from situation to situation; such traits include intelligence, assertiveness, or physical attractiveness.<sup>[64]</sup> However, each key trait may be applied to situations differently, depending on the cir-



*Julius Caesar, one of the world's greatest military leaders*

cumstances. The following summarizes the main leadership traits found in research by Jon P. Howell, business professor at New Mexico State University and author of the book *Snapshots of Great Leadership*.

Determination and drive include traits such as initiative, energy, assertiveness, perseverance, masculinity, and sometimes dominance. People with these traits often tend to wholeheartedly pursue their goals, work long hours, are ambitious, and often are very competitive with others. Cognitive capacity includes intelligence, analytical and verbal ability, behavioral flexibility, and good judgment. Individuals with these traits are able to formulate solutions to difficult problems, work well under stress or deadlines, adapt to changing situations, and create well-thought-out plans for the future. Howell provides examples of Steve Jobs and Abraham Lincoln as encompassing the traits of determination and drive as well as possessing cognitive capacity, demonstrated by their ability to adapt to their continuously changing environments.<sup>[64]</sup>

Self-confidence encompasses the traits of high self-esteem, assertiveness, emotional stability, and self-assurance. Individuals that are self-confident do not doubt themselves or their abilities and decisions; they also have the ability to project this self-confidence onto others, building their trust and commitment. Integrity is demonstrated in individuals who are truthful, trustworthy, principled, consistent, dependable, loyal, and not deceptive. Leaders with integrity often share these values with their followers, as this trait is mainly an ethics issue. It is often

said that these leaders keep their word and are honest and open with their cohorts. Sociability describes individuals who are friendly, extroverted, tactful, flexible, and interpersonally competent. Such a trait enables leaders to be accepted well by the public, use diplomatic measures to solve issues, as well as hold the ability to adapt their social persona to the situation at hand. According to Howell, Mother Teresa is an exceptional example that embodies integrity, assertiveness, and social abilities in her diplomatic dealings with the leaders of the world.<sup>[64]</sup>

Few great leaders encompass all of the traits listed above, but many have the ability to apply a number of them to succeed as front-runners of their organization or situation.

## 18.5 The ontological-phenomenological model for leadership

One of the more recent definitions of leadership comes from Werner Erhard, Michael C. Jensen, Steve Zaffron, and Kari Granger who describe leadership as “an exercise in language that results in the realization of a future that wasn’t going to happen anyway, which future fulfills (or contributes to fulfilling) the concerns of the relevant parties...”. This definition ensures that leadership is talking about the future and includes the fundamental concerns of the relevant parties. This differs from relating to the relevant parties as “followers” and calling up an image of a single leader with others following. Rather, a future that fulfills on the fundamental concerns of the relevant parties indicates the future that wasn’t going to happen is not the “idea of the leader”, but rather is what emerges from digging deep to find the underlying concerns of those who are impacted by the leadership.<sup>[65]</sup>

## 18.6 Contexts

### 18.6.1 Organizations

An organization that is established as an instrument or means for achieving defined objectives has been referred to as a *formal organization*. Its design specifies how goals are subdivided and reflected in subdivisions of the organization. Divisions, departments, sections, positions, jobs, and tasks make up this work structure. Thus, the formal organization is expected to behave impersonally in regard to relationships with clients or with its members. According to Weber’s definition, entry and subsequent advancement is by merit or seniority. Employees receive a salary and enjoy a degree of tenure that safeguards them from the arbitrary influence of superiors or of powerful clients. The higher one’s position in the hierarchy, the greater one’s presumed expertise in adjudicating problems that may arise in the course of the work carried out at lower

levels of the organization. It is this bureaucratic structure that forms the basis for the appointment of heads or chiefs of administrative subdivisions in the organization and endows them with the authority attached to their position.<sup>[66]</sup>

In contrast to the appointed head or chief of an administrative unit, a leader emerges within the context of the *informal organization* that underlies the formal structure. The informal organization expresses the personal objectives and goals of the individual membership. Their objectives and goals may or may not coincide with those of the formal organization. The informal organization represents an extension of the social structures that generally characterize human life — the spontaneous emergence of groups and organizations as ends in themselves.

In prehistoric times, humanity was preoccupied with personal security, maintenance, protection, and survival. Now humanity spends a major portion of waking hours working for organizations. The need to identify with a community that provides security, protection, maintenance, and a feeling of belonging has continued unchanged from prehistoric times. This need is met by the informal organization and its emergent, or unofficial, leaders.<sup>[67][68]</sup>

Leaders emerge from within the structure of the informal organization. Their personal qualities, the demands of the situation, or a combination of these and other factors attract followers who accept their leadership within one or several overlay structures. Instead of the authority of position held by an appointed head or chief, the emergent leader wields influence or power. Influence is the ability of a person to gain co-operation from others by means of persuasion or control over rewards. Power is a stronger form of influence because it reflects a person’s ability to enforce action through the control of a means of punishment.<sup>[67]</sup>

A leader is a person who influences a group of people towards a specific result. It is not dependent on title or formal authority. (Elevos, paraphrased from Leaders, Ben-nis, and Leadership Presence, Halpern & Lubar.) Ogbonnia (2007) defines an effective leader “as an individual with the capacity to consistently succeed in a given condition and be viewed as meeting the expectations of an organization or society.” Leaders are recognized by their capacity for caring for others, clear communication, and a commitment to persist.<sup>[69]</sup> An individual who is appointed to a managerial position has the right to command and enforce obedience by virtue of the authority of their position. However, she or he must possess adequate personal attributes to match this authority, because authority is only potentially available to him/her. In the absence of sufficient personal competence, a manager may be confronted by an emergent leader who can challenge her/his role in the organization and reduce it to that of a figure-head. However, only authority of position has the backing of formal sanctions. It follows that whoever wields

personal influence and power can legitimize this only by gaining a formal position in the hierarchy, with commensurate authority.<sup>[67]</sup> Leadership can be defined as one's ability to get others to willingly follow. Every organization needs leaders at every level.<sup>[70]</sup>

## 18.6.2 Management

Over the years the philosophical terminology of “management” and “leadership” have, in the organizational context, been used both as synonyms and with clearly differentiated meanings. Debate is fairly common about whether the use of these terms should be restricted, and generally reflects an awareness of the distinction made by Burns (1978) between “transactional” leadership (characterized by e.g. emphasis on procedures, contingent reward, management by exception) and “transformational” leadership (characterized by e.g. charisma, personal relationships, creativity).<sup>[47]</sup>

## 18.6.3 Group

In contrast to individual leadership, some organizations have adopted group leadership. In this situation, more than one person provides direction to the group as a whole. Some organizations have taken this approach in hopes of increasing creativity, reducing costs, or downsizing. Others may see the traditional leadership of a boss as costing too much in team performance. In some situations, the team members best able to handle any given phase of the project become the temporary leaders. Additionally, as each team member has the opportunity to experience the elevated level of empowerment, it energizes staff and feeds the cycle of success.<sup>[71]</sup>

Leaders who demonstrate persistence, tenacity, determination, and synergistic communication skills will bring out the same qualities in their groups. Good leaders use their own inner mentors to energize their team and organizations and lead a team to achieve success.<sup>[72]</sup>

*According to the National School Boards Association (USA):*<sup>[73]</sup>

These Group Leaderships or Leadership Teams have specific characteristics:

### Characteristics of a Team

- There must be an awareness of unity on the part of all its members.
- There must be interpersonal relationship. Members must have a chance to contribute, and learn from and work with others.
- The members must have the ability to act together toward a common goal.

### Ten characteristics of well-functioning teams:

- Purpose: Members proudly share a sense of why the team exists and are invested in accomplishing its mission and goals.
- Priorities: Members know what needs to be done next, by whom, and by when to achieve team goals.
- Roles: Members know their roles in getting tasks done and when to allow a more skillful member to do a certain task.
- Decisions: Authority and decision-making lines are clearly understood.
- Conflict: Conflict is dealt with openly and is considered important to decision-making and personal growth.
- Personal traits: members feel their unique personalities are appreciated and well utilized.
- Norms: Group norms for working together are set and seen as standards for every one in the groups.
- Effectiveness: Members find team meetings efficient and productive and look forward to this time together.
- Success: Members know clearly when the team has met with success and share in this equally and proudly.
- Training: Opportunities for feedback and updating skills are provided and taken advantage of by team members.

## 18.6.4 Self-leadership

*Self-leadership* is a process that occurs within an individual, rather than an external act. It is an expression of who we are as people.<sup>[74]</sup>

## 18.6.5 Primates

Mark van Vugt and Anjana Ahuja in *Naturally Selected: The Evolutionary Science of Leadership* present evidence of leadership in nonhuman animals, from ants and bees to baboons and chimpanzees. They suggest that leadership has a long evolutionary history and that the same mechanisms underpinning leadership in humans can be found in other social species, too.<sup>[75]</sup> Richard Wrangham and Dale Peterson, in *Demonic Males: Apes and the Origins of Human Violence*, present evidence that only humans and chimpanzees, among all the animals living on Earth, share a similar tendency for a cluster of behaviors: violence, territoriality, and competition for uniting behind the one chief male of the land.<sup>[76]</sup> This position is contentious. Many animals beyond apes are territorial, compete, exhibit violence, and have a social structure controlled by a dominant male (lions, wolves, etc.),

suggesting Wrangham and Peterson's evidence is not empirical. However, we must examine other species as well, including elephants (which are matriarchal and follow an alpha female), meerkats (who are likewise matriarchal), and many others.

By comparison, bonobos, the second-closest species-relatives of humans, do *not* unite behind the chief male of the land. The bonobos show deference to an alpha or top-ranking female that, with the support of her coalition of other females, can prove as strong as the strongest male. Thus, if leadership amounts to getting the greatest number of followers, then among the bonobos, a female almost always exerts the strongest and most effective leadership. However, not all scientists agree on the allegedly peaceful nature of the bonobo or its reputation as a "hippie chimp".

## 18.7 Historical views



Niccolò Machiavelli's *The Prince* argues that it is better to be feared rather than to be loved.

Sanskrit literature identifies ten types of leaders. Defining characteristics of the ten types of leaders are explained with examples from history and mythology.<sup>[77]</sup>

Aristocratic thinkers have postulated that leadership depends on one's "blue blood" or genes. Monarchy takes an extreme view of the same idea, and may prop up its assertions against the claims of mere aristocrats by invoking divine sanction (see the divine right of kings). Contrariwise, more democratically-inclined theorists have pointed to examples of meritocratic leaders, such as

the Napoleonic marshals profiting from careers open to talent.

In the autocratic/paternalistic strain of thought, traditionalists recall the role of leadership of the Roman *pater familias*. Feminist thinking, on the other hand, may object to such models as patriarchal and posit against them emotionally-attuned, responsive, and consensual empathetic guidance, which is sometimes associated with matriarchies.

Comparable to the Roman tradition, the views of Confucianism on "right living" relate very much to the ideal of the (male) scholar-leader and his benevolent rule, buttressed by a tradition of filial piety.

Leadership is a matter of intelligence, trustworthiness, humaneness, courage, and discipline ... Reliance on intelligence alone results in rebelliousness. Exercise of humaneness alone results in weakness. Fixation on trust results in folly. Dependence on the strength of courage results in violence. Excessive discipline and sternness in command result in cruelty. When one has all five virtues together, each appropriate to its function, then one can be a leader. — Sun Tzu<sup>[78]</sup>

Machiavelli's *The Prince*, written in the early 16th century, provided a manual for rulers ("princes" or "tyrants" in Machiavelli's terminology) to gain and keep power.

In the 19th century the elaboration of anarchist thought called the whole concept of leadership into question. (Note that the *Oxford English Dictionary* traces the word "leadership" in English only as far back as the 19th century.) One response to this denial of élitism came with Leninism, which demanded an élite group of disciplined cadres to act as the vanguard of a socialist revolution, bringing into existence the dictatorship of the proletariat.

Other historical views of leadership have addressed the seeming contrasts between secular and religious leadership. The doctrines of Caesaro-papism have recurred and had their detractors over several centuries. Christian thinking on leadership has often emphasized stewardship of divinely-provided resources—human and material—and their deployment in accordance with a Divine plan. Compare servant leadership.<sup>[79]</sup>

For a more general take on leadership in politics, compare the concept of the statesperson.

## 18.8 Myths

Leadership, although largely talked about, has been described as one of the least understood concepts across all cultures and civilizations. Over the years, many researchers have stressed the prevalence of this misunder-



standing, stating that the existence of several flawed assumptions, or myths, concerning leadership often interferes with individuals' conception of what leadership is all about (Gardner, 1965; Bennis, 1975).<sup>[80][81]</sup>

### 18.8.1 Leadership is innate

According to some, leadership is determined by distinctive dispositional characteristics present at birth (e.g., extraversion; intelligence; ingenuity). However, according to Forsyth (2009) there is evidence to show that leadership also develops through hard work and careful observation.<sup>[82]</sup> Thus, effective leadership can result from nature (i.e., innate talents) as well as nurture (i.e., acquired skills).

### 18.8.2 Leadership is possessing power over others

Although leadership is certainly a form of power, it is not demarcated by power *over* people – rather, it is a power *with* people that exists as a reciprocal relationship between a leader and his/her followers (Forsyth, 2009).<sup>[82]</sup> Despite popular belief, the use of manipulation, coercion, and domination to influence others is not a requirement for leadership. In actuality, individuals who seek group consent and strive to act in the best interests of others can also become effective leaders (e.g., class president; court judge).

### 18.8.3 Leaders are positively influential

The validity of the assertion that groups flourish when guided by effective leaders can be illustrated using several examples. For instance, according to Baumeister et al. (1988), the bystander effect (failure to respond or offer assistance) that tends to develop within groups faced with an emergency is significantly reduced in groups guided by a leader.<sup>[83]</sup> Moreover, it has been documented that group performance,<sup>[84]</sup> creativity,<sup>[85]</sup> and efficiency<sup>[86]</sup> all tend to climb in businesses with designated managers or CEOs. However, the difference leaders make is **not** always positive in nature. Leaders sometimes focus on fulfilling their own agendas at the expense of others, including his/her own followers (e.g., Pol Pot; Josef Stalin). Leaders who focus on personal gain by employing stringent and manipulative leadership styles often make a difference, but usually do so through negative means.<sup>[87]</sup>

### 18.8.4 Leaders entirely control group outcomes

In Western cultures it is generally assumed that group leaders make *all* the difference when it comes to group influence and overall goal-attainment. Although common,

this romanticized view of leadership (i.e., the tendency to overestimate the degree of control leaders have over their groups and their groups' outcomes) ignores the existence of many other factors that influence group dynamics.<sup>[88]</sup> For example, group cohesion, communication patterns among members, individual personality traits, group context, the nature or orientation of the work, as well as behavioral norms and established standards influence group functionality in varying capacities. For this reason, it is unwarranted to assume that all leaders are in complete control of their groups' achievements.

### 18.8.5 All groups have a designated leader

Despite preconceived notions, not all groups need have a designated leader. Groups that are primarily composed of women,<sup>[89][90]</sup> are limited in size, are free from stressful decision-making,<sup>[91]</sup> or only exist for a short period of time (e.g., student work groups; pub quiz/trivia teams) often undergo a diffusion of responsibility, where leadership tasks and roles are shared amongst members (Schmid Mast, 2002; Berdahl & Anderson, 2007; Guastello, 2007).

### 18.8.6 Group members resist leaders

Although research has indicated that group members' dependence on group leaders can lead to reduced self-reliance and overall group strength,<sup>[82]</sup> most people actually prefer to be led than to be without a leader (Berkowitz, 1953).<sup>[92]</sup> This "need for a leader" becomes especially strong in troubled groups that are experiencing some sort of conflict. Group members tend to be more contented and productive when they have a leader to guide them. Although individuals filling leadership roles can be a direct source of resentment for followers, most people appreciate the contributions that leaders make to their groups and consequently welcome the guidance of a leader (Stewart & Manz, 1995).<sup>[93]</sup>

## 18.9 Action-oriented environments

One approach to team leadership examines action-oriented environments, where effective functional leadership is required to achieve critical or reactive tasks by small teams deployed into the field. In other words, there is leadership of small groups often created to respond to a situation or critical incident.

In most cases these teams are tasked to operate in remote and changeable environments with limited support or backup (action environments). Leadership of people in these environments requires a different set of skills to that of front line management. These leaders must effectively operate remotely and negotiate the needs of

the individual, team, and task within a changeable environment. This has been termed *action oriented leadership*. Some examples of demonstrations of action oriented leadership include extinguishing a rural fire, locating a missing person, leading a team on an outdoor expedition, or rescuing a person from a potentially hazardous environment.

## 18.10 Titles emphasizing authority

At certain stages in their development, the hierarchies of social ranks implied different degrees or ranks of leadership in society. Thus a knight led fewer men in general than did a duke; a baronet might in theory control less land than an earl. See *peerage* for a systematization of this hierarchy, and *order of precedence* for links to various systems.

In the course of the 18th to 20th centuries, several political operators took non-traditional paths to become dominant in their societies. They or their systems often expressed a belief in strong individual leadership, but existing titles and labels (“King”, “Emperor”, “President”, and so on) often seemed inappropriate, insufficient, or downright inaccurate in some circumstances. The formal or informal titles or descriptions they or their subordinates employ express and foster a general veneration for leadership of the inspired and autocratic variety. The definite article when used as part of the title (in languages that use definite articles) emphasizes the existence of a sole “true” leader.

## 18.11 Critical thought

Noam Chomsky<sup>[94]</sup> and others<sup>[95]</sup> have brought critical thinking to the very concept of leadership and have provided an analysis that asserts that people abrogate their responsibility to think and will actions for themselves. While the conventional view of leadership is rather satisfying to people who “want to be told what to do”, these critics say that one should question why they are being subjected to a will or intellect other than their own if the leader is not a Subject Matter Expert (SME).

The fundamentally anti-democratic nature of the leadership principle is challenged by the introduction of concepts such as *autogestion*, *employeeeship*, *common civic virtue*, etc., which stress individual responsibility and/or group authority in the work place and elsewhere by focusing on the skills and attitudes that a person needs in general rather than separating out leadership as the basis of a special class of individuals.

Similarly, various historical calamities are attributed to a misplaced reliance on the principle of leadership.

## 18.12 Executives

<sup>[96]</sup> Executives are energetic, outgoing, and competitive. They can be visionary, hard-working, and decisive. However, managers need to be aware of unsuccessful executives who once showed management potential but who are later dismissed or retired early. They typically fail because of personality factors rather than job performances.

*Terms fallacies in their thinking are:*

- *Unrealistic optimism fallacy*: Believing they are so smart that they can do whatever they want
- *Egocentrism fallacy*: Believing they are the only ones who matter, that the people who work for them don't count
- *Omniscience fallacy*: Believing they know everything and seeing no limits to their knowledge
- *Omnipotence fallacy*: Believing they are all powerful and therefore entitled to do what they want
- *Invulnerability fallacy*: Believing they can get away with doing what they want because they are too clever to get caught; even if they are caught, believing they will go unpunished because of their importance.

## 18.13 See also

- Adaptive performance
- Crowd psychology
- Leadership accountability
- Leadership school
- Meeting Roles
- Modes of leadership
- Multiteam system
- Nicomachean Ethics
- Professional development
- Super-team
- Three theological virtues

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# Chapter 19

## Leaveism

**Leaveism**<sup>[1]</sup> is a term first coined in 2013 by Ian Hesketh, a doctoral researcher at Lancaster University Management School in the UK, to describe the phenomena of employees using flexitime, annual leave, rest days and other leave entitlement schemes to have time off when they are in fact too unwell to go to work. He later extended this to include occasions whereby employees took work home and on holiday that they could not complete in paid working hours. Hesketh's research, which centred on well-being in the UK police service, sought to identify a lacuna in current thinking around Absenteeism and Presenteeism;<sup>[2]</sup> of which there is a plethora of academic study and commentary. The aim of his studies was to highlight that the true extent of sickness absence may be masked by the practice of Leaveism, and that there may be a hidden populus experiencing significant workload overload.

Leaveism<sup>[3]</sup> is the practice of:

- 1) employees utilising allocated time off such as annual leave entitlements, flexi hours banked, re rostered rest days and so on, to take time off when they are in fact unwell;
- 2) employees taking work home that cannot be completed in normal working hours; and
- 3) employees working whilst on leave or holiday to catch up.

### 19.1 See also

- Sick leave
- Absenteeism
- Presenteeism

### 19.2 References

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## Chapter 20

# Mechanical aptitude

According to Paul Muchinsky in his textbook *Psychology Applied to Work*, "**Mechanical aptitude** tests require a person to recognize which mechanical principle is suggested by a test item. The underlying concepts measured by these items include sounds and heat conduction, velocity, gravity, and force. One of the more popular tests of mechanical reasoning is the Bennett Test of Mechanical Comprehension. The test is a series of pictures that illustrate various mechanical concepts and principles. Other tests of mechanical comprehension have also been developed. Tests of mechanical ability are highly predictive of performance in manufacturing/production jobs. However, women traditionally perform worse than men on tests of mechanical ability. Recent attempts to include test questions pertaining to kitchen implements and other topics about which women are more familiar have reduced, but not eliminated, the male/female score differential." [1]

## 20.1 Background Information

### 20.1.1 Military Information

Aptitude tests have been used for military purposes since World War I to screen recruits for military service. The Army Alpha and Army Beta tests were developed in 1917-1918 so ability of personnel could be measured by commanders. The Army Alpha was a test that assessed verbal ability, numerical ability, ability to follow directions, and general knowledge of specific information. The Army Beta was its non-verbal counterpart used to evaluate the aptitude of illiterate, unschooled, or non-English speaking draftees or volunteers.

During World War II, the Army Alpha and Beta tests were replaced by The Army General Classification Test (AGCT) and Navy General Classification Test (NGCT). The AGCT was described as a test of general learning ability, and was used by the Army and Marine Corps to assign recruits to military jobs. About 12 million recruits were tested using the AGCT during World War II. The NGCT was used by the Navy to assign recruits to military jobs. About 3 million sailors were tested using the NGCT during World War II.

Additional classification tests were developed early in World War II to supplement the AGCT and the NGCT. These included:

- Specialized aptitude tests related to the technical fields (mechanical, electrical, and later, electronics)
- Clerical and administrative tests, radio code operational tests
- Language tests and driver selection tests.[2]

### 20.1.2 Mechanical Aptitude and Spatial Relations

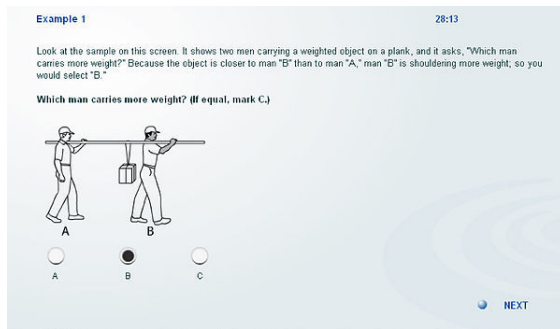
Mechanical aptitude tests are often coupled together with spatial relations tests. Mechanical aptitude is a complex function and is the sum of several different capacities, one of which is the ability to perceive spacial relations. Some research has shown that spacial ability is, for some jobs, the most vital part of mechanical aptitude. Because of this, spacial relations tests are often given separately or in part with mechanical aptitude tests.[3]

### 20.1.3 Gender Differences

There is no evidence that states there is a general intelligence difference between men and women. However, there is a difference in the cognitive abilities between the two sexes. Males tend to do better on the quantitative tasks and the visual-spatial skills than females, and females tend to score much higher than men on the verbal sections of the test. Males have always performed very high on the mechanical aptitude tests; much higher than women. In recent years, another mechanical aptitude test was created. The main purpose of this test was to create a fair chance for women to perform higher than, or at the same level as men. Males still perform at a much higher level than women, but the scores between men and women have been drawn closer together. There is little research that has been devoted as to why men are able to complete the tests and perform much higher than women.[4]



## 20.2 Uses of Mechanical Aptitude Test



Sample question from a Mechanical Aptitude test<sup>[5]</sup>

The major uses for mechanical aptitude testing are:

- Identify candidates with good spatial perception and mechanical reasoning ability
- Assess a candidate's working knowledge of basic mechanical operations and physical laws
- Recognize an aptitude for learning mechanical processes and tasks
- Predict employee success and appropriately align your workforce

These tests are used mostly for industries involving:

- Manufacturing/Production
- Energy/Utilities

The major occupations that these tests are relevant to are:

- Automotive and Aircraft Mechanics
- Engineers
- Installation/Maintenance/Repairpersons
- Industrial/Technical (Non-Retail) Sales Representatives
- Skilled Tradesperson such as Electricians, Welders, and Carpenters
- Transportation Trades/Equipment Operators such as Truck Driver and Heavy Equipment Operator<sup>[6]</sup>

## 20.3 Types of Tests

### 20.3.1 Barron's Test of Mechanical Aptitude

The Barron's Test, which is also called the **Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB)**, was the most widely used mechanical aptitude test in the world. The test consists of ten subject specific tests that measure your ability to perform separate job related areas and provides an indication of your level of **academic** ability. The ASVAB was used very often in the 1920s and 1930s, especially by the military. The military would ask that all recruits take this exam to help them be placed in the correct job while enrolled in the **military**. In the beginning, **World War I**, the **U.S. Army** developed the **Army Alpha** and **Beta Tests**, which grouped the draftees and recruits for **military service**. The **Army Alpha** test measured recruits' **knowledge, verbal** and **numerical** ability, and ability to follow directions using 212 multiple-choice questions.

However, during **World War II**, the **U.S. Army** had replaced the tests with a newer and improved one called the **Army General Classification Test**. The test had many different versions until they improved it enough to be used regularly. The current tests consist of three different versions, two of which are on paper and pencil and the other is taken on the **computer**. The scores from each different version are linked together, so each score has the same meaning no matter which exam you take. Some people find that they score higher on the computer version of the test than the other two versions, an explanation of this is due to the fact that the computer based exam is tailored to their demonstrated ability level. These tests are beneficial because they help measure your potential; it gives you a good indicator of where your talents are. By viewing your scores, you can make intelligent career decisions. The higher score you have, the more job opportunities that are available to you.<sup>[7]</sup>

### 20.3.2 Wiesen Test of Mechanical Aptitude

See also: Wiesen Test of Mechanical Aptitude

The **Wiesen Test of Mechanical Aptitude** is a measure of a person's mechanical aptitude which is referred to as the ability use machinery properly and maintain the equipment in best working order. The test is 30-minutes and has 60-items that can help predict performance for specific occupations involving the operation, maintenance, and servicing of tools, equipment, and machinery. Occupations in these areas require and are facilitated by mechanical aptitude. The **Wiesen Test of Mechanical Aptitude** was designed with the intent to create an evolution of previous tests that helps to improve the shortcomings of these earlier mechanical aptitude tests, such as the **Bennett Test of Mechanical Comprehension**. This test was reorganized in order to lessen certain gender and racial biases. The reading level that is required for the **Wiesen Test of Mechanical Aptitude** has been estimated to be at

a sixth-grade level, and it is also available in a Spanish-language version for Spanish speaking mechanical workers. Overall, this mechanical aptitude test has been shown to have less of an adverse impact than previous mechanical aptitude.

There are two scores given to each individual taking the test, a raw score and a percentile ranking. The raw score is a measure of how many questions (out of the 60 total) the individual answered correctly, and the percentile ranking is a relative performance score that indicates how the individual's score rates in relation to others people who have taken this particular mechanical aptitude test and how they scored.

Average test scores for the Wiesen Test of Mechanical Aptitude were determined by giving the test to a sample of 1,817 workers aged 18 and older working in specific industrial occupations that were mentioned previously. Using this sample of workers, it was determined that the Wiesen Test of Mechanical Aptitude has very high reliability (statistics) (.97) in determining mechanical aptitude in relation to performance of mechanical occupations. [8]

### 20.3.3 Bennett Test of Mechanical Comprehension

The Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test (BMCT) is an assessment tool for measuring a candidate's ability to perceive and understand the relationship of physical forces and mechanical elements in practical situations. This aptitude is important in jobs and training programs that require the understanding and application of mechanical principles. The current BMCT Forms, S and T, have been used to predict performance in a variety of vocational and technical training settings and have been popular selection tools for mechanical, technical, engineering, and similar occupations for many years.

The BMCT is composed of 68 items, 30-minute time limited test, that are illustrations of simple, encountered mechanisms used in many different mechanisms. It is not considered a speeded time test, but a timed power test and the cut scores will provide the different job requirements for employers. The reading and exercise level of concentration for this test is below or at a sixth-grade reading level.

In current studies of internal consistency reliability, the range of estimates were compared from previous studies and found out the range was from .84 to .92. So this shows a high reliable consistency when taking and measuring the BMCT. Muchinsky (1993) evaluated the relationships between the BMCT, a general mental ability test, and an aptitude classification test focused on mechanics, and supervisory ratings of overall performance for 192 manufacturing employees. Of the three tests, he found the BMCT to be the best single predictor of job performance ( $r = .38$ ,  $p < .01$ ). He also found that the incremental gain in predictability from the other tests was

not significant.

From a current employer standpoint, these people are typically using cognitive ability tests, aptitude tests, personality tests and etc. And the BMCT has been used for positions in positions such as electrical and mechanical positions. Also companies will use these tests for computer operators and operators in manufacturing. This test can also help eliminate any issues or variables to employers about who may need further training and instruction or not. This test will help show employers who is a master of the trade they are applying for, and will also highlight the applicants who still have some "catching up" to do. [9]

### 20.3.4 Stenquist Test of Mechanical Aptitude

The Stenquist Test consist of a series of problems presented in the form of pictures, where each respondent would try to determine which picture assimilates better with another group of pictures. The pictures are mostly common mechanical objects which do not have an affiliation with a particular trade or profession, nor does the visuals require any prior experience or knowledge. [10] Other variations of the test are used to examine a person's keen perception of mechanical objects and their ability to reason out a mechanical problem. For example, The Stenquist Mechanical Assembling Test Series III, which was created for young males, consisted of physical mechanical parts for the boys to individually construct items with. [11]

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## Chapter 21

# Michigan Studies of Leadership

A well-known series of leadership studies that commenced at the University of Michigan in the 1950s by Rensis Likert, with the objective of identifying the principles and types of leadership styles that led to greater productivity and enhanced job satisfaction among workers. <sup>[1]</sup>The studies identified two broad leadership styles - an employee orientation and a production orientation. They also identified three critical characteristics of effective leaders - task-oriented behavior, relationship-oriented behavior and participative leadership. <sup>[2]</sup> The studies concluded that an employee orientation rather than a production orientation, coupled with general instead of close supervision, led to better results. The Michigan leadership studies, along with the Ohio State University studies that took place in the 1940s, are two of the best-known behavioral leadership studies and continue to be cited to this day.

### 21.1 See also

- Industrial and organizational psychology
- Organizational studies
- Leadership
- Charisma
- Trait Theory
- Management Systems

### 21.2 References

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- [2] <http://www.investopedia.com/terms/m/michigan-leadership-studies.asp>

## Chapter 22

# Multiteam system

**Multiteam systems (MTSs)** are “[t]wo or more teams that interface directly and interdependently in response to environmental contingencies toward the accomplishment of collective goals. MTS boundaries are defined by virtue of the fact that all teams within the system, while pursuing different proximal goals, share at least one common distal goal; and in doing so, exhibit input, process and outcome interdependence with at least one other team in the system” (Mathieu, Marks, & Zaccaro, 2001, pp. 290). Multiteam systems describe collections of teams that work toward a common goal. MTSs are often conceptualized as larger than a single team, but smaller than the organization within which they are embedded (Mathieu, et al., 2001). In fact, MTSs often traverse organizations such that teams embedded within the same MTS may hail from multiple organizations. These systems of teams can be conceptualized as a special type of social network (Wasserman & Faust, 1994). In particular, MTSs are social networks whose boundaries are based on the shared interdependence of all members toward the accomplishment of a higher-order network-level goal. Multiteam systems are different from teams, because they are composed of multiple teams (called component teams) that must coordinate and collaborate. In MTSs, component teams each pursue proximal team goals (not shared with other teams in the system) and at the same time, work toward the larger system level goal. Because of this dual focus on team goals and systems goals, there are many situations where interventions aimed at improving the internal cohesion of teams will come at a cost to the larger goal. The past decade has witnessed an explosion of interest in the social sciences in understanding multiteam systems. MTSs are thought to explain the dynamics that arise in the public sector such as Provincial Reconstruction Teams, and in the private sector with strategic alliances.

### 22.1 Examples

MTSs are highly visible in the public sector in the form of action teams such as emergency response teams. For instance, a hypothetical MTS could consist of 5 teams: police, firefighters, emergency medical techni-

cians (EMTs), an emergency room team of surgeons, and a recovery team. Each of these teams has an specific, individual goal related to emergency response (i.e., the firefighters’ primary goal is to extinguish the fire, while the EMTs’ main objective is to rush injured people to the hospital), but all the teams share a superordinate goal, which is to save lives. The 5 teams have different degrees of interaction with one another; specifically, because police, firefighters, and EMTs are all part of a larger county government MTS, while the surgeons and recovery team are part of the hospital MTS, difference degrees of relation can be inferred (Mathieu, Marks, & Zaccaro, 2001).

### 22.2 Gaming testbeds

“Computer-based simulations have been used to study MTSs in laboratory settings. Two that have been used frequently are ACES and DELTASim.

### 22.3 ACES

*Multi-team Air Campaign Effectiveness Simulation (ACES):* ACES is a simulation developed in response to the numerous low-fidelity simulations used in psychological research that have limited external validity. It utilizes a PC-based flight simulation program called Total Air War (TAW), by Digital Image Design, Corp., in which players pilot a F-22 aircraft in the context of a fictional international conflict. In addition to the use of the an adapted version of TAW, ACES captures records audio and video of participants, and participants communicate between- and within-groups through the use of microphone-equipped headsets. Up to 16 teams can play ACES at a time, and can be assigned different flight packages, weapons, and responsibilities. Team objectives can also be individual or related, depending on the manipulation. In addition, because ACES is a virtual simulation, teams can be remote (Mathieu, Cobb, Marks, Zaccaro, & Marsh, 2004).

## 22.4 DELTASim

“DELTASim is a testbed developed by the DELTA research laboratory at the Georgia Institute of Technology. This pc-based simulation models a humanitarian aid multiteam system composed of two to three person component teams working on different functional tasks (e.g., special operations, mobile infantry) in different regions. The MTS goal of DELTASim is to enable a convoy of humanitarian aid trucks to move safely through a hostile area. The DELTASim has been reconfigured to run experiments using different communication modalities, leadership arrangements, degrees of trust, and communication networks within and across teams.”

## 22.5 Leadership of multiteam systems

Because of the complexity inherent within MTSs (including the possibility of competing component team goals), these systems present a unique challenge to leadership. Initial experimental results have demonstrated the importance to the success of such systems that component teams be synchronized such that both proximal team goals and higher-level collective outcomes are obtained. For example, laboratory research has demonstrated that effective interaction processes occurring between teams are more essential to MTS performance than are those interaction processes that occur within teams (Marks, DeChurch, Mathieu, Panzer, & Alonso, 2005). In other words, component teams within an MTS each could be individually successful while the system as a whole fails to meet its objectives (DeChurch & Marks, 2006).

In recent team research, functional leadership theory has been presented as especially appropriate for conceptualizing the role of the team leader. This theory addresses the leader's broad relationship to the team (Hackman & Walton, 1986; Lord, 1977) in that the core duty of the leader is “to do, or get done, whatever is not being adequately handled for group needs” (McGrath, 1962, p. 5). The view of team leaders through the functional leadership lens has been extended to the MTS context in recent years. In particular, the MTS leader typically is responsible for interpreting and defining MTS task requirements (Mathieu et al., 2001). Additionally, MTS leadership, consistent with the functional leadership viewpoint, is conceptualized as including discretion and choice in the solutions applied to a given problem. For example, when requirements shift, as is the case in dynamically changing environments, and entrained team/MTS responses are no longer appropriate, MTS leaders must define/redefine directions (e.g., vision, task requirements) for the MTS (Mathieu, et al., 2001). Marks and colleagues (2005) argued further that effective MTS leadership must balance the management of component team actions while

maintaining cross-team interdependencies in response to environmental demands. In other words, MTS leaders must ensure that component team efforts throughout the system are aligned appropriately. Initial laboratory results indicate that MTS leaders can, in fact, be trained to enact functional MTS leader behaviors. In particular, DeChurch and Marks (2006) found that training manipulations, focused on leader strategizing and coordinating, enhanced functional MTS leadership behavior and interteam coordination and, in turn, enhanced MTS-level performance.

## 22.6 See also

- Super-team

## 22.7 Bibliography

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## 22.8 External links

### Professional organizations and conferences

- Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology: <http://www.siop.org/>
- Academy of Management: <http://meetings.aomonline.org>
- Interdisciplinary Network for Group Research: <http://www.ingroup.info/>
- Science of Team Science: <http://scienceofteamspace.northwestern.edu/> or Wikipedia
- International Network for Social Network Analysis: <http://www.insna.org/>
- International Communication Association (ICA): <http://www.icaheadq.org/>

### Other related links

- Georgia Institute of Technology DELTA Lab: <http://www.delta.gatech.edu/>
- National Science Foundation Virtual Organizations as Sociotechnical Systems: [http://www.nsf.gov/funding/pgm\\_summ.jsp?pims\\_id=503256](http://www.nsf.gov/funding/pgm_summ.jsp?pims_id=503256)
- Science of Networks in Communities research group: <http://sonic.northwestern.edu/>

## Chapter 23

# Nofer Institute of Occupational Medicine

The **Nofer Institute of Occupational Medicine** (NIOM) is a state-owned research institute in Łódź, Poland. It is the leading institute in the field of occupational and environmental health in Poland, and has the status of WHO Collaborating Centre.<sup>[1][2][3]</sup>

The institute was established in 1954 as a unit of the **Medical Academy of Łódź**, and is now an independent institute. It provides expertise to the Ministry of Health and serves as an advisory body to several governmental agencies.

The institute is named for its former director Professor Jerzy Nofer.

### 23.1 References

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- [2] [http://www.balticseaosh.net/country\\_page.php?country=pl](http://www.balticseaosh.net/country_page.php?country=pl)
- [3] [http://www.imp.lodz.pl/home\\_en/about\\_institute/\\_history\\_/](http://www.imp.lodz.pl/home_en/about_institute/_history_/)

### 23.2 External links

- [Nofer Institute of Occupational Medicine](#)



## Chapter 24

# Occupational stress



Workplace stress caused by an unsuitable work environment  
(Illustration by Henry Holiday in Lewis Carroll's "The Hunting of the Snark")

*For other kinds of stress see stress.*

**Occupational stress** is stress involving work. According to the current World Health Organization's (WHO) definition, occupational or work-related stress "is the response people may have when presented with work demands and pressures that are not matched to their knowledge and abilities and which challenge their ability to cope."<sup>[1]</sup>

### 24.1 Models

Stress can be factored in by a number of different variables, but results from the complex interactions between a large system of interrelated variables.<sup>[2][3]</sup>(1998). The **diathesis-stress model** is a psychological theory that aims to make clear of behaviors as a susceptibility burden together with stress from life experiences.<sup>[4]</sup> Theories of organizational stress. New York: Oxford.<sup>[5]</sup> It is useful to distinguish stressful job conditions or stressors from an individual's reactions or strains.<sup>[6]</sup> Strains can be mental, physical or emotional. Occupational stress can occur when there is a discrepancy between the demands of the environment/workplace and an individual's ability to carry out and complete these demands.<sup>[7][8]</sup> Often a stressor can lead the body to have a physiological reaction that can strain a person physically as well as mentally. A variety of factors contribute to workplace stress such as excessive workload, isolation, extensive hours worked, toxic work environments, lack of autonomy, difficult relationships among coworkers and management, management bullying, harassment and lack of opportunities or motivation to advancement in one's skill level.<sup>[9]</sup> A concern with stress research is that studies often neglect to consider the broader organizational context.<sup>[10]</sup>

### 24.2 Categories

Categories associated with occupational stress are<sup>[9]</sup>

- factors unique to the job
- role in the organization
- career development
- interpersonal work relationships
- organizational structure/climate.

These individual categories demonstrate that stress can occur specifically when a conflict arises from the job demands of the employee and the employee itself. If not handled properly, the stress can become distress.<sup>[11]</sup>

1. the ability of the employee coping with the specific hours worked, the level of productive rate expected, the physical environment, as well as the expectancy of the work desired by **management**. For instance, research shows that night shifts in particular has a high possibility of negative impact towards the health of the employee. In relation to this, approximately 20 percent of night shift workers have experienced psycho-physiological dysfunctions, including heart diseases. Extreme factors can affect the competence levels of employees.
2. role in the organization, is associated with the hierarchical ranking of that particular employee within the organization. Upper management is entitled to oversee the overall functioning of the organization. This causes potential distress as the employee must be able to perform simultaneous tasks.
3. with career development, other factors come into play. Security of their occupation, promotion levels, etc. are all sources of stress, as this business market in terms of technology of economic dominance is ever-changing.
4. **interpersonal relationships** within the workplace. The workplace is a communication and interaction based industry. These relationships (either developed or developing) can be problematic or positive. Common stressors include harassment, discrimination, biased opinions, hearsay, and other derogatory remarks.
5. **organizational climate** or structure. The overall communication, management style, and participation among groups of employees are variables to be considered. In essence, the resultant influence of the high participation rate, collaborative planning, and equally dispersed responsibilities provides a positive effect on stress reduction, improved work performance, job satisfaction, and decreased psychosomatic disorders.

### 24.3 Prevalence

Distress is a prevalent and costly problem in today's workplace. About one-third of workers report high levels of stress.<sup>[7]</sup> One-quarter of employees view their jobs as the number one stressor in their lives.<sup>[12]</sup> Three-quarters of employees believe the worker has more on-the-job stress than a generation ago.<sup>[13]</sup> Evidence also suggests that distress is the major cause of turnover in organizations.<sup>[7]</sup> With continued distress at the workplace, workers will develop psychological and physiological dysfunctions and decreased motivation in excelling in their position.<sup>[9]</sup> Increased levels of job stress are determined by the awareness of having little control but lots of demands in the work area.<sup>[14]</sup>

The Kenexa Research Institute released a global survey of almost 30,000 workers which showed that females suffered more workplace distress than their male counterparts. According to the survey, women's stress level were 10% higher for those in supervisory positions, 8% higher stress in service and production jobs than men, and 6% higher in middle and upper management than men in the same position.<sup>[15]</sup>

### 24.4 Related disorders

Stress-related disorders encompass a broad array of conditions, including **psychological disorders** (e.g., depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder) and other types of emotional strain (e.g., dissatisfaction, fatigue, tension, etc.), maladaptive behaviors (e.g., aggression, substance abuse), and cognitive impairment (e.g., concentration and memory problems). In turn, these conditions may lead to poor work performance, higher **absenteeism**, less work productivity or even **injury**.<sup>[9]</sup> Job stress is also associated with various biological reactions that may lead ultimately to compromised health, such as **cardiovascular disease**,<sup>[16]</sup> or in extreme cases **death**. Due to the high pressure and demands in the work place the demands have been shown to be correlated with increased rates of heart attack, hypertension and other disorders. In New York, Los Angeles and other municipalities, the relationship between job stress and heart attacks is well acknowledged.<sup>[17]</sup>

### 24.5 Gender



*Frustrated man at a desk (cropped)*

Men and women are exposed to many of the same stressors.<sup>[18]</sup> However, women may be more sensitive to interpersonal conflict whereas men might be more sensitive to things that waste time and effort. Furthermore, although men and women might not differ in overall

strains, women are more likely to experience psychological distress, whereas men experience more physical strain. Desmarais and Alksnis suggest two explanations for the greater psychological distress of women. First, the genders differ in their awareness of negative feelings, leading women to express and report strains, whereas men deny and inhibit such feelings. Second, the demands to balance work and family result in more overall stressors for women that leads to increased strain.<sup>[18]</sup>

### 24.5.1 Factors

Combining housework, childcare, shopping and cooking with an outside job and trying to do everything on time is one of the biggest factors of women being more stressed at work, characterized mainly by feelings of guilt and hostility. 60% of women who have children under age six have an outside job and cope with family problems; single or married most of duties at home fall on shoulders of a woman.<sup>[19]</sup>

## 24.6 Health and healthcare utilization

Problems at work are more strongly associated with health complaints than are any other life stressor—more so than even financial problems or family problems.<sup>[20]</sup> Many studies suggest that psychologically demanding jobs that allow employees little control over the work process increase the risk of cardiovascular disease.<sup>[21]</sup> Research indicates that job stress increases the risk for development of back and upper-extremity musculoskeletal disorders.<sup>[21]</sup> High levels of stress are associated with substantial increases in health service utilization.<sup>[7]</sup> Workers who report experiencing stress at work also show excessive health care utilization. In a 1998 study of 46,000 workers, health care costs were nearly 50% greater for workers reporting high levels of stress in comparison to “low risk” workers. The increment rose to nearly 150%, an increase of more than \$1,700 per person annually, for workers reporting high levels of both stress and depression.<sup>[22]</sup> Additionally, periods of disability due to job stress tend to be much longer than disability periods for other occupational injuries and illnesses.<sup>[23]</sup>

Physiological reactions to stress can have consequences for health over time. Researchers have been studying how stress affects the cardiovascular system, as well as how work stress can lead to hypertension and coronary artery disease. These diseases, along with other stress-induced illnesses tend to be quite common in American work-places.<sup>[24]</sup> There are four main physiological reactions to stress:<sup>[25]</sup>

- Blood is shunted to the brain and large muscle groups, and away from extremities, skin, and organs

that are not currently serving the body.

- An area near the brain stem, known as the reticular activating system, goes to work, causing a state of keen alertness as well as sharpening of hearing and vision.
- Energy-providing compounds of glucose and fatty acids are released into the bloodstream.
- The immune and digestive systems are temporarily shut down.

## 24.7 Causes

Job stress results from various interactions of the worker and the environment of the work they perform their duties. Location, gender, environment, and many other factors contribute to the buildup of stress. Job stress results from the interaction of the worker and the conditions of work. Views differ on the importance of worker characteristics versus working conditions as the primary cause of job stress. The differing viewpoints suggest different ways to prevent stress at work. Differences in individual characteristics such as personality and coping skills can be very important in predicting whether certain job conditions will result in stress. In other words, what is stressful for one person may not be a problem for someone else. This viewpoint underlies prevention strategies that focus on workers and ways to help them cope with demanding job conditions.<sup>[7]</sup>

### 24.7.1 Working conditions

Although the importance of individual differences cannot be ignored, scientific evidence suggests that certain working conditions are stressful to most people. Such evidence argues for a greater emphasis on working conditions as the key source of job stress, and for job redesign as a primary prevention strategy.<sup>[7]</sup> Large surveys of working conditions, including conditions recognized as risk factors for job stress, were conducted in member states of the European Union in 1990, 1995, and 2000. Results showed a time trend suggesting an increase in work intensity. In 1990, the percentage of workers reporting that they worked at high speeds at least one-quarter of their working time was 48%, increasing to 54% in 1995 and to 56% in 2000. Similarly, 50% of workers reported they work against tight deadlines at least one-fourth of their working time in 1990, increasing to 56% in 1995 and 60% in 2000. However, no change was noted in the period 1995–2000 (data not collected in 1990) in the percentage of workers reporting sufficient time to complete tasks.<sup>[26]</sup>

## 24.7.2 Workload

Main article: [Workload](#)

In an occupational setting, dealing with workload can be stressful and serve as a stressor for employees. There are three aspects of workload that can be stressful.

**Quantitative workload or overload:** Having more work to do than can be accomplished comfortably.

**Qualitative workload:** Having work that is too difficult.

**Underload:** Having work that fails to use a worker's skills and abilities.<sup>[27]</sup>

Workload has been linked to a number of strains, including anxiety, physiological reactions such as cortisol, fatigue,<sup>[28]</sup> backache, headache, and gastrointestinal problems.<sup>[29]</sup>

Workload as a work demand is a major component of the demand-control model of stress.<sup>[30]</sup> This model suggests that jobs with high demands can be stressful, especially when the individual has low control over the job. In other words control serves as a buffer or protective factor when demands or workload is high. This model was expanded into the demand-control-support model that suggests that the combination of high control and high social support at work buffers the effects of high demands.<sup>[31]</sup>

As a work demand, workload is also relevant to the job demands-resources model of stress that suggests that jobs are stressful when demands (e.g., workload) exceed the individual's resources to deal with them.<sup>[32]</sup>

## 24.7.3 Long hours

A substantial percentage of Americans work very long hours. By one estimate, more than 26% of men and more than 11% of women worked 50 hours per week or more in 2000. These figures represent a considerable increase over the previous three decades, especially for women. According to the Department of Labor, there have been a rise in increasing amount of hours in the work place by employed women, an increase in extended work weeks (>40 hours) by men, and a considerable increase in combined working hours among working couples, particularly couples with young children.<sup>[33][34]</sup>

## 24.7.4 Status

A person's status in the workplace can also affect levels of stress. While workplace stress has the potential to affect employees of all categories; those who have very little influence to those who make major decisions for



*Evidence of occupational stress due to an individual's status in the workplace*

the company. However, less powerful employees (that is, those who have less control over their jobs) are more likely to suffer stress than powerful workers. Managers as well as other kinds of workers are vulnerable to work overload.<sup>[35]</sup>

## 24.7.5 Economic factors

Economic factors that employees are facing in the 21st century have been linked to increased stress levels. Researchers and social commentators have pointed out that the computer and communications revolutions have made companies more efficient and productive than ever before. This boon in productivity however, has caused higher expectations and greater competition, putting more stress on the employee (Primm, 2005).

The following economic factors may lead to workplace stress:

- Pressure from investors, who can quickly withdraw their money from company stocks.
- The lack of trade and professional unions in the workplace.
- Inter-company rivalries caused by the efforts of companies to compete globally
- The willingness of companies to swiftly lay off workers to cope with changing business environments.

### 24.7.6 Bullying

Main article: [Workplace bullying](#)

Bullying in the workplace can also contribute to stress. This can be broken down into five different categories:<sup>[19]</sup>

- Threat to profession status
- Threat to personal status
- Isolation
- Excess work
- Destabilization i.e. lack of credit for work, meaningless tasks etc.<sup>[19]</sup>

This in effect can create a hostile work environment for the employees that, which in turn, can affect their work ethic and contribution to the organization.<sup>[36]</sup>

### 24.7.7 Narcissism and psychopathy

Main articles: [Narcissism in the workplace](#) and [Psychopathy in the workplace](#)

Thomas suggests that there tends to be a higher level of stress with people who work or interact with a narcissist, which in turn increases absenteeism and staff turnover.<sup>[37]</sup> Boddy finds the same dynamic where there is corporate psychopath in the organisation.<sup>[38]</sup>

### 24.7.8 Workplace conflict

Main article: [Workplace conflict](#)

Interpersonal conflict among people at work has been shown to be one of the most frequently noted stressors for employees.<sup>[39][40]</sup> Conflict has been noted to be an indicator of the broader concept of workplace harassment.<sup>[41]</sup> It relates to other stressors that might co-occur, such as role conflict, role ambiguity, and workload. It also relates to strains such as anxiety, depression, physical symptoms, and low levels of job satisfaction.<sup>[42]</sup>

### 24.7.9 Sexual harassment

Main article: [Sexual harassment](#)

Women are more likely than men to experience sexual harassment, especially for those working in traditionally masculine occupations. In addition, a study indicated that sexual harassment negatively affects workers' psychological well-being.<sup>[17][43]</sup> Another study found that level of

harassment at workplaces lead to differences in performance of work related tasks. High levels of harassment were related to the worst outcomes, and no harassment was related to least negative outcomes. In other words, women who had experienced a higher level of harassment were more likely to perform poorly at workplaces.<sup>[43]</sup>

## 24.8 Effects

Stressful working conditions can lead to three types of strains: Behavioral (e.g., absenteeism or poor performance), physical (e.g., headaches or coronary heart disease), and psychological (e.g., anxiety or depressed mood).<sup>[44]</sup> Physical symptoms that may occur because of occupational stress include fatigue, headache, upset stomach, muscular aches and pains, chronic mild illness, sleep disturbances, and eating disorders. Psychological and behavioral problems that may develop include anxiety, irritability, alcohol and drug use, feeling powerless and low morale.<sup>[45]</sup> The spectrum of effects caused by occupational stress includes absenteeism, poor decision making, lack of creativity, accidents, organizational breakdown or even sabotage.<sup>[46]</sup> If exposure to stressors in the workplace is prolonged, then chronic health problems can occur including stroke. An examination was of physical and psychological effects of workplace stress was conducted with a sample of 552 female blue collar employees of a microelectronics facility. It was found that job-related conflicts were associated with depressive symptoms, severe headaches, fatigue, rashes, and other multiple symptoms.<sup>[47]</sup> Studies among the Japanese population specifically showed a more than 2-fold increase in the risk of total stroke among men with job strain (combination of high job demand and low job control).<sup>[48]</sup> Along with the risk of stroke comes high blood pressure and immune system dysfunction. Prolonged occupational stress can lead to occupational burnout.

The effects of job stress on chronic diseases are more difficult to ascertain because chronic diseases develop over relatively long periods of time and are influenced by many factors other than stress. Nonetheless, there is some evidence that stress plays a role in the development of several types of chronic health problems—including cardiovascular disease, musculoskeletal disorders, and psychological disorders.<sup>[7]</sup>

## 24.9 Prevention

A combination of organizational change and stress management is often the most useful approach for preventing stress at work.<sup>[7]</sup> Both organizations and employees can employ strategies at organizational and individual levels. Generally, organizational level strategies include job procedure modification and employee assistance programs (EPA). Individual level strategies include taking vacation.

Getting a realistic job preview to understand the normal workload and schedules of the job will also help people to identify whether or not the job fit them.

How to Change the Organization to Prevent Job Stress<sup>[49]</sup>

- Ensure that the workload is in line with workers' capabilities and resources.
- Design jobs to provide meaning, stimulation, and opportunities for workers to use their skills.
- Clearly define workers' roles and responsibilities.
- To reduce workplace stress, managers may monitor the workload given out to the employees. Also while they are being trained they should let employees understand and be notified of stress awareness.<sup>[50]</sup>
- Give workers opportunities to participate in decisions and actions affecting their jobs.
- Improve communications-reduce uncertainty about career development and future employment prospects.
- Provide opportunities for social interaction among workers.
- Establish work schedules that are compatible with demands and responsibilities outside the job.
- Combat workplace discrimination (based on race, gender, national origin, religion or language).
- Bringing in an objective outsider such as a consultant to suggest a fresh approach to persistent problems.<sup>[51]</sup>
- Introducing a participative leadership style to involve as many subordinates as possible to resolve stress-producing problems.<sup>[51]</sup>
- Encourage work-life balance through family-friendly benefits and policies

An insurance company conducted several studies on the effects of stress prevention programs in hospital settings. Program activities included (1) employee and management education on job stress, (2) changes in hospital policies and procedures to reduce organizational sources of stress, and (3) the establishment of employee assistance programs. In one study, the frequency of medication errors declined by 50% after prevention activities were implemented in a 700-bed hospital. In a second study, there was a 70% reduction in malpractice claims in 22 hospitals that implemented stress prevention activities. In contrast, there was no reduction in claims in a matched group of 22 hospitals that did not implement stress prevention activities.<sup>[52]</sup>

Telecommuting is another way organizations can help reduce stress for their workers. Employees defined

telecommuting as "an alternative work arrangement in which employees perform tasks elsewhere that are normally done in a primary or central workplace, for at least some portion of their work schedule, using electronic media to interact with others inside and outside the organization." One reason that telecommuting gets such high marks is that it allows employees more control over how they do their work. Telecommuters reported more job satisfaction and less desire to find a new job. Employees that worked from home also had less stress, improved work/life balance and higher performance rating by their managers.<sup>[53]</sup>

## 24.10 See also

- Cognitive load
- Industrial and organizational psychology
- Occupational health psychology
- Occupational safety and health
- Perceived organizational support
- Perceived psychological contract violation
- Psychoneuroimmunology
- Stress management
- Stress (psychological)
- Work-life balance

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# Chapter 25

## Office humor

**Office humor**, also often called **workplace humor**, refers to the role of humor as used within the workplace. It is a subject that receives significant attention from students of industrial and organizational psychology and of the sociology of work, as well as in popular culture.

### 25.1 Academic considerations

Humor is an inevitable part of the social environment of work, and has been argued to be a potential tool for improving worker satisfaction and organizational results. Studies have suggested that humor can increase worker cohesiveness, creativity, motivation, and resilience in the face of adversity.<sup>[1][2][3]</sup> On the other hand, workplace humor (especially negative humor) can also be misused to reinforce bigotry, denigrate minorities, create an atmosphere of physical or sexual harassment, or as a management tool to reinforce managerial authority.<sup>[1][4]</sup>

### 25.2 Legal considerations

Inappropriate workplace humor may be deemed as “evidence in sexual harassment, discrimination and hostile work environment cases”.<sup>[5]</sup> It has led to serious consequences in cases such as the Krull case, where the ombudsman of King County, Washington was fired for sending a copy of the 1894 booklet *Instruction and Advice for the Young Bride* to his soon-to-be-married assistant,<sup>[6]</sup> or Chevron Corporation having to pay more than \$2 million as a settlement with four employees after an interoffice email circulated on the subject of “25 Reasons Why Beer is Better Than Women”.<sup>[5]</sup>

### 25.3 Representations in popular culture

Office humor is the focus of comic strips (*Dilbert*, *Help Desk*, *Sosiaalisesiti rajoittuneet*), movies (*Office Space*, *Head Office*), TV series (*The Peter Principle*, *The Office*), and contemporary art (as in works by Mike Kelley<sup>[7][8]</sup>).

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# Chapter 26

## Organization

For other uses, see Organization (disambiguation) and Org (disambiguation).

An **organization** or **organisation** (see spelling differ-

### 26.1 Types

Further information: Political organization

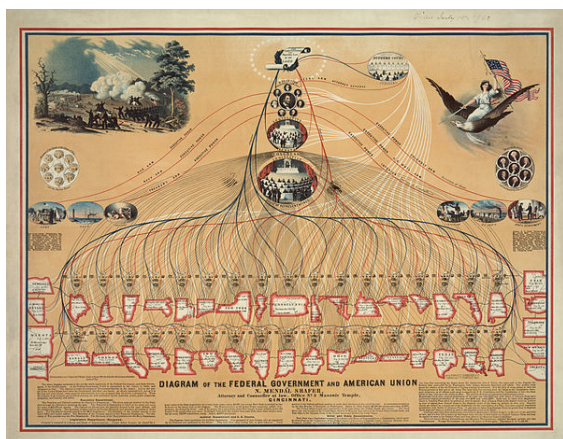


Diagram of the Federal Government and American Union (1862).

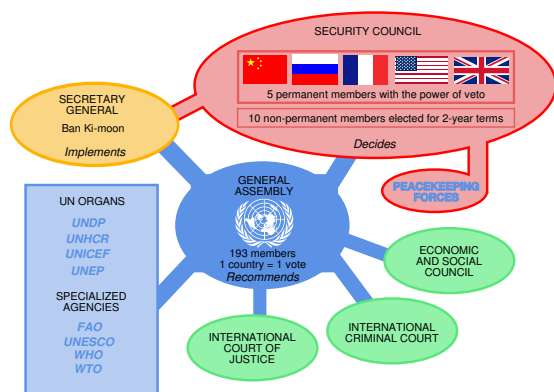
There are a variety of legal types of organisations, including corporations, governments, non-governmental organizations, international organizations, armed forces, charities, not-for-profit corporations, partnerships, cooperatives, universities, and various types of political organizations. A hybrid organization is a body that operates in both the public sector and the private sector simultaneously, fulfilling public duties and developing commercial market activities. A voluntary association is an organization consisting of volunteers. Such organizations may be able to operate without legal formalities, depending on jurisdiction, including informal clubs. Organizations may also operate in secret and/or illegally in the case of secret societies, criminal organizations and resistance movements.

### 26.2 Structures

Main article: Organizational structure

The study of organizations includes a focus on optimizing organizational structure. According to management science, most human organizations fall roughly into four types:

- Committees or juries
- Ecologies
- Matrix organizations
- Pyramids or hierarchies



Structure of the United Nations.

ences) is an entity, such as an institution or an association, that has a collective goal and is linked to an external environment. The word is derived from the Greek word *organon*, itself derived from the better-known word *ergon* which means “organ”.

#### 26.2.1 Committees or juries

These consist of a group of peers who decide as a group, perhaps by voting. The difference between a jury and a committee is that the members of the committee are usually assigned to perform or lead further actions after the

group comes to a decision, whereas members of a jury come to a decision. In common law countries, legal juries render decisions of guilt, liability and quantify damages; juries are also used in athletic contests, book awards and similar activities. Sometimes a selection committee functions like a jury. In the Middle Ages, juries in continental Europe were used to determine the law according to consensus amongst local notables.

Committees are often the most reliable way to make decisions. Condorcet's jury theorem proved that if the average member votes better than a roll of dice, then adding more members increases the number of majorities that can come to a correct vote (however correctness is defined). The problem is that if the average member is subsequently worse than a roll of dice, the committee's decisions grow worse, not better; therefore, staffing is crucial.

Parliamentary procedure, such as Robert's Rules of Order, helps prevent committees from engaging in lengthy discussions without reaching decisions.

### 26.2.2 Ecologies

This organization has intense competition. Bad parts of the organization starve. Good ones get more work. Everybody is paid for what they actually do, and runs a tiny business that has to show a profit, or they are fired.

Companies who utilize this organization type reflect a rather one-sided view of what goes on in ecology. It is also the case that a natural ecosystem has a natural border - ecoregions do not in general compete with one another in any way, but are very autonomous.

The pharmaceutical company GlaxoSmithKline talks about functioning as this type of organization in this external article from *The Guardian*. By: Bastian Batac De Leon

### 26.2.3 Matrix organization

See also: Matrix management

This organizational type assigns each worker two bosses in two different hierarchies. One hierarchy is "functional" and assures that each type of expert in the organization is well-trained, and measured by a boss who is super-expert in the same field. The other direction is "executive" and tries to get projects completed using the experts. Projects might be organized by products, regions, customer types, or some other schema.

As an example, a company might have an individual with overall responsibility for products X and Y, and another individual with overall responsibility for engineering, quality control, etc. Therefore, subordinates responsible for quality control of project X will have two reporting lines.

### 26.2.4 Pyramids or hierarchical

A hierarchy exemplifies an arrangement with a leader who leads other individual members of the organization. This arrangement is often associated with bureaucracy.

These structures are formed on the basis that there are enough people under the leader to give him support. Just as one would imagine a real pyramid, if there are not enough stone blocks to hold up the higher ones, gravity would irrevocably bring down the monumental structure. So one can imagine that if the leader does not have the support of his subordinates, the entire structure will collapse. Hierarchies were satirized in *The Peter Principle* (1969), a book that introduced *hierarchiology* and the saying that "in a hierarchy every employee tends to rise to his level of incompetence."

## 26.3 Theories

See also: Organizational theory

In the social sciences, organizations are the object of analysis for a number of disciplines, such as sociology, economics,<sup>[1]</sup> political science, psychology, management, and organizational communication. The broader analysis of organizations is commonly referred to as organizational structure, organizational studies, organizational behavior, or organization analysis. A number of different perspectives exist, some of which are compatible:

- From a functional perspective, the focus is on how entities like businesses or state authorities are used.
- From an institutional perspective, an organization is viewed as a purposeful structure within a social context.
- From a process-related perspective, an organization is viewed as an entity is being (re-)organized, and the focus is on the organization as a set of tasks or actions.

Sociology can be defined as the science of the institutions of modernity; specific institutions serve a function, akin to the individual organs of a coherent body. In the social and political sciences in general, an "organization" may be more loosely understood as the planned, coordinated and purposeful action of human beings working through collective action to reach a common goal or construct a tangible product. This action is usually framed by formal membership and form (institutional rules). Sociology distinguishes the term organization into planned formal and unplanned informal (i.e. spontaneously formed) organizations. Sociology analyzes organizations in the first line from an institutional perspective. In this sense, organization is a permanent arrangement of elements. These

elements and their actions are determined by rules so that a certain task can be fulfilled through a system of coordinated **division of labor**.

Economic approaches to organizations also take the **division of labor** as a starting point. The division of labor allows for (economies of) **specialization**. Increasing specialization necessitates coordination. From an economic point of view, markets and organizations are alternative coordination mechanisms for the execution of transactions.<sup>[1]</sup>

An organization is defined by the elements that are part of it (who belongs to the organization and who does not?), its **communication** (which elements communicate and how do they communicate?), its **autonomy** (which changes are executed autonomously by the organization or its elements?), and its **rules of action** compared to outside events (what causes an organization to act as a collective actor?).

By coordinated and planned cooperation of the elements, the organization is able to solve tasks that lie beyond the abilities of the single elements. The price paid by the elements is the limitation of the **degrees of freedom** of the elements. Advantages of organizations are enhancement (more of the same), addition (combination of different features) and extension. Disadvantages can be inertness (through co-ordination) and loss of **interaction**.

Among the theories that are or have been influential are:

- **Activity theory** is the major theoretical influence, acknowledged by de **Clodomir Santos de Moraes** in the development of **Organization Workshop** method.
- **Actor–network theory**, an approach to social theory and research, originating in the field of science studies, which treats objects as part of social networks
- **Complexity theory and organizations**, the use of complexity theory in the field of strategic management and organizational studies
- **Contingency theory**, a class of behavioral theory that claims that there is no best way to organize a corporation, to lead a company, or to make decisions
- **Critical management studies**, a loose but extensive grouping of theoretically informed critiques of management, business, and organization, grounded originally in a **critical theory** perspective
- **Economic sociology**, studies both the social effects and the social causes of various economic phenomena
- **Enterprise architecture**, the conceptual model that defines the coalescence of organizational structure and organizational behavior

- **Garbage Can Model**, describes a model which disconnects problems, solutions and decision makers from each other
- **Principal–agent problem**, concerns the difficulties in motivating one party (the “agent”), to act in the best interests of another (the “principal”) rather than in his or her own interests
- **Scientific management** (mainly following **Frederick W. Taylor**), a theory of management that analyzes and synthesizes workflows
- **Social entrepreneurship**, the process of pursuing innovative solutions to social problems
- **Transaction cost theory**, the idea that people begin to organise their production in firms when the transaction cost of coordinating production through the market exchange, given imperfect information, is greater than within the firm
- **Weber’s Ideal of Bureaucracy** (refer to **Max Weber**’s chapter on “Bureaucracy” in his book *Economy and Society*)

## 26.4 Leadership

Main article: [Leadership](#)

A **leader** in a formal, hierarchical organization, who is appointed to a managerial position, has the right to command and enforce obedience by virtue of the authority of his position. However, he must possess adequate personal attributes to match his authority, because authority is only potentially available to him. In the absence of sufficient personal competence, a manager may be confronted by an emergent leader who can challenge his role in the organization and reduce it to that of a figurehead. However, only authority of position has the backing of formal sanctions. It follows that whoever wields personal influence and power can legitimize this only by gaining a formal position in the hierarchy, with commensurate authority.<sup>[2]</sup>

### 26.4.1 In formal organizations

An organization that is established as a means for achieving defined objectives has been referred to as a **formal organization**. Its design specifies how goals are subdivided and reflected in subdivisions of the organization. Divisions, departments, sections, positions, jobs, and tasks make up this work structure. Thus, the formal organization is expected to behave impersonally in regard to relationships with clients or with its members. According to Weber’s definition, entry and subsequent advancement is by merit or seniority. Each employee receives a salary and

enjoys a degree of tenure that safeguards him from the arbitrary influence of superiors or of powerful clients. The higher his position in the hierarchy, the greater his presumed expertise in adjudicating problems that may arise in the course of the work carried out at lower levels of the organization. It is this bureaucratic structure that forms the basis for the appointment of heads or chiefs of administrative subdivisions in the organization and endows them with the authority attached to their position.<sup>[3]</sup>

### 26.4.2 In informal organizations

In contrast to the appointed head or chief of an administrative unit, a leader emerges within the context of the **informal organization** that underlies the formal structure. The informal organization expresses the personal objectives and goals of the individual membership. Their objectives and goals may or may not coincide with those of the formal organization. The informal organization represents an extension of the social structures that generally characterize human life – the spontaneous emergence of groups and organizations as ends in themselves.<sup>[3]</sup>

In prehistoric times, man was preoccupied with his personal security, maintenance, protection, and survival. Now man spends a major portion of his waking hours working for organizations. His need to identify with a community that provides security, protection, maintenance, and a feeling of belonging continues unchanged from prehistoric times. This need is met by the informal organization and its emergent, or unofficial, leaders.<sup>[2]</sup>

Leaders emerge from within the structure of the informal organization. Their personal qualities, the demands of the situation, or a combination of these and other factors attract followers who accept their leadership within one or several overlay structures. Instead of the authority of position held by an appointed head or chief, the emergent leader wields influence or power. Influence is the ability of a person to gain cooperation from others by means of persuasion or control over rewards. Power is a stronger form of influence because it reflects a person's ability to enforce action through the control of a means of punishment.<sup>[2]</sup>

## 26.5 See also

- Affinity group
- Business organization
- Coalition
- Collective
- List of designated terrorist organizations
- List of environmental organizations
- List of general fraternities

- List of international professional associations
- List of trade unions
- Multidimensional organization
- Mutual organization
- Organizational psychology
- Organization Workshop
- Pacifist organization
- Requisite organization
- Service club
- Size of groups, organizations, and communities
- Umbrella organization
- Voluntary association

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## 26.7 External links

- [Research on Organizations: Bibliography Database and Maps](#)
- [TheTransitioner.org](#): a site dedicated to collective intelligence and structure of organizations

## Chapter 27

# Organisation climate

**Organizational climate** (sometimes known as Corporate Climate) is the process of quantifying the “culture” of an organization, it precedes the notion of organizational culture. It is a set of properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the employees, that is assumed to be a major force in influencing employee behavior.<sup>[1]</sup>

Climate and culture are both important aspects of the overall context, environment or situation.

### 27.1 Organizational culture

Organizational culture tends to be shared by all or most members of some social group; is something that older members usually try to pass on to younger members; shapes behavior and structures perceptions of the world. Cultures are often studied and understood at a national level, such as the American or French culture. Culture includes deeply held values, beliefs and assumptions, symbols, heroes, and rituals. Culture can be examined at an organizational level as well. The main distinction between organizational and national culture is that people can choose to join a place of work, but are usually born into a national culture.

Organizational climate, on the other hand, is often defined as the recurring patterns of behavior, attitudes and feelings that characterize life in the organization,<sup>[2]</sup> while an organization culture tends to be deep and stable. Although culture and climate are related, climate often proves easier to assess and change. At an individual level of analysis the concept is called individual psychological climate. These individual perceptions are often aggregated or collected for analysis and understanding at the team or group level, or the divisional, functional, or overall organizational level.

### 27.2 Approaches

There are two difficulties in defining organization climate: how to define climate, and how to measure it effectively on different levels of analysis. Furthermore, there are several

approaches to the concept of climate. Two in particular have received substantial patronage: the cognitive schema approach and the shared perception approach.

The cognitive schema approach regards the concept of climate as an individual perception and cognitive representation of the work environment. From this perspective climate assessments should be conducted at an individual level.

The shared perception approach emphasizes the importance of shared perceptions as underpinning the notion of climate.<sup>[3]</sup> Organisational climate has also been defined as “the shared perception of the way things are around here”.<sup>[4]</sup> There is great deal of overlap in the two approaches..

### 27.3 Cognitive schema approach

Cognitive representations of social objects are referred to as schemas. These schemas are a mental structure that represents some aspect of the world. They are organized in memory in an associative network. In these associative networks, similar schemas are clustered together. When a particular schema is activated related schemas may be activated as well. Schema activation may also increase the accessibility of related schemas in the associative network. When a schema is more accessible this means it can more quickly be activated and used in a particular situation. When related schemas are activated, inferences beyond the information given in a particular social situation may influence thinking and social behavior, regardless of whether those inferences are accurate or not. Lastly, when a schema is activated a person may or may not be aware of it.

Two processes that increase the accessibility of schemas are salience and priming. Salience is the degree to which a particular social object stands out relative to other social objects in a situation. The higher the salience of an object the more likely that schemas for that object will be made accessible. For example, if there is one female in a group of seven males, female gender schemas may be more accessible and influence the group’s thinking and behavior toward the female group member. Priming refers to any

experiences immediately prior to a situation that caused a schema to be more accessible.

## 27.4 Shared perception approach

Some researchers have pursued the shared perception model of organizational climate. Their model identifies the variables which moderate an organisation's ability to mobilise its workforce in order to achieve business goals and maximise performance.<sup>[5]</sup>

One of the major users of this model are departments of the Queensland State Government Australia. These departments use this model of climate to survey staff in order to identify and measure those aspects of a workplace which impact on: stress, morale, quality of worklife, well-being, employee engagement, absenteeism/presenteeism, turnover and performance.

While an organisation and its leaders cannot remove every stressor in the daily life of its employees, Organisational Climate studies have identified a number of behaviours of leaders which have a significant impact on stress and morale. For instance, one Queensland state government employer, Queensland Transport, has found that increasing managers' awareness of these behaviours has improved quality of work life employees and the ability of QT's to deliver its organisational goals.

## 27.5 Climate surveys

Theories of Cognitive and Neuropsychology and Emotional Intelligence provide additional scientific rationale for why leaders should improve stress and morale in the workplace to achieve maximum performance. Climate surveys can provide concrete evidence of how this works in action.

Organisational climate surveying enables the impact of Human Resource (HR) strategies to be evaluated to create HR Return on Investment (HRROI) calculations. This data has been found to be highly effective in changing the perspective of people-based initiatives as being an "investment" rather than a "cost" and transforming HR into a "mission-critical strategic partner" from its perception of "personnel administration".

A number of studies by Dr Dennis Rose and colleagues between 2001-2004 have found a very strong link between Organisational Climate and employee reactions such as stress levels, absenteeism and commitment and participation.<sup>[6][7][8][9]</sup>

A study has found that Hart, Griffin et al.'s (1996) Organisational Climate model accounts for at least 16% single-day sick leave and 10% separation rates in one organisation.<sup>[10][11]</sup> Other studies support the links between organizational climate and many other factors

such as employee retention, job satisfaction, well-being, and readiness for creativity, innovation and change. Hunter, Bedell and Mumford have reviewed numerous approaches to climate assessment for creativity. They found that those climate studies that were based on well-developed, standardized instruments produced far higher effect sizes than did studies that were based on locally developed measures.<sup>[12]</sup>

## 27.6 See also

- Group dynamics
- Job performance
- Happiness at work
- Organizational culture
- Organizational studies
- Organization development
- Person-environment fit
- Adaptive performance

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## Chapter 28

# Organizational citizenship behavior

**Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)** has been studied since the late 1970s. Over the past three decades, interest in these behaviors has increased substantially. Organizational behavior has been linked to overall organizational effectiveness, thus these types of employee behaviors have important consequences in the workplace.

### 28.1 Definition and origin of the construct

Dennis Organ is generally considered the father of OCB. Organ expanded upon Katz's (1964) original work. Organ (1988) defines OCB as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4). Organ's definition of OCB includes three critical aspects that are central to this construct. First, OCBs are thought of as discretionary behaviors, which are not part of the job description, and are performed by the employee as a result of personal choice. Second, OCBs go above and beyond that which is an enforceable requirement of the job description. Finally, OCBs contribute positively to overall organizational effectiveness.

Organ's (1988) definition of OCB has generated a great deal of criticism. The very nature of the construct makes it difficult to operationally define. Critics started questioning whether or not OCBs, as defined by Organ, were discretionary in nature. Organ (1997), in response to criticisms, notes that since his original definition, jobs have moved away from a clearly defined set of tasks and responsibilities and have evolved into much more ambiguous roles. Without a defined role, it quickly becomes difficult to define what is discretionary.

### 28.2 Similar constructs

#### 28.2.1 Contextual performance

OCB has often been compared to **contextual performance**. Similarly to OCB, this concept emerged in re-

sponse to the realization that only looking at job specific work behaviors ignored a significant portion of the job domain. Originally, experts in this field focused only on activities that directly supported the output of the organization. As the job market became more aggressive, it became necessary for employees to go above and beyond that which is formally required by the job description in order to remain competitive. **Contextual performance** is defined as non-task related work behaviors and activities that contribute to the social and psychological aspects of the organization (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

**Contextual performance** consists of four dimensions: persistence of enthusiasm, assistance to others, rule and proscribed procedure following, and openly defending the organizations objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). OCB and **contextual performance** share their defining attributes as they both consist of behaviors other than those needed to perform the routine functions of the job. Both also require that these behaviors contribute to the overall success of the organization. Additionally, they also agree on the theme that these behaviors are discretionary and each employee chooses the amount and degree to which they will perform them. However, while **contextual performance** and OCB share a good part of their content domain, there are some important differences between the two constructs. One of the main requirements of OCBs is that they are not formally rewarded, which is not the case for **contextual performance**. Organ (1997) contends that OCBs may at some point encourage some sort of reward, but that these rewards would be indirect and uncertain. Also, **contextual performance** does not require that the behavior be **extra-role**, only that it be non-task. The differences between **contextual performance** and OCB are slight and easy to miss, however, they do exist.

#### 28.2.2 Prosocial organizational behavior

OCB has also been compared to prosocial organizational behavior (POB). POB is defined as behavior within an organization that is aimed at improving the welfare of another person (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). The important distinction here is that this type of behavior, unlike OCB, can be unrelated to the organization. Thus, someone ex-

hibiting prosocial behavior could be helping a coworker with personal matter.

### 28.2.3 Extra-role behavior

Extra-role behavior (ERB), first defined by Van Dyne, Cummings and Mclean-Parks (1995, as cited in Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006), is another construct similar to OCB. ERB is defined as “behavior that attempts to benefit the organization and that goes beyond existing role expectations” (Organ et al., 2006, p. 33). While similar in many aspects, there do exist some important differences between OCB and ERB. Two interesting concepts are a part of ERB that are not included in OCB: *whistle blowing* and *principled organizational dissent*. *Whistle blowing* involves the reporting of one employee by another so that unethical and or illegal practices are brought to the attention of authorities (Near & Miceli, 1987, as cited in Organ et al., 2006). *Principled organizational dissent* is when employees protest the organization because of some kind of injustice (Graham, 1986, as cited in Organ et al., 2006). Both of these ideas contribute to ERB in the sense that their purpose is to further the good of the organization and that they are not included in the formal job description. This again, is a construct very similar to OCB.

## 28.3 Multidimensionality

The construct of OCB, from its conception, has been considered multidimensional. Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) first proposed two dimensions: altruism and general compliance. These two dimensions serve to improve organizational effectiveness in different ways. Altruism in the workplace consists essentially of helping behaviors. These behaviors can both be directed within or outside of the organization. There is no direct link, or one-to-one relationship, between every instance of helping behavior and a specific gain for the organization. The idea is that over time, the compilation of employees helping behavior will eventually be advantageous for the organization (Organ et al., 2006).

General compliance behavior serves to benefit the organization in several ways. Low rates of *absenteeism* and rule following help to keep the organization running efficiently. A compliant employee does not engage in behaviors such as taking excessive breaks or using work time for personal matters. When these types of behaviors are minimized the workforce is naturally more productive.

Later, Organ (1988) deconstructed the dimension of general compliance and added additional dimensions of OCB. This deconstruction resulted in a five-factor model consisting of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The definition of altruism remained much as it was, defined by discretionary behav-

iors that have the effect of helping a specific work colleague with an organizationally relevant task or problem. *Conscientiousness* consists of behaviors that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization (Law, Wong, & Chen, 2005). These behaviors indicate that employees accept and adhere to the rules, regulations, and procedures of the organization.

Civic virtue is characterized by behaviors that indicate the employee’s deep concerns and active interest in the life of the organization (Law et al., 2005). This dimension also encompasses positive involvement in the concerns of the organization (Organ et al., 2006). Examples of civic virtue can be seen in daily affairs such as attending meetings and keeping up with what is going on with the organization in general. Civic virtue can also be demonstrated on a larger scale by defending the organization’s policies and practices when they are challenged by an outside source.

Courtesy has been defined as discretionary behaviors that aim at preventing work-related conflicts with others (Law et al., 2005). This dimension is a form of helping behavior, but one that works to prevent problems from arising. It also includes the word’s literal definition of being polite and considerate of others (Organ et al., 2006). Examples of courteous behaviors are asking fellow employees if they would like a cup of coffee while you are getting one for yourself, making extra copies of the meeting agenda for your teammates, and giving a colleague ample notice when you alter something that will affect them.

Finally, sportsmanship has been defined as a willingness on the part of the employee that signifies the employee’s tolerance of less-than-ideal organizational circumstances without complaining and blowing problems out of proportion. Organ et al. (2006) further define sportsmanship as an employee’s “ability to roll with the punches” even if they do not like or agree with the changes that are occurring within the organization. By reducing the amount of complaints from employees that administrators have to deal with, sportsmanship conserves time and energy.

It has been proven empirically that the factors listed above are the most robust and distinct factors in assessing OCB. However, in a meta-analysis of the OCB literature, LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002) found that these five dimensions are very highly correlated and do not have much differentiation among *antecedents*, indicating some overlap in the dimensions.

## 28.4 Behaviors directed at the individual and the organization

A different way of organizing the OCB construct was proposed by Williams and Anderson (1991). They divided up the dimensions of OCB into two different types of OCB based on whom the behaviors were directed at.

Organizational citizenship behavior – individuals (OCBI) include behaviors that are aimed at other individuals in the workplace while organizational citizenship behavior-organizational (OCBO) include behaviors directed at the organization as a whole. Altruism and courtesy are actions aimed at other employees and thus fall under the umbrella of OCBI. *Conscientiousness*, civic virtue, and sportsmanship are behaviors intended for the benefit of the organization and can subsequently be considered OCBOs.

## 28.5 Gender differences

Research on gender-role stereotypes has gone on for decades. It is widely accepted that certain behaviors are considered more feminine and certain behaviors are considered more masculine. Feminine behaviors have been characterized as interpersonal in orientation and focused on a concern for others. Masculine behaviors, on the other hand, are typically more aggressive and independent (Spence & Helmreich, 1980). In line with these ideas, the OCB dimensions of altruism, courtesy, civic virtue and sportsmanship can be divided by gender role. Altruism and courtesy, previously mentioned as OCBI, are considered in-role behavior for women, while civic virtue and sportsmanship, previously mentioned as OCBOs, are regarded as more in-role for men. The dimension of *conscientiousness*, which includes attention to detail and adherence to organizational rules, is excluded, as this dimension does not seem to adhere to any particular gender norm (Kidder & Parks, 2001).

## 28.6 Counterproductive work behavior

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) is defined as “intentional employee behavior that is harmful to the legitimate interests of an organization” (Dalal, 2005). When considering the definitions of OCB and CWB, it seems logical to assume that these constructs are opposites; one harms the organization and the other helps. Individuals might further assume that by engaging in one of these types of behaviors, an individual will not tend to engage in the other. However, a recent meta-analysis, Dalal (2005), found that this is not the case. The results of this analysis indicate that these constructs only shared a little to moderate negative correlation and furthermore showed differences in magnitude and pattern of relationships between various antecedents and the two constructs. These results indicate that CWB and OCB are two separate constructs and should be conceptualized as thus.

## 28.7 Antecedents

Early research regarding the antecedents of OCB focused on employee attitudes, dispositions, and leader supportiveness. More recently, many different variables have been examined in the effort to determine the antecedents of OCB. Commonly studied antecedents of OCB are job satisfaction, perceptions of organizational justice, organizational commitment, personality characteristics, task characteristics, and leadership behavior. These antecedents have been analyzed at both the overall and individual OCB levels.

One of the most intuitive antecedents of OCB is job satisfaction. Organ and Ryan (1995) conducted a meta-analysis of 28 studies and found a modest relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. This relationship was stronger than the relationship between job satisfaction and in-role performance. Other attitudinal measures, perceived fairness, organizational commitment, and leader supportiveness are found to correlate with OCB at about the same rate as satisfaction (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

In terms of personality characteristics, *conscientiousness*, *agreeableness*, and *positive and negative affectivity* garner the most support as antecedents of OCB (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). *Conscientiousness*, in particular, has been found to have a strong relationship with the general compliance component of OCB (Organ et al., 2006). However, it has also been reported that personality measures are weaker predictors of OCB when compared to attitudinal predictors (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Task characteristics such as feedback, routinization, and intrinsic satisfaction are found to be significantly related to altruism, courtesy, *conscientiousness*, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Positive relationships were found between both task feedback and intrinsic satisfaction and OCB, while a negative relationship was found between task routinization and OCB. Even though task characteristics have been found to predict OCB, some debate exists as to whether this is a direct effect or a relationship mediated by job satisfaction (Todd & Kent, 2006).

Leadership behaviors have also been found to be an important predictor of OCB. These behaviors fall into four categories: *transformational leadership* behavior, *transactional leadership* behavior, behaviors having to do with the *path-goal theory of leadership*, and behaviors having to do with the *leader-member exchange theory*. *Transformational leadership* behaviors, including articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, and intellectual stimulation, have significant positive relationships with Organ's dimensions of OCB. Two types of behaviors representative of *transactional leadership style*, contingent reward behavior and non-contingent punishment behavior, have significant relationships with Organ's dimensions of OCB. Additionally,

both the supportive leadership and leader role clarification aspects of the *path-goal theory* of leadership are positively related to OCB. Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that *leader-member exchange* was positively related to altruism and an overall composite measure of OCB.

## 28.8 Consequences

During the early 1990s, scholars gained real momentum in the area of OCB with regard to empirical research. Empirical research regarding the consequences of OCBs has focused on two main areas: organizational performance and success and managerial evaluations of performance and reward allocation.

### 28.8.1 Organizational performance and success

Multiple studies and *meta-analyses* have been conducted to look at the relationship between OCBs and organizational performance and success. Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994, as cited in Organ et al., 2006) looked at an insurance agency and found that the OCBs civic virtue and sportsmanship were both significantly related to indices of sales performance. Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie (1997, as cited in Organ et al., 2006) examined paper mill workers and found that helping behavior was significantly related to product quality. MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearne (1996, as cited in Organ et al., 2006) found that civic virtue and helping behavior were significantly related to the percent of team quota sales. Walz and Niehoff (2000, as cited in Organ et al., 2006) examined 30 different restaurants and found that helping behavior was significantly related to operating efficiency, customer satisfaction, and quality of performance. Researchers found that helping behavior was also negatively correlated with wasted food. Koys (2001, as cited in Organ et al., 2006) used a combination of OCB dimensions to form a composite measure of OCB. Results from this study indicated that the composite measure of OCB was positively correlated with restaurant profits.

More recently, Podsakoff, Blume, Whiting, and Podsakoff (2009) found that OCBs were positively related to unit-level performance and customer satisfaction. Nielsen, Hrivnak, and Shaw (2009), in their *meta-analytic* review of the existing group literature, examined the relationship between OCBs and performance at the group level. These researchers found a positive and significant relationship between overall OCB and performance at the group level. In addition, Nielsen et al. (2009) found that similar patterns of relationships existed for each dimension of OCB: civic virtue, sportsmanship, altruism, conscientiousness, and courtesy.

### 28.8.2 Managerial evaluations and reward allocations

With regard to the relationship between OCBs and managerial evaluations, Podsakoff and colleagues (2000) found, in a summary of empirical evidence, that OCBs uniquely accounted for 42.9% of the variance in managerial performance evaluations. Results from this study also indicated that altruism or helping was significantly related to performance evaluations in eight out of the ten studies it was included in; sportsmanship was significantly related to performance evaluations in five out of the eight studies it was included in; conscientiousness was significantly related to performance evaluations in all three of the studies it was included in; and civic virtue was significantly related to performance evaluations in six out of the eight studies it was included in.

More recently, Podsakoff et al. (2009) found that OCBs have a positive relationship with performance ratings and reward allocations. Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Mishra (2010) examined the effects of job candidates' tendency to exhibit OCBs on selection decisions made in the context of a job interview. These researchers found that candidates whose interview responses indicated a tendency to engage in helping others, challenge the status quo by voicing their opinions, and support and defend an organization were generally viewed as more competent, received higher overall evaluations, and received higher recommended starting salaries than those who did not.

Research has also looked at the relationship between task-performance, *CWB*, and OCB with overall managerial evaluations. Interestingly, when compared with task-performance and *CWB*, OCB is found to contribute least to overall managerial evaluations (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). This somewhat inconsistent pattern of results across the OCB literature with regard to antecedents exemplifies the need for more research in this area.

## 28.9 Measures

Researchers have developed a variety of measures for OCB. However before being able to measure a construct it must be defined. As discussed earlier, this is not a cut and dry task. Thus, the conceptual definitions of OCB used by researchers differ from study to study.

Bateman and Organ's (1983) study was one of the first to tackle the measurement of OCB. Their definition of OCB "includes any of those gestures (often taken for granted) that lubricate the social machinery of the organization but that do not directly inhere in the usual notion of task performance" (Bateman & Organ, 1983, p. 588). Based on this definition, they constructed a 30-item OCB scale that measured cooperation, altruism, compliance, punctuality, housecleaning, protecting company property, conscientiously following company rules, and dependability.

The scale asked each participant to rate their agreement or disagreement with each of the 30 items using a 7-point scale that ranged from negative 3 to positive 3.

Another important early study was Smith et al. (1983), which took a slightly more complicated measurement approach by developing a scale in stages. In order to develop their 16-item scale, these researchers interviewed managers in manufacturing organizations and asked them to “identify instances of helpful, but not absolutely required behavior” (Smith et al., 1983, p. 656). The researchers created a 20-item scale based on the interviews in addition to the scale items used in the Bateman and Organ (1983) study mentioned previously. The third step involved administering the scale to a group of 67 students who had managerial experience. The students were asked to complete the scale while thinking of someone who currently, or had in the past, worked for them. Students then described the person’s work behavior and their responses to the scale items. After factor analysis, four items were dropped resulting in the 16-item scale. It is with this scale that the authors found results indicating the first two distinct dimensions of OCB: altruism and generalized compliance. Examples of items in Smith et al.’s (1983) scale include:

- Helps others who have been absent.
- Gives advance notice if unable to come to work.
- Assists supervisor with his or her work.
- Attend functions not required but that help company image.

In 1990, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter conducted an important study using the five dimensions of OCB: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. These researchers developed a 24-item scale by having 10 of their colleagues sort each of the 24 items into one of the five OCB dimensions or an “other” category if they felt the item did not fit any of the five defined conceptual dimensions. Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement using a 7-point scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” This five-factor structure has served as the building block for a substantial amount of OCB research. Examples of items in Podsakoff et al.’s (1990) scale include:

- Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.
- Attends meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.
- Mindful of how his/her behavior affects other people’s jobs.
- Willingly helps others who have work related problems.

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## Chapter 29

# Organizational commitment

For general motivation, see *Motivation*.

In organizational behavior and industrial and organizational psychology, **organizational commitment** is the individual's psychological attachment to the organization. The basis behind many of these studies was to find ways to improve how workers feel about their jobs so that these workers would become more committed to their organizations. Organizational commitment predicts work variables such as turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, and job performance. Some of the factors such as role stress, empowerment, job insecurity and employability, and distribution of leadership have been shown to be connected to a worker's sense of organizational commitment.

Organizational commitment can be contrasted with other work-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction, defined as an employee's feelings about their job, and organizational identification, defined as the degree to which an employee experiences a 'sense of oneness' with their organization.

Organizational scientists have also developed many nuanced definitions of organizational commitment, and numerous scales to measure them. Exemplary of this work is Meyer and Allen's model of commitment, which was developed to integrate numerous definitions of commitment that had been proliferated in the literature. Meyer and Allen's model has also been critiqued because the model is not consistent with empirical findings. There has also been debate surrounding what Meyers and Allen's model was trying to achieve.

### 29.1 Model of commitment

Meyer and Allen's (2007) three-component model of commitment was created to argue that commitment has three different components that correspond with different psychological states. Meyer and Allen created this model for two reasons: first "aid in the interpretation of existing research" and second "to serve as a framework for future research."<sup>[1]</sup> Their study was based mainly around previous studies of organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen's research indicated that there are three "mind sets" which can characterize an employee's com-

mitment to the organization:

**Affective Commitment** AC is defined as the employee's positive emotional attachment to the organization. Meyer and Allen pegged AC as the "desire" component of organizational commitment. An employee who is affectively committed strongly identifies with the goals of the organization and desires to remain a part of the organization. This employee commits to the organization because he/she "wants to". This commitment can be influenced by many different demographic characteristics: age, tenure, sex, and education but these influences are neither strong nor consistent. The problem with these characteristics is that while they can be seen, they cannot be clearly defined. Meyer and Allen gave this example that "positive relationships between tenure and commitment maybe due to tenure-related differences in job status and quality"<sup>[1]</sup> In developing this concept, Meyer and Allen drew largely on Mowday, Porter, and Steers's (2006)<sup>[2]</sup> concept of commitment, which in turn drew on earlier work by Kanter (1968)<sup>[3]</sup>

**Continuance Commitment** Continuance Commitment is the "need" component or the gains versus losses of working in an organization. "Side bets," or investments, are the gains and losses that may occur should an individual stay or leave an organization. An individual may commit to the organization because he/she perceives a high cost of losing organizational membership (cf. Becker's 1960 "side bet theory"<sup>[4]</sup> Things like economic costs (such as pension accruals) and social costs (friendship ties with co-workers) would be costs of losing organizational membership. But an individual doesn't see the positive costs as enough to stay with an organization they must also take into account the availability of alternatives (such as another organization), disrupt personal relationships, and other "side bets" that would be incurred from leaving their organization. The problem with this is that these "side bets" don't occur at once but that they "accumulate with age and tenure".<sup>[1]</sup>



**Normative Commitment** The individual commits to and remains with an organization because of feelings of obligation, the last component of organizational commitment. These feelings may derive from a strain on an individual before and after joining an organization. For example, the organization may have invested resources in training an employee who then feels a 'moral' obligation to put forth effort on the job and stay with the organization to 'repay the debt.' It may also reflect an internalized norm, developed before the person joins the organization through family or other socialization processes, that one should be loyal to one's organization. The employee stays with the organization because he/she "ought to". But generally if an individual invest a great deal they will receive "advanced rewards." Meyer and Allen based their research in this area more on theoretical evidence rather than empirical, which may explain the lack of depth in this section of their study compared to the others. They drew off Wiener's (2005)<sup>[5]</sup> research for this commitment component.

**Critique to the Three-Component Model** Since the model was made, there has been conceptual critique to what the model is trying to achieve. Specifically from three psychologists, Omar Solinger, Woody Olffen, and Robert Roe. To date, the three-component conceptual model has been regarded as the leading model for organizational commitment because it ties together three aspects of earlier commitment research (Becker, 2005; Buchanan, 2005; Kanter, 1968; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Salancik, 2004; Weiner, 2004; Weiner & Vardi, 2005). However, a collection of studies have shown that the model is not consistent with empirical findings. Solinger, Olffen, and Roe use a later model by Alice Eagly and Shelly Chaiken, Attitude-behavior Model (2004), to present that TCM combines different attitude phenomena. They have come to the conclusion that TCM is a model is for predicting turnover. In a sense the model describes why people should stay with the organization whether it is because they **want to, need to, or ought to**. The model appears to mix together an attitude toward a target, that being the organization, with an attitude toward a behavior, which is leaving or staying. They believe the studies should return to the original understanding of organizational commitment as an attitude toward the organization and measure it accordingly. Although the TCM is a good way to predict turnover, these psychologists do not believe it should be the general model. Because Eagly and Chaiken's model is so general, it seems that the TCM can be described as a specific subdivision of their model when looking at a general sense of organizational commitment. It becomes clear that

affective commitment equals an attitude toward a target, while continuance and normative commitment are representing different concepts referring to anticipated behavioral outcomes, specifically staying or leaving. This observation backs up their conclusion that organizational commitment is perceived by TCM as combining different target attitudes and behavioral attitudes, which they believe to be both confusing and logically incorrect. The attitude-behavior model can demonstrate explanations for something that would seem contradictory in the TCM. That is that affective commitment has stronger associations with relevant behavior and a wider range of behaviors, compared to normative and continuance commitment. Attitude toward a target (the organization) is obviously applicable to a wider range of behaviors than an attitude toward a specific behavior (staying). After their research, Sollinger, Olffen, and Roe believe Eagly and Chaiken's attitude-behavior model from 1993 would be a good alternative model to look at as a general organizational commitment predictor because of its approach at organizational commitment as a singular construct, which in turn would help predicting various behaviors beyond turnover.<sup>[6]</sup>

## 29.2 Job/Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is commonly defined as the extent to which employees like their work. Researchers have examined Job satisfaction for the past several decades. Studies have been devoted to figuring out the dimensions of job satisfaction, antecedents of job satisfaction, and the relationship between satisfaction and commitment. Satisfaction has also been examined under various demographics of gender, age, race, education, and work experience. Most research on job satisfaction has been aimed towards the person-environment fit paradigm. Job satisfaction has been found to be an important area of research because one of the top reasons individuals give for leaving a job is dissatisfaction.<sup>[7]</sup>

Much of the literature on the relationship between commitment and satisfaction with one's job indicates that if employees are satisfied they develop stronger commitment to their work. Kalleberg (1990) studied work attitudes of workers in the USA and Japan and found a correlation of 0.73 between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of workers in Japan and a higher significant correlation of 0.81 among Americans. A study conducted by Dirani and Kuchinke produced results indicating a strong correlation between job commitment and job satisfaction and that satisfaction was a reliable predictor of commitment.<sup>[7][8]</sup>

**Perceiving a "Calling"** A study at the University of

Florida found a positive correlation between the individual's perception of their career being a "calling" and the level of commitment to the job. This study looked at the relation between work commitment and participant's perception of meaning in their job. Participants were tested in the areas of; perceiving a calling, job satisfaction, and job commitment. Results showed a moderate correlation between participants perceiving a calling and job commitment and a weak correlation between perceiving a calling and job satisfaction.<sup>[9]</sup>

### 29.3 Other Factors that Impact Job Commitment

**Role Stress** Dysfunctions in role performance have been associated with a large number of consequences, almost always negative, which affect the well being of workers and functioning of organizations. An individual's experience of receiving incompatible or conflicting requests (role conflict) and/or the lack of enough information to carry out his/her job (role ambiguity) are causes of role stress. Role ambiguity and conflict decrease worker's performance and are positively related to the probability of the workers leaving the organization. Role conflict and ambiguity have been proposed as determining factors of workers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment.<sup>[10]</sup>

**Empowerment** Empowerment in the workplace has had several different definitions over the years. It has been considered 'energizing followers through leadership, enhancing self efficacy by reducing powerlessness and increasing intrinsic task motivation.' A psychological view of empowerment describes it as 'a process of intrinsic motivation, perceived control, competence, and energizing towards achieving goals.' There are two prominent concepts of empowerment. The first is Structural Empowerment which comes from the Organizational/Management Theory and is described as the ability to get things done and to mobilize resources. The second is Psychological Empowerment which comes from Social Psychological models and is described as psychological perceptions/attitudes of employees about their work and their organizational roles. A study done by Ahmad et al. found support for the relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction and job commitment. The study looked at nurses working in England and nurses working in Malaysia. Taking cultural context into consideration, the study still showed a positive correlation between empowerment and job satisfaction/commitment.<sup>[11]</sup>

**Job Insecurity and Employability** In a study conducted by De Cuyper research found that workers

who were on fixed-term contracts or considered "temporary workers" reported higher levels of job insecurity than permanent workers. Job insecurity was found to negatively correlate with job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment in permanent workers. The study also found that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were highly correlated with being a permanent worker.<sup>[12]</sup>

#### Distribution of Leadership

A study conducted by Hulpia et al. focused on the impact of the distribution of leadership and leadership support among teachers and how that affected job satisfaction and commitment. The study found that there was a strong relationship between organizational commitment and the cohesion of the leadership team and the amount of leadership support. Previously held beliefs about job satisfaction and commitment among teachers was that they were negatively correlated with absenteeism and turnover and positively correlated with job effort and job performance. This study examined how one leader (usually a principal) effected the job satisfaction and commitment of teachers. The study found that when leadership was distributed by the 'leader' out to the teachers as well workers reported higher job satisfaction and organizational commitment than when most of the leadership fell to one person. Even when it was only the perception of distributed leadership roles workers still reported high levels of job satisfaction/commitment.<sup>[13]</sup>

### 29.4 Shift to Organizational Change Commitment.

By the end of the 1990s, leaders did not find the value in understanding whether or not their people were more or less committed to the organization. It was particularly frustrating that leaders could see that people committed to the organization were not as committed to strategic change initiatives, the majority of which failed to live up to expectations. John Meyer responded to this gap by proposing a model of organizational change commitment.<sup>[14]</sup> The new model includes the same 3-components, but also includes a *behavioral commitment* scale: *resistance, passive resistance, compliance, cooperation, and championing*.<sup>[15]</sup> Though Meyer does not cite him, a peer reviewed source for behavioral commitment comes from Leon Coetsee in South Africa.<sup>[16]</sup> Coetsee brought the resistance-to-commitment model<sup>[17]</sup> of Harvard consultant Arnold Judson<sup>[18]</sup> to academic research and has continued developing the model as late as 2011.<sup>[19]</sup>

## 29.5 Guidelines to enhance organizational commitment.

Five rules help to enhance organizational commitment:<sup>[20]</sup>

**Commit to people-first values** Put it in writing, hire the right-kind managers, and walk the talk.

**Clarify and communicate your mission** Clarify the mission and ideology; make it charismatic; use value-based hiring practices; stress values-based orientation and training; build tradition.

**Guarantee organizational justice** Have a comprehensive grievance procedure; provide for extensive two-way communications.

**Community of practice** Build value-based homogeneity; share and share alike; emphasize barnraising, cross-utilization, and teamwork; getting people to work together.

**Support employee development** Commit to actualizing; provide first-year job challenge; enrich and empower; promote from within; provide developmental activities; provide employee security without guarantees.

## 29.6 See also

- Organizational Justice
- Onboarding
- High commitment management
- Job satisfaction
- Person-environment fit
- Stigma management

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## Chapter 30

# Organizational culture

**Organizational culture** is the behavior of humans within an organization and the meaning that people attach to those behaviors. Culture includes the organization's vision, values, norms, systems, symbols, language, assumptions, beliefs, and habits. It is also the pattern of such collective behaviors and assumptions that are taught to new organizational members as a way of perceiving, and even thinking and feeling. Organizational culture affects the way people and groups interact with each other, with clients, and with stakeholders.

Ravasi and Schultz (2006) stated that organizational culture is a set of shared mental assumptions that guide interpretation and action in organizations by defining appropriate behavior for various situations.<sup>[1]</sup> Although a company may have its "own unique culture", in larger organizations there are sometimes conflicting cultures that co-exist owing to the characteristics of different management teams. Organizational culture may affect employees' identification with an organization.<sup>[2]</sup>

Schein (1992), Deal and Kennedy (2000), and Kotter (1992) advanced the idea that organizations often have very differing cultures as well as subcultures.<sup>[3][4][5]</sup>

According to Needle (2004),<sup>[6]</sup> organizational culture represents the collective values, beliefs and principles of organizational members and is a product of such factors as history, product, market, technology, and strategy, type of employees, management style, and national culture. Corporate culture on the other hand refers to those cultures deliberately created by management to achieve specific strategic ends.

### 30.1 Usage

*Organizational culture* refers to culture in any type of organization including that of schools, universities, not-for-profit groups, government agencies, or business entities. In business, terms such as **corporate culture** and **company culture** are sometimes used to refer to a similar concept.

The term corporate culture became widely known in the business world in the late 1980s and early 1990s.<sup>[7][8]</sup> *Corporate culture* was already used by managers, sociolo-

gists, and organizational theorists by the beginning of the 80s.<sup>[9][10]</sup>

The related idea of **organizational climate** emerged in the 1960s and 70s, and the terms are now somewhat overlapping.<sup>[11][12]</sup>

### 30.2 Part of or equivalent to

#### 30.2.1 As a part of organization

When one views organizational culture as a variable, one takes on the perspective that culture is something possessed by an organization. Culture is just one entity that adds to the organization as a whole. Culture can be manipulated and altered depending on leadership and members. This perspective believes in a strong culture where everyone buys into it.<sup>[13]</sup>

#### 30.2.2 The same as the organization

Culture as root metaphor sees the organization as its culture, created through communication and symbols, or competing metaphors. Culture is basic with personal experience producing a variety of perspectives.<sup>[13]</sup>

The organizational communication perspective on culture views culture in three different ways:

- **Traditionalism:** views culture through objective things such as stories, rituals, and symbols
- **Interpretivism:** views culture through a network of shared meanings (organization members sharing subjective meanings)
- **Critical-interpretivism:** views culture through a network of shared meanings as well as the power struggles created by a similar network of competing

## 30.3 Types

Several methods have been used to classify organizational culture. While there is no single “type” of organizational culture and organizational cultures vary widely from one organization to the next, commonalities do exist and some researchers have developed models to describe different indicators of organizational cultures. Some are described below:

### 30.3.1 Hofstede

*Main: Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory*

Hofstede (1980) looked for differences between over 160 000 IBM employees in 50 different countries and three regions of the world, in an attempt to find aspects of culture that might influence business behavior. He suggested things about cultural differences existing in regions and nations, and the importance of international awareness and multiculturalism for the own cultural introspection. Cultural differences reflect differences in thinking and social action, and even in “mental programs”, a term Hofstede uses for predictable behaviour. Hofstede relates culture to ethnic and regional groups, but also organizations, profession, family, to society and subcultural groups, national political systems and legislation, etc.

Hofstede suggests the need for changing “mental programs” with changing behaviour first, which will lead to value change. Though certain groups like Jews, Gypsies and Basques have maintained their identity through centuries, their values show adaptation to the dominant cultural environment.

Hofstede demonstrated that there are national and regional cultural groupings that affect the behavior of organizations and identified four dimensions of culture (later five<sup>[14]</sup>) in his study of national cultures:

- *Power distance* (Mauk Mulder, 1977) - Different societies find different solutions on social inequality. Although invisible, inside organizations power inequality of the “boss-subordinates relationships” is functional and according to Hofstede reflects the way inequality is addressed in the society. “According to Mulder’s Power Distance Reduction theory subordinates will try to reduce the power distance between themselves and their bosses and bosses will try to maintain or enlarge it”, but there is also a degree to which a society expects there to be differences in the levels of power. A high score suggests that there is an expectation that some individuals wield larger amounts of power than others. A low score reflects the view that all people should have equal rights.
- *Uncertainty avoidance* is the coping with uncertainty about the future. Society copes with it with technology, law and religion (however different societies have different ways of addressing it), and according to Hofstede organizations deal with it with technology, law and rituals or in two ways - rational and non-rational, where rituals being the non-rational. Hofstede listed as rituals the memos and reports, some parts of the accounting system, large part of the planning and control systems, and the nomination of experts.
- *Individualism vs. collectivism* - disharmony of interests on personal and collective goals (Parsons and Shils, 1951). Hofstede brings that society’s expectations of **Individualism/Collectivism** will be reflected by the employee inside the organization. Collectivist societies will have more emotional dependence of members on their organizations, when in equilibrium - organization is expected to show responsibility on members. Extreme individualism is seen in the US, in fact in US collectivism is seen as “bad”. Other cultures and societies than the US will therefore seek to resolve social and organizational problems in ways different from the American one. Hofstede says that a capitalist market economy fosters individualism and **competition** and depends on it but individualism is also related to the development of **middle class**. Research indicates that some people and cultures might have both high individualism and high collectivism, for example, and someone who highly values duty to his or her group does not necessarily give a low priority to personal freedom and self-sufficiency.
- *Masculinity vs. femininity* - reflect whether certain society is predominantly male or female in terms of cultural values, **gender roles** and power relations.
- Long- Versus Short-Term Orientation <sup>[14]</sup> which he describes as “The long-term orientation dimension can be interpreted as dealing with society’s search for virtue. Societies with a short-term orientation generally have a strong concern with establishing the absolute Truth. They are normative in their thinking. They exhibit great respect for traditions, a relatively small propensity to save for the future, and a focus on achieving quick results. In societies with a long-term orientation, people believe that truth depends very much on situation, context and time. They show an ability to adapt traditions to changed conditions, a strong propensity to save and invest, thriftiness, and perseverance in achieving results.” <sup>[15]</sup>

These dimensions refer to the impact of national cultures on management, and can be used to adapt policies to local needs. In a follow up study, described in <sup>[14]</sup> another model is suggested for organisational culture.

### 30.3.2 O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell

Two common models and their associated measurement tools have been developed by O'Reilly *et al.* and Denison.

O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell (1991) developed a model based on the belief that cultures can be distinguished by values that are reinforced within organizations. Their Organizational Cultural Profile (OCP) is a self-reporting tool which makes distinctions according to seven categories - Innovation, Stability, Respect for People, Outcome Orientation, Attention to Detail, Team Orientation, and Aggressiveness. The model is also suited to measure how organizational culture affects organizational performance, as it measures most efficient persons suited in an organization and as such organizations can be termed as good organizational culture. Employee values are measured against organizational values to predict employee intentions to stay, and predict turnover.<sup>[16]</sup> This is done through instrument like Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) to measure employee commitment.<sup>[16]</sup>

Daniel Denison's model (1990) asserts that organizational culture can be described by four general dimensions - Mission, Adaptability, Involvement and Consistency. Each of these general dimensions is further described by the following three sub-dimensions:

- Mission - Strategic Direction and Intent, Goals and Objectives and Vision
- Adaptability - Creating Change, Customer Focus and Organizational Learning
- Involvement - Empowerment, Team Orientation and Capability Development
- Consistency - Core Values, Agreement, Coordination/Integration

Denison's model also allows cultures to be described broadly as externally or internally focused as well as flexible versus stable. The model has been typically used to diagnose cultural problems in organizations.

### 30.3.3 Deal and Kennedy

Deal and Kennedy (1982)<sup>[4]</sup> defined organizational culture as *the way things get done around here*.

Deal and Kennedy created a model of culture that is based on 4 different types of organizations. They each focus on how quickly the organization receives feedback, the way members are rewarded, and the level of risks taken.<sup>[17]</sup>

1. **Work-hard, play-hard culture:** This has rapid feedback/reward and low risk resulting in: Stress coming from quantity of work rather than uncertainty. High-speed action leading to high-speed recreation. Examples: Restaurants, software companies.<sup>[17]</sup>

2. **Tough-guy macho culture:** This has rapid feedback/reward and high risk, resulting in the following: Stress coming from high risk and potential loss/gain of reward. Focus on the present rather than the longer-term future. Examples: police, surgeons, sports.<sup>[17]</sup>
3. **Process culture:** This has slow feedback/reward and low risk, resulting in the following: Low stress, plodding work, comfort and security. Stress that comes from internal politics and stupidity of the system. Development of bureaucracies and other ways of maintaining the status quo. Focus on security of the past and of the future. Examples: banks, insurance companies.<sup>[4][17]</sup>
4. **Bet-the-company culture:** This has slow feedback/reward and high risk, resulting in the following: Stress coming from high risk and delay before knowing if actions have paid off. The long view is taken, but then much work is put into making sure things happen as planned. Examples: aircraft manufacturers, oil companies.

### 30.3.4 Edgar Schein

According to Schein (1992),<sup>[3]</sup> culture is the most difficult organizational attribute to change, outlasting organizational products, services, founders and leadership and all other physical attributes of the organization. His organizational model illuminates culture from the standpoint of the *observer*, described by three cognitive levels of organizational culture.

At the first and most cursory level of Schein's model is organizational attributes that can be seen, felt and heard by the uninitiated observer - collectively known as *artifacts*. Included are the facilities, offices, furnishings, visible awards and recognition, the way that its members dress, how each person visibly interacts with each other and with organizational outsiders, and even company slogans, mission statements and other operational creeds.

Artifacts comprise the physical components of the organization that relay cultural meaning. Daniel Denison (1990) describes artifacts as the tangible aspects of culture shared by members of an organization. Verbal, behavioral and physical artifacts are the surface manifestations of organizational culture.

Rituals, the collective interpersonal behavior and values as demonstrated by that behavior, constitute the fabric of an organization's culture. The contents of myths, stories, and sagas reveal the history of an organization and influence how people understand what their organization values and believes. Language, stories, and myths are examples of verbal artifacts and are represented in rituals and ceremonies. Technology and art exhibited by members or an organization are examples of physical artifacts.

The next level deals with the professed culture of an organization's members - the *values*. Shared values are individuals' preferences regarding certain aspects of the organization's culture (e.g. loyalty, customer service). At this level, local and personal values are widely expressed within the organization. Basic beliefs and assumptions include individuals' impressions about the trustworthiness and supportiveness of an organization, and are often deeply ingrained within the organization's culture. Organizational behavior at this level usually can be studied by interviewing the organization's membership and using questionnaires to gather attitudes about organizational membership.

At the third and deepest level, the organization's *tacit assumptions* are found. These are the elements of culture that are unseen and not cognitively identified in everyday interactions between organizational members. Additionally, these are the elements of culture which are often taboo to discuss inside the organization. Many of these 'unspoken rules' exist without the conscious knowledge of the membership. Those with sufficient experience to understand this deepest level of organizational culture usually become acclimatized to its attributes over time, thus reinforcing the invisibility of their existence. Surveys and casual interviews with organizational members cannot draw out these attributes—rather much more in-depth means is required to first identify then understand organizational culture at this level. Notably, culture at this level is the underlying and driving element often missed by organizational behaviorists.

Using Schein's model, understanding paradoxical organizational behaviors becomes more apparent. For instance, an organization can profess highly aesthetic and moral standards at the second level of Schein's model while simultaneously displaying curiously opposing behavior at the third and deepest level of culture. Superficially, organizational rewards can imply one organizational norm but at the deepest level imply something completely different. This insight offers an understanding of the difficulty that organizational newcomers have in assimilating organizational culture and why it takes time to become acclimatized. It also explains why organizational change agents usually fail to achieve their goals: underlying tacit cultural norms are generally not understood before would-be change agents begin their actions. Merely understanding culture at the deepest level may be insufficient to institute cultural change because the dynamics of interpersonal relationships (often under threatening conditions) are added to the dynamics of organizational culture while attempts are made to institute desired change.

### 30.3.5 Factors and elements

Gerry Johnson (1988) described a cultural web, identifying a number of elements that can be used to describe or influence organizational culture:

- **The paradigm:** What the organization is about, what it does, its mission, its values.
- **Control systems:** The processes in place to monitor what is going on. Role cultures would have vast rulebooks. There would be more reliance on individualism in a power culture.
- **Organizational structures:** Reporting lines, hierarchies, and the way that work flows through the business.
- **Power structures:** Who makes the decisions, how widely spread is power, and on what is power based?
- **Symbols:** These include organizational logos and designs, but also extend to symbols of power such as parking spaces and executive washrooms.
- **Rituals and routines:** Management meetings, board reports and so on may become more habitual than necessary.
- **Stories and myths:** build up about people and events, and convey a message about what is valued within the organization.

These elements may overlap. Power structures may depend on control systems, which may exploit the very rituals that generate stories which may not be true.

According to Schein (1992),<sup>[3]</sup> the two main reasons why cultures develop in organizations is due to external adaptation and internal integration. External adaptation reflects an evolutionary approach to organizational culture and suggests that cultures develop and persist because they help an organization to survive and flourish. If the culture is valuable, then it holds the potential for generating sustained competitive advantages. Additionally, internal integration is an important function since social structures are required for organizations to exist. Organizational practices are learned through socialization at the workplace. Work environments reinforce culture on a daily basis by encouraging employees to exercise cultural values. Organizational culture is shaped by multiple factors, including the following:

- External environment
- Industry
- Size and nature of the organization's workforce
- Technologies the organization uses
- The organization's history and ownership

### 30.3.6 Communicative Indicators

There are many different types of communication that contribute in creating an organizational culture:<sup>[18]</sup>



- Metaphors such as comparing an organization to a machine or a family reveal employees' shared meanings of experiences at the organization.
- Stories can provide examples for employees of how to or not to act in certain situations.
- Rites and ceremonies combine stories, metaphors, and symbols into one. Several different kinds of rites that affect organizational culture:
  - Rites of passage: employees move into new roles
  - Rites of degradation: employees have power taken away from them
  - Rites of enhancement: public recognition for an employee's accomplishments
  - Rites of renewal: improve existing social structures
  - Rites of conflict reduction: resolve arguments between certain members or groups
  - Rites of integration: reawaken feelings of membership in the organization
- Reflexive comments are explanations, justifications, and criticisms of our own actions. This includes:
  - Plans: comments about anticipated actions
  - Commentaries: comments about action in the present
  - Accounts: comments about an action or event that has already occurred

Such comments reveal interpretive meanings held by the speaker as well as the social rules they follow.

- Fantasy Themes are common creative interpretations of events that reflect beliefs, values, and goals of the organization. They lead to rhetorical visions, or views of the organization and its environment held by organization members.

### Schemata

*Schemata* (plural of *schema*) are knowledge structures a person forms from past experiences, allowing the person to respond to similar events more efficiently in the future by guiding the processing of information. A person's schemata are created through interaction with others, and thus inherently involve communication.

Stanley G. Harris (1994) argues that five categories of in-organization schemata are necessary for organizational culture:

1. **Self-in-organization schemata:** a person's concept of oneself within the context of the organization, including her/his personality, roles, and behavior.
2. **Person-in-organization schemata:** a person's memories, impressions, and expectations of other individuals within the organization.
3. **Organization schemata:** a subset of person schemata, a person's generalized perspective on others as a whole in the organization.
4. **Object/concept-in-organization schemata:** knowledge an individual has of organization aspects other than of other persons.
5. **Event-in-organization schemata:** a person's knowledge of social events within an organization.

All of these categories together represent a person's knowledge of an organization. Organizational culture is created when the schematas (schematic structures) of differing individuals across and within an organization come to resemble each other (when any one person's schemata come to resemble another person's schemata because of mutual organizational involvement), primarily done through organizational communication, as individuals directly or indirectly share knowledge and meanings.

### 30.3.7 Strong/weak

*Strong culture* is said to exist where staff respond to stimulus because of their alignment to organizational values. In such environments, strong cultures help firms operate like well-oiled machines, engaging in outstanding execution with only minor adjustments to existing procedures as needed.

Conversely, there is *weak culture* where there is little alignment with organizational values, and control must be exercised through extensive procedures and bureaucracy.

Research shows that organizations that foster strong cultures have clear values that give employees a reason to embrace the culture. A "strong" culture may be especially beneficial to firms operating in the service sector since members of these organizations are responsible for delivering the service and for evaluations important constituents make about firms. Research indicates that organizations may derive the following benefits from developing strong and productive cultures:

- Better aligning the company towards achieving its vision, mission, and goals
- High employee motivation and loyalty
- Increased team cohesiveness among the company's various departments and divisions

- Promoting consistency and encouraging coordination and control within the company
- Shaping employee behavior at work, enabling the organization to be more efficient

Where culture is strong, people do things because they believe it is the right thing to do, and there is a risk of another phenomenon, *groupthink*. “Groupthink” was described by Irving Janis. He defined it as “a quick and easy way to refer to a mode of thinking that people engage when they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, when the members’ strivings for unanimity override their motivation to realistically appraise alternatives of action.” (Irving Janis, 1972, p. 9) This is a state in which even if they have different ideas, do not challenge organizational thinking, and therefore there is a reduced capacity for innovative thoughts. This could occur, for example, where there is heavy reliance on a central charismatic figure in the organization, or where there is an evangelical belief in the organization’s values, or also in groups where a friendly climate is at the base of their identity (avoidance of conflict). In fact, groupthink is very common and happens all the time, in almost every group. Members that are defiant are often turned down or seen as a negative influence by the rest of the group because they bring conflict.

### 30.3.8 Healthy

Organizations should strive for what is considered a “healthy” organizational culture in order to increase productivity, growth, efficiency and reduce counterproductive behavior and turnover of employees. A variety of characteristics describe a healthy culture, including:

- Acceptance and appreciation for diversity
- Regard for and fair treatment of each employee as well as respect for each employee’s contribution to the company
- Employee pride and enthusiasm for the organization and the work performed
- Equal opportunity for each employee to realize their full potential within the company
- Strong communication with all employees regarding policies and company issues
- Strong company leaders with a strong sense of direction and purpose
- Ability to compete in industry innovation and customer service, as well as price
- Lower than average turnover rates (perpetuated by a healthy culture)
- Investment in learning, training, and employee knowledge

Additionally, performance oriented cultures have been shown to possess statistically better financial growth. Such cultures possess high employee involvement, strong internal communications and an acceptance and encouragement of a healthy level of risk-taking in order to achieve innovation. Additionally, organizational cultures that explicitly emphasize factors related to the demands placed on them by industry technology and growth will be better performers in their industries.

According to Kotter and Heskett (1992),<sup>[5]</sup> organizations with adaptive cultures perform much better than organizations with unadaptive cultures. An adaptive culture translates into organizational success; it is characterized by managers paying close attention to all of their constituencies, especially customers, initiating change when needed, and taking risks. An unadaptive culture can significantly reduce a firm’s effectiveness, disabling the firm from pursuing all its competitive/operational options.

### 30.3.9 Charles Handy

Charles Handy (1976), popularized Roger Harrison (1972) with linking organizational structure to organizational culture. The described four types of culture are:<sup>[19]</sup>

1. **Power culture:** concentrates power among a small group or a central figure and its control is radiating from its center like a web. Power cultures need only a few rules and little bureaucracy but swift in decisions can ensue.
2. **Role culture:** authorities are delegated as such within a highly defined structure. These organizations form hierarchical bureaucracies, where power derives from the personal position and rarely from an expert power. Control is made by procedures (which are highly valued), strict roles descriptions and authority definitions. These organizations have consistent systems and are very predictable. This culture is often represented by a “Roman Building” having pillars. These pillars represent the functional departments.
3. **Task culture:** teams are formed to solve particular problems. Power is derived from the team with the expertise to execute against a task. This culture uses a small team approach, where people are highly skilled and specialized in their own area of expertise. Additionally, these cultures often feature the multiple reporting lines seen in a matrix structure.
4. **Person culture:** formed where all individuals believe themselves superior to the organization. It can become difficult for such organizations to continue to operate, since the concept of an organization suggests that a group of like-minded individuals pursue organizational goals. However some professional partnerships operate well as person cultures,

because each partner brings a particular expertise and clientele to the firm.

### 30.3.10 Kim Cameron and Robert Quinn

*See also: Archetype.*

Kim Cameron and Robert Quinn (1999) made a research on organizational effectiveness and success. Based on the Competing Values Framework, they developed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument that distinguishes four culture types.

Competing values produce polarities like flexibility vs. stability and internal vs. external focus - these two polarities were found to be most important in defining organizational success. The polarities construct a quadrant with four types of culture:

- **Clan** culture (internal focus and flexible) - A friendly workplace where leaders act like father figures.
- **Adhocracy** culture (external focus and flexible) - A dynamic workplace with leaders that stimulate innovation.
- **Market** culture (external focus and controlled) - A competitive workplace with leaders like hard drivers
- **Hierarchy** culture (internal focus and controlled) - A structured and formalized workplace where leaders act like coordinators.

Cameron & Quinn designated six key aspects that will form organizational culture which can be assessed in the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) thus producing a mix of the four archetypes of culture. Each organization or team will have its unique mix of culture types.

Cultures are most strongly associated with positive employee attitudes and product and service quality, whereas market cultures are most strongly related with innovation and financial effectiveness criteria. The primary belief in market cultures that clear goals and contingent rewards motivate employees to aggressively perform and meet stakeholders' expectations; a core belief in clan cultures is that the organization's trust in and commitment to employees facilitates open communication and employee involvement. These differing results suggest that it is important for executive leaders to consider the match between strategic initiatives and organizational culture when determining how to embed a culture that produces competitive advantage. By assessing the current organizational culture as well as the preferred situation, the gap and direction to change can be made visible as a first step to changing organizational culture.

### 30.3.11 Robert A. Cooke

Robert A. Cooke defines culture as the behaviors that members believe are required to fit in and meet expectations within their organization. The Organizational Culture Inventory measures twelve behavioral norms that are grouped into three general types of cultures:

- **Constructive** cultures, in which members are encouraged to interact with people and approach tasks in ways that help them meet their higher-order satisfaction needs.
- **Passive/defensive** cultures, in which members believe they must interact with people in ways that will not threaten their own security.
- **Aggressive/defensive** cultures, in which members are expected to approach tasks in forceful ways to protect their status and security.

#### Constructive cultures

In constructive cultures people are encouraged to be in communication with their co-workers, and work as teams, rather than only as individuals. In positions where people do a complex job, rather than something simple like a mechanic one, this culture is efficient.<sup>[20]</sup>

1. **Achievement:** completing a task successfully, typically by effort, courage, or skill (pursue a standard of excellence) (explore alternatives before acting) - Based on the need to attain high-quality results on challenging projects, the belief that outcomes are linked to one's effort rather than chance and the tendency to personally set challenging yet realistic goals. People high in this style think ahead and plan, explore alternatives before acting and learn from their mistakes.
2. **Self-actualizing:** realization or fulfillment of one's talents and potentialities - considered as a drive or need present in everyone (think in unique and independent ways) (do even simple tasks well) - Based on needs for personal growth, self-fulfillment and the realisation of one's potential. People with this style demonstrate a strong desire to learn and experience things, creative yet realistic thinking and a balanced concern for people and tasks.
3. **Humanistic-encouraging:** help others to grow and develop (resolve conflicts constructively) - Reflects an interest in the growth and development of people, a high positive regard for them and sensitivity to their needs. People high in this style devote energy to coaching and counselling others, are thoughtful and considerate and provide people with support and encouragement.

4. **Affiliative:** treat people as more valuable than things (cooperate with others) - Reflects an interest in developing and sustaining pleasant relationships. People high in this style share their thoughts and feelings, are friendly and cooperative and make others feel a part of things.

Organizations with constructive cultures encourage members to work to their full potential, resulting in high levels of motivation, satisfaction, teamwork, service quality, and sales growth. Constructive norms are evident in environments where quality is valued over quantity, creativity is valued over conformity, cooperation is believed to lead to better results than competition, and effectiveness is judged at the system level rather than the component level. These types of cultural norms are consistent with (and supportive of) the objectives behind empowerment, total quality management, transformational leadership, continuous improvement, re-engineering, and learning organizations.<sup>[5][21][22]</sup>

#### Passive/defensive cultures

Norms that reflect expectations for members to interact with people in ways that will not threaten their own security are in the Passive/Defensive Cluster.

The four Passive/Defensive cultural norms are:

- Approval
- Conventional
- Dependent
- Avoidance

In organizations with Passive/Defensive cultures, members feel pressured to think and behave in ways that are inconsistent with the way they believe they should in order to be effective. People are expected to please others (particularly superiors) and avoid interpersonal conflict. Rules, procedures, and orders are more important than personal beliefs, ideas, and judgment. Passive/Defensive cultures experience a lot of unresolved conflict and turnover, and organizational members report lower levels of motivation and satisfaction.

#### Aggressive/defensive cultures

This style is characterized with more emphasis on task than people. Because of the very nature of this style, people tend to focus on their own individual needs at the expense of the success of the group. The aggressive/defensive style is very stressful, and people using this style tend to make decisions based on status as opposed to expertise.<sup>[23]</sup>

1. **Oppositional** - This cultural norm is based on the idea that a need for security that takes the form of being very critical and cynical at times. People who use this style are more likely to question others work; however, asking those tough question often leads to a better product. Nonetheless, those who use this style may be overly-critical toward others, using irrelevant or trivial flaws to put others down.
2. **Power** - This cultural norm is based on the idea that there is a need for prestige and influence. Those who use this style often equate their own self-worth with controlling others. Those who use this style have a tendency to dictate others opposing to guiding others' actions.
3. **Competitive** - This cultural norm is based on the idea of a need to protect one's status. Those who use this style protect their own status by comparing themselves to other individuals and outperforming them. Those who use this style are seekers of appraisal and recognition from others.
4. **Perfectionistic** - This cultural norm is based on the need to attain flawless results. Those who often use this style equate their self-worth with the attainment of extremely high standards. Those who often use this style are always focused on details and place excessive demands on themselves and others.

Organizations with aggressive/defensive cultures encourage or require members to appear competent, controlled, and superior. Members who seek assistance, admit shortcomings, or concede their position are viewed as incompetent or weak. These organizations emphasize finding errors, weeding out "mistakes" and encouraging members to compete against each other rather than competitors. The short-term gains associated with these strategies are often at the expense of long-term growth.<sup>[23]</sup>

### 30.3.12 Entrepreneurial

Stephen McGuire (2003) defined and validated a model of organizational culture that predicts revenue from new sources. An Entrepreneurial Organizational Culture (EOC) is a system of shared values, beliefs and norms of members of an organization, including valuing creativity and tolerance of creative people, believing that innovating and seizing market opportunities are appropriate behaviors to deal with problems of survival and prosperity, environmental uncertainty, and competitors' threats, and expecting organizational members to behave accordingly.

#### Elements

- People and empowerment focused
- Value creation through innovation and change

- Attention to the basics
- Hands-on management
- Doing the right thing
- Freedom to grow and to fail
- Commitment and personal responsibility
- Emphasis on the future<sup>[24]</sup>

### 30.4 Bullying culture

Main articles: *Bullying culture* and *Workplace bullying*

Bullying is seen to be prevalent in organisations where employees and managers feel that they have the support, or at least implicitly the blessing, of senior managers to carry on their abusive and bullying behaviour. Furthermore, new managers will quickly come to view this form of behaviour as acceptable and normal if they see others get away with it and are even rewarded for it.<sup>[25]</sup>

When bullying happens at the highest levels, the effects may be far reaching. That people may be bullied irrespective of their organisational status or rank, including senior managers, indicates the possibility of a negative domino effect, where bullying may be cascaded downwards as the targeted supervisors might offload their own aggression on their subordinates. In such situations, a bullying scenario in the boardroom may actually threaten the productivity of the entire organisation.<sup>[26]</sup>

### 30.5 Culture of fear

Main article: *Culture of fear*

Ashforth discussed potentially destructive sides of leadership and identified what he referred to as petty tyrants, i.e. leaders who exercise a tyrannical style of management, resulting in a climate of fear in the workplace.<sup>[27]</sup> Partial or intermittent negative reinforcement can create an effective climate of fear and doubt.<sup>[28]</sup> When employees get the sense that bullies “get away with it”, a climate of fear may be the result.<sup>[26]</sup> Several studies have confirmed a relationship between bullying, on the one hand, and an autocratic leadership and an authoritarian way of settling conflicts or dealing with disagreements, on the other. An authoritarian style of leadership may create a climate of fear, where there is little or no room for dialogue and where complaining may be considered futile.<sup>[29]</sup>

In a study of public-sector union members, approximately one in five workers reported having considered leaving the workplace as a result of witnessing bullying taking

place. Rayner explained these figures by pointing to the presence of a climate of fear in which employees considered reporting to be unsafe, where bullies had “got away with it” previously despite management knowing of the presence of bullying.<sup>[26]</sup>

### 30.6 Tribal culture

David Logan and coauthors have proposed in their book *Tribal Leadership* that organizational cultures change in stages, based on an analysis of human groups and tribal cultures. They identify five basic stages:<sup>[30]</sup>

1. *Life sucks* (a subsystem severed from other functional systems like tribes, gangs and prison—2 percent of population);
2. *My life sucks* (I am stuck in the Dumb Motor Vehicle line and can't believe I have to spend my time in this lost triangle of ineffectiveness—25 percent of population);
3. *I'm great* (and you're not, I am detached from you and will dominate you regardless of your intent—48 percent of population);
4. *We are great, but other groups suck* (citing Zappo's and an attitude of unification around more than individual competence—22 percent of population) and
5. *Life is great* (citing Desmond Tutu's hearing on truth and values as the basis of reconciliation—3 percent of population).

This model of organizational culture provides a map and context for leading an organization through the five stages.

### 30.7 Personal culture

*Main: Personality psychology, Identity (social science)*

Organizational culture is taught to the person as culture is taught by his/her parents thus changing and modeling his/her personal culture.<sup>[31]</sup> Indeed employees and people applying for a job are advised to match their “personality to a company's culture” and fit to it.<sup>[32]</sup> Some researchers even suggested and have made case studies research on personality changing.<sup>[33]</sup>

### 30.8 National culture

Corporate culture is used to control, coordinate, and integrate of company subsidiaries.<sup>[34]</sup> However differences in national cultures exist contributing to differences in the

views on the management.<sup>[35]</sup> Differences between national cultures are deep rooted values of the respective cultures, and these cultural values can shape how people expect companies to be run, and how relationships between leaders and followers should be resulting to differences between the employer and the employee on expectations. (Geert Hofstede, 1991) Perhaps equally foundational; observing the vast differences in national copyright (and taxation, etc.) laws suggests deep rooted differing cultural attitudes and assumptions on property rights and sometimes; the desired root function, place, or purpose of corporations relative to the population.

### 30.8.1 Multiplicity

*See also: Biculturalism*

Xibao Zhang (2009) carried out an empirical study of culture emergence in the Sino-Western international cross-cultural management (SW-ICCM) context in China. Field data were collected by interviewing Western expatriates and Chinese professionals working in this context, supplemented by non-participant observation and documentary data. The data were then analyzed in grounded fashion to formulate theme-based substantive theories and a formal theory.

The major finding of this study is that human cognition contains three components, or three broad types of “cultural rules of behavior”, namely, Values, Expectations, and Ad Hoc Rules, each of which has a mutually conditioning relationship with behavior. The three cognitive components are different in terms of the scope and duration of their mutual shaping with behavior. Values are universal and enduring rules of behavior; Expectations, on the other hand, are context-specific behavioral rules; while Ad Hoc Rules are improvised rules of behavior that the human mind devises contingent upon a particular occasion. Furthermore, they need not be consistent, and frequently are not, among themselves. Metaphorically, they can be compared to a multi-carriage train, which allows for the relative lateral movements by individual carriages so as to accommodate bumps and turns in the tracks. In fact, they provide a “shock-absorber mechanism”, so to speak, which enables individuals in SW-ICCM contexts to cope with conflicts in cultural practices and values, and to accommodate and adapt themselves to cultural contexts where people from different national cultural backgrounds work together over extended time. It also provides a powerful framework which explains how interactions by individuals in SW-ICCM contexts give rise to emerging hybrid cultural practices characterized by both stability and change.

One major theoretical contribution of this “multi-carriage train” perspective is its allowance for the existence of inconsistencies among the three cognitive components in their mutual conditioning with behavior. This

internal inconsistency view is in stark contrast to the traditional internal consistency assumption explicitly or tacitly held by many culture scholars. The other major theoretical contribution, which follows logically from the first one, is to view culture as an overarching entity which is made of a multiplicity of Values, Expectations, and Ad Hoc Rules. This notion of one (multiplicity) culture to an organization leads to the classification of culture along its path of emergence into nascent, adolescent, and mature types, each of which is distinct in terms of the pattern of the three cognitive components and behavior.

## 30.9 Impacts

Research suggests that numerous outcomes have been associated either directly or indirectly with organizational culture. A healthy and robust organizational culture may provide various benefits, including the following:

- Competitive edge derived from innovation and customer service
- Consistent, efficient employee performance
- Team cohesiveness
- High employee morale
- Strong company alignment towards goal achievement

Although little empirical research exists to support the link between organizational culture and organizational performance, there is little doubt among experts that this relationship exists. Organizational culture can be a factor in the survival or failure of an organization - although this is difficult to prove considering the necessary longitudinal analyses are hardly feasible. The sustained superior performance of firms like IBM, Hewlett-Packard, Procter & Gamble, and McDonald's may be, at least partly, a reflection of their organizational cultures.

A 2003 Harvard Business School study reported that culture has a significant impact on an organization's long-term economic performance. The study examined the management practices at 160 organizations over ten years and found that culture can enhance performance or prove detrimental to performance. Organizations with strong performance-oriented cultures witnessed far better financial growth. Additionally, a 2002 Corporate Leadership Council study found that cultural traits such as risk taking, internal communications, and flexibility are some of the most important drivers of performance, and may impact individual performance. Furthermore, innovativeness, productivity through people, and the other cultural factors cited by Peters and Waterman (1982) also have positive economic consequences.

Denison, Haaland, and Goelzer (2004) found that culture contributes to the success of the organization, but

not all dimensions contribute the same. It was found that the impacts of these dimensions differ by global regions, which suggests that organizational culture is impacted by national culture. Additionally, Clarke (2006) found that a safety climate is related to an organization's safety record.

Organizational culture is reflected in the way people perform tasks, set objectives, and administer the necessary resources to achieve objectives. Culture affects the way individuals make decisions, feel, and act in response to the opportunities and threats affecting the organization.

Adkins and Caldwell (2004) found that job satisfaction was positively associated with the degree to which employees fit into both the overall culture and subculture in which they worked. A perceived mismatch of the organization's culture and what employees felt the culture should be is related to a number of negative consequences including lower job satisfaction, higher job strain, general stress, and turnover intent.

It has been proposed that organizational culture may impact the level of employee creativity, the strength of employee motivation, and the reporting of unethical behavior, but more research is needed to support these conclusions.

Organizational culture also has an impact on recruitment and retention. Individuals tend to be attracted to and remain engaged in organizations that they perceive to be compatible. Additionally, high turnover may be a mediating factor in the relationship between culture and organizational performance. Deteriorating company performance and an unhealthy work environment are signs of an overdue cultural assessment.

### 30.10 Change

When an organization does not possess a healthy culture or requires some kind of organizational culture change, the change process can be daunting. One major reason why such change is difficult is that organizational cultures, and the organizational structures in which they are embedded, often reflect the "imprint" of earlier periods in a persistent way and exhibit remarkable levels of inertia.<sup>[36]</sup> Culture change may be necessary to reduce employee turnover, influence employee behavior, make improvements to the company, refocus the company objectives and/or rescale the organization, provide better customer service, and/or achieve specific company goals and results. Culture change is impacted by a number of elements, including the external environment and industry competitors, change in industry standards, technology changes, the size and nature of the workforce, and the organization's history and management.

There are a number of methodologies specifically dedicated to organizational culture change such as Peter Senge's *Fifth Discipline*. These are also a variety of psychological approaches that have been developed into

a system for specific outcomes such as the *Fifth Discipline*'s "learning organization" or *Directive Communication*'s "corporate culture evolution." Ideas and strategies, on the other hand, seem to vary according to particular influences that affect culture.

Burman and Evans (2008) argue that it is 'leadership' that affects culture rather than 'management', and describe the difference. When one wants to change an aspect of the culture of an organization one has to keep in consideration that this is a long term project. Corporate culture is something that is very hard to change and employees need time to get used to the new way of organizing. For companies with a very strong and specific culture it will be even harder to change.

Prior to a cultural change initiative, a needs assessment is needed to identify and understand the current organizational culture. This can be done through employee surveys, interviews, focus groups, observation, customer surveys where appropriate, and other internal research, to further identify areas that require change. The company must then assess and clearly identify the new, desired culture, and then design a change process.

Cummings & Worley (2004, p. 491 – 492) give the following six guidelines for cultural change, these changes are in line with the eight distinct stages mentioned by Kotter (1995, p. 2):

1. Formulate a clear strategic vision (stage 1, 2, and 3). In order to make a cultural change effective a clear vision of the firm's new strategy, shared values and behaviors is needed. This vision provides the intention and direction for the culture change (Cummings & Worley, 2004, p. 490).
2. Display top-management commitment (stage 4). It is very important to keep in mind that culture change must be managed from the top of the organization, as willingness to change of the senior management is an important indicator (Cummings & Worley, 2004, page 490). The top of the organization should be very much in favor of the change in order to actually implement the change in the rest of the organization. De Caluwé & Vermaak (2004, p 9) provide a framework with five different ways of thinking about change.
3. Model culture change at the highest level (stage 5). In order to show that the management team is in favor of the change, the change has to be notable at first at this level. The behavior of the management needs to symbolize the kinds of values and behaviors that should be realized in the rest of the company. It is important that the management shows the strengths of the current culture as well, it must be made clear that the current organizational does not need radical changes, but just a few adjustments. (See for more: Deal & Kennedy, 1982,<sup>[4]</sup>

Sathe, 1983; Schall; 1983; Weick, 1985; DiTomaso, 1987). This process may also include creating committee, employee task forces, value managers, or similar. Change agents are key in the process and key communicators of the new values. They should possess courage, flexibility, excellent interpersonal skills, knowledge of the company, and patience. As McCune (May 1999) puts it, these individual should be catalysts, not dictators.

4. Modify the organization to support organizational change. The fourth step is to modify the organization to support organizational change. This includes identifying what current systems, policies, procedures and rules need to be changed in order to align with the new values and desired culture. This may include a change to accountability systems, compensation, benefits and reward structures, and recruitment and retention programs to better align with the new values and to send a clear message to employees that the old system and culture are in the past.
5. Select and socialize newcomers and terminate deviants (stage 7 & 8 of Kotter, 1995, p. 2). A way to implement a culture is to connect it to organizational membership, people can be selected and terminate in terms of their fit with the new culture (Cummings & Worley, 2004, p. 491). Encouraging employee motivation and loyalty to the company is key and will also result in a healthy culture. The company and change managers should be able to articulate the connections between the desired behavior and how it will impact and improve the company's success, to further encourage buy-in in the change process. Training should be provided to all employees to understand the new processes, expectations and systems.
6. Develop ethical and legal sensitivity. Changes in culture can lead to tensions between organizational and individual interests, which can result in ethical and legal problems for practitioners. This is particularly relevant for changes in employee integrity, control, equitable treatment and job security (Cummings & Worley, 2004, p. 491). It is also beneficial, as part of the change process, to include an evaluation process, conducted periodically to monitor the change progress and identify areas that need further development. This step will also identify obstacles of change and resistant employees and to acknowledge and reward employee improvement, which will also encourage continued change and involvement. It may also be helpful and necessary to incorporate new change managers to refresh the process. Outside consultants may also be useful in facilitating the change process and providing employee training. Change of culture in the organizations is very important and inevitable. Culture innovations is bound to be because it entails introducing something new

and substantially different from what prevails in existing cultures. Cultural innovation<sup>[37]</sup> is bound to be more difficult than cultural maintenance. People often resist changes hence it is the duty of the management to convince people that likely gain will outweigh the losses. Besides institutionalization, deification is another process that tends to occur in strongly developed organizational cultures. The organization itself may come to be regarded as precious in itself, as a source of pride, and in some sense unique. Organizational members begin to feel a strong bond with it that transcends material returns given by the organization, and they begin to identify with it. The organization turns into a sort of clan.

### 30.10.1 Mergers and cultural leadership

One of the biggest obstacles in the way of the merging of two organizations is organizational culture. Each organization has its own unique culture and most often, when brought together, these cultures clash. When mergers fail employees point to issues such as identity, communication problems, human resources problems, ego clashes, and inter-group conflicts, which all fall under the category of "cultural differences".

One way to combat such difficulties is through cultural leadership. Organizational leaders must also be cultural leaders and help facilitate the change from the two old cultures into the one new culture. This is done through cultural innovation followed by cultural maintenance.

- Cultural innovation includes:
  - Creating a new culture: recognizing past cultural differences and setting realistic expectations for change
  - Changing the culture: weakening and replacing the old cultures
- Cultural maintenance includes:
  - Integrating the new culture: reconciling the differences between the old cultures and the new one
  - Embodying the new culture: Establishing, affirming, and keeping the new culture

## 30.11 Corporate subcultures

Corporate culture is the total sum of the values, customs, traditions, and meanings that make a company unique. Corporate culture is often called "the character of an organization", since it embodies the vision of the company's founders. The values of a corporate culture influence the ethical standards within a corporation, as well as managerial behavior.<sup>[38]</sup>



Senior management may try to determine a *corporate culture*. They may wish to impose corporate values and standards of behavior that specifically reflect the objectives of the organization. In addition, there will also be an extant internal culture within the workforce. Work-groups within the organization have their own behavioral quirks and interactions which, to an extent, affect the whole system. Roger Harrison's four-culture typology, and adapted by Charles Handy, suggests that unlike organizational culture, corporate culture can be 'imported'. For example, computer technicians will have expertise, language and behaviors gained independently of the organization, but their presence can influence the culture of the organization as a whole.

### 30.12 Legal aspects

Corporate culture can legally be found to be a cause of injuries and a reason for fining companies in the US, e.g. when the US Department of Labor Mine Safety and Health Administration levied a fine of more than 10.8 million US dollars on Performance Coal Co. following the Upper Big Branch Mine disaster in April 2010. This was the largest fine in the history of this U.S. government agency.<sup>[39]</sup>

### 30.13 Critical views

Criticism of the usage of the term by managers began already in its emergence in the early 80s.<sup>[10]</sup> Most of the criticism comes from the writers in critical management studies who for example express skepticism about the functionalist and unitarist views about culture that are put forward by mainstream management writers. They stress the ways in which these cultural assumptions can stifle dissent management and reproduce propaganda and ideology. They suggest that organizations do not have a single culture and cultural engineering may not reflect the interests of all stakeholders within an organization.

Parker (2000) has suggested that many of the assumptions of those putting forward theories of organizational culture are not new. They reflect a long-standing tension between cultural and structural (or informal and formal) versions of what organizations are. Further, it is reasonable to suggest that complex organizations might have many cultures, and that such sub-cultures might overlap and contradict each other. The neat typologies of cultural forms found in textbooks rarely acknowledge such complexities, or the various economic contradictions that exist in capitalist organizations.

Among the strongest and widely recognized writers on corporate culture with a long list of articles on leadership, culture, gender and their intersection is Linda Smircich, as a part of the of critical management studies, she crit-

icises theories that attempt to categorize or 'pigeonhole' organizational culture.<sup>[9][40]</sup> She uses the metaphor of a plant root to represent culture, describing that it drives organizations rather than vice versa. Organizations are the product of organizational culture, we are unaware of how it shapes behavior and interaction (also recognized through Scheins (2002) underlying assumptions) and so how can we categorize it and define what it is?

### 30.14 See also

- Cultural capital
- Cultural identity
- Diversity
- Inclusive business
- Inclusiveness
- Lifestyle (sociology)
- Multiculturalism
- Narcissism in the workplace
- Organizational behavior
- Organizational studies
- Organizational psychology
- Power (social and political)
- Psychological capital
- Psychopathy in the workplace
- Working class culture
- Workplace diversity

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## 30.18 External links

- Organizational Culture and Institutional Transformation (pdf) - From the Education Resources Information Center Clearinghouse on Higher Education Washington, DC.

### Corporate executives providing their views on the importance of organizational culture, and strategies and tactics for building a culture

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# Chapter 31

## Organizational Expedience

**Organizational expedience** is defined as workers' behaviors that (1) are intended to fulfill organizationally prescribed or sanctioned objectives but that (2) knowingly involve breaking, bending, or stretching organizational rules, directives, or organizationally sanctioned norms.<sup>[1]</sup>

There are several key aspects underlying the concept of organizational expedience. Firstly, organizational expedience describes a worker's actions but not their intentions. For example, if a shop assistant is considering giving a loyal customer a deeper discount than is permitted but decides not to do so after seeing her supervisor, then this shop assistant didn't engage in expedience.

Secondly, such definition requires workers to knowingly engage in expedience. If the rules are not known or well understood, or are accidentally broken, this behavior doesn't qualify as expedience. For example, if a long haul driver drove over the time limit because he doesn't know about the time limit rule, misunderstood the time limit rule, or forgot to look at the watch and accidentally broke the time limit rule, such behavior does not qualify as expedience.

### 31.1 Work characteristics that may lead to organizational expedience

McLean Parks, Ma, and Gallagher (2010) proposed three role stressors as the theoretical antecedents of organizational expedience:

1. **Role conflict.** Role conflict is seen as an 'incompatibility between expectations of a single role'<sup>[2]</sup>
2. **Role ambiguity.** Role ambiguity is viewed as 'uncertainty about what actions to take to fulfill the expectations of the role'<sup>[2]</sup>
3. **Role overload.** Role overload refers to 'the extent to which time and resources prove inadequate to meet expectations of commitments and obligations to fulfill a role'<sup>[2]</sup>

### 31.2 Mechanisms through which different role stressors lead to organizational expedience

1. One mechanism through which role overload leads to organizational expedience
  - (a) Emotional exhaustion: the feeling of 'being emotionally overextended and drained'<sup>[3]</sup>
2. Two mechanisms through which both role ambiguity and role conflict lead to organizational expedience
  - (a) Tension. Tension is defined as 'a negative psychological experience based on job-related anxiety'<sup>[2]</sup>
  - (b) Task conflict. Task conflict is defined as 'an awareness of differences in viewpoints and opinions pertaining to a group task'.<sup>[1]</sup>

### 31.3 Work context factors that may affect the strength of the linkage between role stressors and organizational expedience

1. Behavioral integrity of the manager. Behavioral integrity is defined as "managers' consistency between words and deeds". When the behavioral integrity of the manager is high, both role ambiguity and role conflict are less likely to lead to worker's organizational expedience<sup>[4]</sup>

### 31.4 Theoretical outcomes of expedience

1. Creativity. Creativity here is defined as 'the generation of new and potentially valuable ideas concerning new products, services, manufacturing methods, and administrative processes'<sup>[5]</sup>

2. Voice. Voice (also called individual initiative) here refers to the behavior of ‘actively and constructively trying to improve conditions through discussing’<sup>[6]</sup>

### 31.5 Psychological factors of workers that may affect the strength of the linkage between organizational expedience and outcomes

1. Psychological ownership. Psychological ownership is the degree to which workers ‘feel possession of and psychologically tied to their organizations’. When worker’s psychological ownership for the organization is high, organizational expedience is more likely to lead to creativity and voice.<sup>[7]</sup>

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### 31.6 Related constructs

1. Counterproductive work behaviors. Counterproductive work behaviors refers to behaviors that are ‘volitional acts that harm or are intended to harm organizations or people in organizations’ *Workplace deviance*
2. Organizational retaliation behaviors. Organizational retaliation behavior refers to ‘adverse reactions to perceived unfairness by disgruntled employees toward their employer’<sup>[8]</sup>
3. Propensity to withhold effort. Propensity to withhold effort refers to ‘the likelihood that an individual will give less than full effort on a job-related task’<sup>[9]</sup>

### 31.7 References

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## Chapter 32

# Organizational justice

*Organizational injustice* redirects to here, and is the flip-side, often more easily considered

Greenberg (1987) introduced the concept of **organizational justice** with regard to how an employee judges the behaviour of the organization and the employee's resulting attitude and behaviour. (e.g., if a firm makes redundant half of the workers, an employee may feel a sense of injustice with a resulting change in attitude and a drop in productivity).

**Justice** or fairness refers to the idea that an action or decision is morally right, which may be defined according to ethics, religion, fairness, equity, or law. People are naturally attentive to the justice of events and situations in their everyday lives, across a variety of contexts (Tabibnia, Satpute, & Lieberman, 2008). Individuals react to actions and decisions made by organizations every day. An individual's perceptions of these decisions as fair or unfair can influence the individual's subsequent attitudes and behaviors. Fairness is often of central interest to organizations because the implications of perceptions of injustice can impact job attitudes and behaviors at work. Justice in organizations can include issues related to perceptions of fair pay, equal opportunities for promotion, and personnel selection procedures.

### 32.1 Overview

Organizational justice is conceptualized as a multidimensional construct. The four proposed components are distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice. Research also suggests the importance of affect and emotion in the appraisal of the fairness of a situation as well as one's behavioral and attitudinal reactions to the situation (e.g., Barsky, Kaplan, & Beal, 2011). A myriad of literature in the industrial/organizational psychology field has examined organizational justice as well as the associated outcomes. Perceptions of justice influence many key organizational outcomes such as motivation (Latham & Pinder, 2005) and job satisfaction (Al-Zu'bi, 2010).

### 32.2 Corporate social responsibility

A concept related to organizational justice is **corporate social responsibility (CSR)**. Organizational justice generally refers to perceptions of fairness in treatment of individuals internal to that organization while corporate social responsibility focuses on the fairness of treatment of entities external to the organization. Corporate social responsibility refers to a mechanism by which businesses monitor and regulate their performance in line with moral and societal standards such that it has positive influences on all of its stakeholders (Carroll, 1999). Thus, CSR involves organizations going above and beyond what is moral or ethical and behaving in ways that benefit members of society in general. It has been proposed that an employee's perceptions of their organization's level of corporate social responsibility can impact that individual's own attitudes and perceptions of justice even if they are not the victim of unfair acts (Rupp et al., 2006).

### 32.3 Roots in equity theory

The idea of organizational justice stems from **equity theory** (Adams, 1963, 1965), which posits that judgments of equity and inequity are derived from comparisons between one's self and others based on inputs and outcomes. Inputs refer to what a person perceives to contribute (e.g., knowledge and effort) while outcomes are what an individual perceives to get out of an exchange relationship (e.g., pay and recognition). Comparison points against which these inputs and outcomes are judged may be internal (one's self at an earlier time) or external (other individuals).

### 32.4 Types

Three main proposed components of organizational justice are distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (which includes informational and interpersonal justice).

### 32.4.1 Distributive

**Distributive justice** is conceptualized as the fairness associated with decision outcomes and distribution of resources. The outcomes or resources distributed may be tangible (e.g., pay) or intangible (e.g., praise). Perceptions of distributive justice can be fostered when outcomes are perceived to be equally applied (Adams, 1965).

### 32.4.2 Procedural

**Procedural justice** is defined as the fairness of the processes that lead to outcomes. When individuals feel that they have a voice in the process or that the process involves characteristics such as consistency, accuracy, ethicality, and lack of bias then procedural justice is enhanced (Leventhal, 1980).

### 32.4.3 Interactional

**Interactional justice** refers to the treatment that an individual receives as decisions are made and can be promoted by providing explanations for decisions and delivering the news with sensitivity and respect (Bies & Moag, 1986). A construct validation study by Colquitt (2001) suggests that interactional justice should be broken into two components: interpersonal and informational justice. **Interpersonal justice** refers to perceptions of respect and propriety in one's treatment while **informational justice** relates to the adequacy of the explanations given in terms of their timeliness, specificity, and truthfulness.

Interpersonal justice "reflects the degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect by authorities and third parties involved in executing procedures or determining outcomes"

Informational justice "focuses on explanations provided to people that convey information about why procedures were used in a certain way or why outcomes were distributed in a certain fashion"

### 32.4.4 Proposed models

Three different models have been proposed to explain the structure of organizational justice perceptions including a two factor model, a three factor model, and a four factor model. Many researchers have studied organizational justice in terms of the three factor model (e.g., DeConinck, 2010; Liljegren & Ekberg, 2010) while others have used a two factor model in which interpersonal justice is subsumed under procedural justice while yet some other studies suggest a four factor model best fits the data (Colquitt, 2001). Greenberg (1990) proposed a two-factor model and Sweeney and McFarlin (1993) found support for a two-factor model composed

of distributive and procedural justice. Through the use of structural equation modeling, Sweeney and McFarlin found that distributive justice was related to outcomes that are person-level (e.g., pay satisfaction) while procedural justice was related to organization-level outcomes (e.g., organizational commitment).

The accuracy of the two-factor model was challenged by studies that suggested a third factor (interactional justice) may be involved. Bies and Moag (1986) argue that interactional justice is distinct from procedural justice because it represents the social exchange component of the interaction and the quality of treatment whereas procedural justice represents the processes that were used to arrive at the decision outcomes. Generally researchers are in agreement regarding the distinction between procedural and distributive justice but there is more controversy over the distinction between interactional and procedural justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Colquitt (2001) demonstrated that a four-factor model (including procedural, distributive, interpersonal, and informational justice) fit the data significantly better than a two or three factor model. Colquitt's construct validation study also showed that each of the four components have predictive validity for different key organizational outcomes (e.g., commitment and rule compliance).

Another model of organizational justice proposed by Byrne (1999) and colleagues (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2000) suggested that organizational justice is a multi-foci construct, one where employees see justice as coming from a source - either the organization or their supervisor. Thus, rather than focus on justice as the three or four factor component model, Byrne suggested that employees personify the organization and they distinguish between whether they feel the organization or supervisor have treated them fairly (interactional), use fair procedures (procedural), or allocate rewards or assignments fairly (distributive justice). A number of researchers used this model exploring the possibility that justice is more than just 3 or 4 factors (e.g., Karriker & Williams, 2009).

## 32.5 The role of affect in organizational justice perceptions

One of the key constructs that has been shown to play a role in the formation of organizational justice perceptions is *affect*. The precise role of affect in organizational justice perceptions depends on the form of affectivity being examined (emotions, mood, disposition) as well as the context and type of justice being measured. Affect may serve as an antecedent, outcome, or even a mediator of organizational justice perceptions.

A recent article (Barksy, Kaplan, & Beal, 2011) provides a model that explains the role of affect and emotions at various stages of the appraisal and reaction stages of justice perception formation and illustrates that injustice is



generally an affect laden and subjective experience. Affect and emotions can be part of the reactions to perceived injustice, as studies have shown that the more injustice that is perceived, the higher degrees of negative emotions are experienced. In addition, affect can act as a mediator between justice perceptions and actions taken to redress the perceived injustice. Affect plays this role in equity theory such that negative affective reactions act as a mediator between perceptions and actions, as emotional reactions to justice motivate individuals to take action to restore equity.

A recent meta-analysis by Barsky and Kaplan (2007) condenses many studies on this topic and explains that state and trait level affect can influence one's perceptions of justice. The findings of Barsky and Kaplan show that both state and trait level negative affect can act as antecedents to justice perceptions. State and trait level negative affect are negatively associated with interactional, procedural, and distributive justice perceptions. Conversely, positive state and trait affectivity was linked to higher ratings of interactional, procedural and distributive justice.

Based on the research regarding the central role of affect in justice perceptions, Lang, Bliese, Lang, and Adler (2011) extended this research and studied the idea that sustained clinical levels of negative affect (depression) could be a precursor to perceptions of injustice in organizations. Lang et al. (2011) tested longitudinal cross-lagged effects between organizational justice perceptions and employee depressive symptoms and found that depressive symptoms do lead to subsequent organizational justice perceptions. Thus, affect can serve as an antecedent to justice perceptions in this instance.

## 32.6 Antecedents of organizational justice perceptions

### 32.6.1 Employee participation

One antecedent to perceptions of organizational justice is the extent to which employees feel that they are involved in decision-making or other organizational procedures. Higher levels of justice are perceived when employees feel that they have input in processes than when employees do not perceive that they have the opportunity to participate (Greenberg & Folger, 1983; Bies & Shapiro, 1988). The opportunity or ability to participate in decision making improves an individual's perceptions of procedural justice, even when the decision is unfavorable to the individual (Bies & Shapiro, 1988). In addition, other studies have shown that employee input is related to both procedural and interpersonal justice perceptions (Kernan & Hanges, 2002).

### 32.6.2 Communication

A second antecedent to organizational justice perceptions is organizational communication with employees. Communication has been shown to be related to interpersonal and informational justice perceptions (Kernan & Hanges, 2002). The quality of communication by an organization or manager can improve justice perceptions by improving employee perceptions of manager trustworthiness and also by reducing feelings of uncertainty (Kernan & Hanges, 2002). It is important that the information provided be accurate, timely, and helpful in order for the impact on justice perceptions to be positive (Schweiger & DeNisi, 1991).

### 32.6.3 Justice climate

Perceptions of organizational justice can be influenced by others, such as co-workers and team members. Recent research suggests that team level perceptions of justice form what is called a 'justice climate' which can impact individuals' own views of justice (Li & Cropanzano, 2009). Employees working within a team may share their perceptions with one another which can lead to a shared interpretation of the fairness of events (Roberson & Colquitt, 2005). Research findings show that individuals can "learn" justice evaluations from team members and these can lead to homogeneity of justice perceptions within teams, creating a strong justice climate (Roberson & Colquitt, 2005). Thus, group-level perceptions of justice can be conceptualized as an antecedent to individuals' justice perceptions.

## 32.7 Outcomes of organizational justice perceptions

Employees' perceptions of injustice within the organization can result in a myriad of outcomes both positive and negative. Outcomes are affected by perceptions of organizational justice as a whole or by different factors of organizational justice. Commonly cited outcomes affected by organizational justice include trust, performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs), absenteeism, turnover, and emotional exhaustion.

### 32.7.1 Trust

Main article: [Trust \(social sciences\)](#)

The relationship between trust and organizational justice perceptions is based on reciprocity. Trust in the organization is built from the employee's belief that since current

organizational decisions are fair, future organizational decisions will be fair. The continuance of employee trust in the organization and the organization continuing to meet the employee's expectations of fairness creates the reciprocal relationship between trust and organizational justice (DeConick, 2010). Research has found that procedural justice is the strongest predictor of organizational trust (Hubbell & Chory-Assad, 2005; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). A positive relationship between an employee and supervisor can lead to trust in the organization (Karriker & Williams, 2009).

### 32.7.2 Performance

Main article: [Job performance](#)

The impact of organizational justice perceptions on performance is believed to stem from equity theory. This would suggest that when people perceive injustice they seek to restore justice. One way that employees restore justice is by altering their level of job performance. Procedural justice affects performance as a result of its impact on employee attitudes. Distributive justice affects performance when efficiency and productivity are involved (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Improving justice perceptions improves productivity and performance (Karriker & Williams, 2009).

### 32.7.3 Job satisfaction and organizational commitment

Main articles: [Job satisfaction](#) and [Organizational commitment](#)

Job satisfaction was found to be positively associated with overall perceptions of organizational justice such that greater perceived injustice results in lower levels of job satisfaction and greater perceptions of justice result in higher levels of job satisfaction (Al-Zu'bi, 2010). Additionally, organizational commitment is related to perceptions of procedural justice such that greater perceived injustice results in diminished commitment while greater perceived justice results in increases commitment to the organization (DeConick, 2010; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

### 32.7.4 Organizational citizenship behavior

Main article: [Organizational citizenship behavior](#)

Organizational citizenship behaviors are actions that employees take to support the organization that go above and beyond the scope of their job description. OCBs are related to both procedural justice (DeConick, 2010; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Karriker

& Williams, 2009) and distributive justice perceptions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Karriker & Williams, 2009). As organizational actions and decisions are perceived as more just, employees are more likely to engage in OCBs. Karriker and Williams (2009) established that OCBs are directed toward either the supervisor or the organization depending on whether the perception of just stems from the supervisor or the organization. Additionally, a relationship was found between interpersonal justice and OCBs; however, this relationship was not mediated by the source of justice perceptions (Karriker & Williams, 2009).

### 32.7.5 Counterproductive work behaviors

Main article: [Counterproductive work behavior](#)

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) are "intentional behaviors on the part of an organizational member viewed by the organization as contrary to their legitimate interests" (Gruys and Sackett, 2003, p. 30). There are many reasons that explain why organizational justice can affect CWBs. Increased judgments of procedural injustice, for instance, can lead to employee unwillingness to comply with an organization's rules (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001) because the relationship between perceived procedural injustice and CWBs could be mediated by perceived normative conflict, i.e., the extent to which employees perceive conflict between the norms of their workgroup and the rules of the organization (Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara & Verano-Tacoronte, 2007). Thus, the more perceptions of procedural injustice lead employees to perceived normative conflict, the more it is likely that CWBs occur.

### 32.7.6 Absenteeism and withdrawal

Main article: [Absenteeism](#)

Absenteeism, or non-attendance, is another outcome of perceived injustice related to equity theory (Johns, 2001). Failure to receive a promotion is an example of a situation in which feelings of injustice may result in an employee being absent from work without reason. Johns (2001) found that when people saw both their commitment to the organization and the organization's commitment to them as high, absenteeism is diminished. Additionally, withdrawal, or leaving the organization, is a more extreme outcome stemming from the same equity theory principles. Distributive justice perceptions are most strongly related to withdrawal (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

### 32.7.7 Emotional exhaustion

Main article: [Emotional exhaustion](#)

Emotional exhaustion, which related to employee health and burnout, is related to overall organizational justice perceptions. As perceptions of justice increase employee health increases and burnout decreases (Liljegren & Ekberg, 2009). Distributive, procedural, and interactional justice perceptions are able to capture state specific levels of emotional exhaustion which fade over time; however, overall organizational justice perceptions give the most stable picture of the relationship between justice perceptions and emotional exhaustion over time (Liljegren & Ekberg, 2009).

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## Chapter 33

# Perceived organizational support

**Perceived organizational support (POS)** is the degree to which employees believe that their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being and fulfills socioemotional needs.<sup>[1][2]</sup> POS is generally thought to be the organization's contribution to a positive reciprocity dynamic with employees, as employees tend to perform better to reciprocate received rewards and favorable treatment.<sup>[2]</sup> This idea bloomed from Eisenberger and Rhoades' organizational support theory.<sup>[1]</sup>

### 33.1 Overview

According to the POS website:<sup>[2]</sup>

Research on POS began with the observation that managers' concern with their employees' commitment to the organization is positively correlated with employees' focus on the organization's commitment to them. For employees, organizations serve as important sources of socioemotional resources like respect and care, as well as tangible benefits like wages and medical benefits.

- Being regarded highly by the organization helps to meet employees' needs for approval, esteem, and affiliation.
- Positive evaluation by the organization also provides an indication that increased effort will be noted and rewarded.
- Employees, therefore, take an active interest in the regard with which they are held by their employer.

POS can also be used to offer an explanation for organizational cynicism. Organizational cynicism is related to job satisfaction; it is an attitude toward an organization reflecting one's beliefs about his or her experience as part of the organization. Just as POS explains employees' feelings of value, meaning, identity, etc., it explains employees' feelings of discouragement and distance from their organization.<sup>[3]</sup> Psychologist James Dean studied employees and found that the biggest cause of cynicism was change that was perceived to be out of the employee's control. Eisenberger and Rhoades found that

changes made within the organization were less supported by employees when the changes were perceived to be out of their control.<sup>[1]</sup>

POS is also related to employee commitment, which can be negatively affected by a sense of helplessness in the event of change.<sup>[4]</sup> In fact, **organizational commitment**, increased **performance**, and reduced withdrawal behaviors were found to be most strongly related to POS in Levy's study. By studying the relationship between OC and POS, Byrne and Hochwarter found that people who feel high OC may "negatively construe" POS.<sup>[5]</sup>

POS is higher when employees think that they will benefit directly from an organizational change. Changes and improvements to outside facets of the organization can be under-appreciated if the benefits are indirectly related to the organization in which the employee works.<sup>[1]</sup> There is a certain value that comes from a tangible benefit.

Organizational support theory<sup>[6]</sup> says that in order to meet socioemotional needs and to assess the benefits of increased work effort, employees form a general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. Such POS would increase employees' felt obligation to help the organization reach its objectives, increase their identification with the organization, and contribute to their expectation that improved performance would be rewarded. Behavioral outcomes of POS would include increased in-role and extra-role performance, increased organizational commitment, and decreased withdrawal behaviors such as **absenteeism** and **turnover**.

Although there were relatively few studies of POS until the mid-1990s, research on the topic has burgeoned in the last few years. Rhoades and Eisenberger's<sup>[1]</sup> meta-analysis covered some 70 POS studies carried out through 1999, and over 300 studies have been performed since. The meta-analysis found clear and consistent relationships of POS with its predicted antecedents and consequences.

## 33.2 Common antecedents

The three common antecedents of perceived organizational support are fairness, supervisor support, and organizational rewards and job condition.<sup>[1]</sup> When employees perceive that they are receiving fair treatment in comparison to their coworkers, they perceive more support. The **equity theory** says that employees feel entitled to what they are given as workers based on their inputs to the job. Therefore, fairness can be perceived even if the rewards differ in size, based on employee rank. Fairness can also be described as **procedural justice**, or the fairness of happenings in the organization. The **politics** of the organization, or the promoting of self-interest, are often related to employees' perceptions of procedural justice.

Supervisor support was found by Eisenberger and Rhoades to be strongly related to employees' perception of support. Typically, people view their employer's actions, morals, and beliefs to be indicative and representative of the organization's actions, morals, and beliefs. POS tends to be higher when the supervisor or higher employer is thought to care about the employee's experience at work and does what he or she can to show appreciation for the work done.

Organizational rewards and job conditions play a large role in perceived organizational support as well. Sometimes, **extrinsic motivation** can mean more to an employee than **intrinsic motivation** because perceived appreciation has the power to turn a bitter employee into a content employee. Eisenberger and Rhoades discuss the many ways that employers can show appreciation and reward their employees. A few examples are paying their employees fairly; recognizing their employees for new ideas, exceptional work, etc.; promoting their employees when they deserve it; providing job security as incentive to remain with the organization; encouraging autonomy to correspondingly increase production and morale; reduce stress when made aware of it; and to provide proper training, to ensure employees' confidence in their jobs.<sup>[1]</sup> Some of these factors carry less weight than others do. Being autonomous increases an employee's desire to continue to remain loyal to his or her organization because if he feels competent and confident in his ability to do well, he will be less likely to give up or lose faith.

## 33.3 Common consequences

There are many possible consequences of POS discussed in Eisenberger and Rhoades's meta-analysis of studies done on POS. The first is organizational commitment. There are three kinds of organizational commitment:<sup>[4]</sup> affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment, or feeling an emotional tie to one's organization, is important in employees because it demonstrates a deeper meaning for

work than simply earning money. Continuance commitment, or knowing that staying with one's organization will be less costly in the end than leaving, is telling of extrinsic motivation to remain wherever one will profit the most. Normative commitment, or feeling compelled to stay because everyone else is, is less significant than the first two<sup>[4]</sup> but is still considered to have an effect on employees. Some other consequences of POS include changes in withdrawal behavior, the desire to remain, strains on employees, performance, job related affect, and job related involvement.<sup>[1]</sup> Levy also discusses absence rates, turnover, and counterproductive behaviors. Changes in these can result in undesired employee action.

There is a relationship between POS and OC. Usually, this relationship is an inverse one, meaning that if one is high, the other is low. However, there are circumstances in which both POS and OC can be high simultaneously. This generally happens because POS is usually related to the direct supervisor, whereas OC is with the company as a whole. Feelings about each can be separate. A few studies have shown that high levels of OC can have negative effects on POS. Other studies have shown that the level of an employer's organizational cynicism is not effected by the level of perceived organizational support.

POS can be positive if reciprocation of support and respect occurs between employer and employee. If the reciprocation does occur and the employee feels that he or she is being appreciated and respected for the work that he or she is doing, the POS is increased.<sup>[7]</sup> If the respect and appreciation is either not present or is not expressed adequately, then the employee may begin to harbor suspicion, which may increase organizational cynicism. Organizational commitment may, at that point, be lessened; thus jeopardizing the stability of the organization. Reciprocation can include a wide array of things, such as pleasing pay and benefits, a promotion, mutual respect between employer and employee, etc.<sup>[7]</sup>

## 33.4 Effects on performance

According to an experiment done by a group led by Wayne Hochwarter, there is a non-linear relationship between POS and performance. Predicted was that high POS was correlated with high performance. Of course, perfect correlations happen infrequently. Just as POS does not always **positively correlate** with performance, neither does job satisfaction.<sup>[4]</sup> Although POS probably does have an effect on many employees' performance, it does not necessarily cause performance to increase or decrease in productivity.

A low perception of organizational support can result in employees being wary of reciprocation.<sup>[7]</sup> Reciprocation wariness can be caused by events that are perceived as not being beneficial to the employee, for example, not receiving payment seemed necessary, or not receiving a

good payment for the appropriate length of time.<sup>[7]</sup> Authors Lynch and Armeli wrote that “fewer companies today than in the past implicitly guarantee long-term employment, provide generous pay increments and comprehensive health benefits, or subsidize general education courses.” Examples like these are possible sources for reciprocity wariness to bloom amongst employees, potentially lowering their perceptions of organizational support.

### 33.5 Socioemotional effects

Emotional support is just as important in employee health as it is in non-work related circumstances. It is important for POS to be high because an employee’s feeling of belonging, respect, and support raises his or her morale, which has a positive effect on performance. It is similar to the feeling of support from family and friends.<sup>[8]</sup> However, although each employee most likely has some need to be fulfilled, those needs are not necessarily all the same. Also, some employees might need more support than others. Some might have higher socioemotional needs.<sup>[7]</sup> An example given in an article on POS was about police officers. The police officers who needed more “approval, esteem, emotional support, or affiliation”<sup>[7]</sup> issued more speeding tickets and arrested more people for driving under the influence when their POS was high.

Accordingly, strain is affected by POS. When POS is low, strain tends to be perceived in greater intensity. When POS is high, strain is generally perceived as lower, even if it is just as present<sup>[9][10]</sup>

#### 33.5.1 Measurement items

The Survey of Perceived Organizational Support<sup>[1]</sup> was originally constructed with 32 items. Subsequent versions, however, have displayed adequate psychometric properties using 8 or as few as 3 items. Respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with the following statements on a seven-point scale.

Example items include:

1. My organization cares about my opinions.
2. My organization really cares about my well-being.
3. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.
4. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.
5. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.

6. If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me. (item is reverse-coded)
7. My organization shows very little concern for me. (item is reverse-coded)
8. My organization is willing to help me, if I need a special favor.

By using specific facets in the survey, respondents are able to provide specific answers about problems that may be unknown to employers. If aware of a general problem, employers might be unable to take action because they do not know how to fix specific issues. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is the most frequently used measure of job satisfaction that does not specifically measure perceived organizational support but does have the ability to make clear areas that are in need of improvement.<sup>[4]</sup>

### 33.6 See also

- Emotional exhaustion
- Misplaced loyalty
- Norm of reciprocity
- Perceived psychological contract violation

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## Chapter 34

# Performance appraisal

“Performance evaluation” redirects here. For the academic journal in science, see [Performance Evaluation](#).

A **performance appraisal (PA)**, also referred to as a **performance review**, **performance evaluation**,<sup>[1]</sup> (**career**) **development discussion**,<sup>[2]</sup> or **employee appraisal**<sup>[3]</sup> is a method by which the **job performance** of an **employee** is documented and evaluated. Performance appraisals are a part of **career development** and consist of regular reviews of employee performance within organizations.

### 34.1 Main features

A performance appraisal is a systematic and periodic process that assesses an individual employee’s job performance and productivity in relation to certain pre-established criteria and organizational objectives.<sup>[4][5]</sup> Other aspects of individual employees are considered as well, such as **organizational citizenship behavior**, accomplishments, potential for future improvement, strengths and weaknesses, etc.<sup>[4][6][7]</sup>

To collect PA data, there are three main methods: objective production, personnel, and judgmental evaluation. Judgmental evaluations are the most commonly used with a large variety of evaluation methods.<sup>[1]</sup> Historically, PA has been conducted annually (long-cycle appraisals); however, many companies are moving towards shorter cycles (every six months, every quarter), and some have been moving into short-cycle (weekly, bi-weekly) PA.<sup>[8][9]</sup> The **interview** could function as “providing **feedback** to employees, counseling and developing employees, and conveying and discussing compensation, job status, or disciplinary decisions”.<sup>[8]</sup> PA is often included in **performance management** systems. PA helps the subordinate answer two key questions: first, “What are your expectations of me?” second, “How am I doing to meet your expectations?”<sup>[10]</sup>

Performance management systems are employed “to manage and align” all of an organization’s resources in order to achieve highest possible performance.<sup>[1]</sup> “How performance is managed in an organization determines to

a large extent the success or failure of the organization. Therefore, improving PA for everyone should be among the highest priorities of contemporary” organizations.<sup>[11]</sup>

Some applications of PA are compensation, performance improvement, promotions, termination, test validation, and more.<sup>[12]</sup> While there are many potential benefits of PA, there are also some potential drawbacks. For example, PA can help facilitate management-employee communication; however, PA may result in legal issues if not executed appropriately, as many employees tend to be unsatisfied with the PA process.<sup>[1][13][14]</sup> PAs created in and determined as useful in the United States are not necessarily able to be transferable cross-culturally.<sup>[15]</sup>

### 34.2 Applications of results

A central reason for the utilization of performance appraisals (PAs) is performance improvement (“initially at the level of the individual employee, and ultimately at the level of the organization”).<sup>[12]</sup> Other fundamental reasons include “as a basis for employment decisions (e.g. promotions, terminations, transfers), as criteria in research (e.g. test validation), to aid with communication (e.g. allowing employees to know how they are doing and organizational expectations), to establish personal objectives for training” programs, for transmission of objective feedback for personal development, “as a means of documentation to aid in keeping track of decisions and legal requirements”<sup>[12]</sup> and in wage and salary administration.<sup>[1]</sup> Additionally, PAs can aid in the formulation of job criteria and selection of individuals “who are best suited to perform the required organizational tasks”.<sup>[4]</sup> A PA can be part of guiding and monitoring employee career development.<sup>[16]</sup> PAs can also be used to aid in work motivation through the use of reward systems.<sup>[4]</sup>

#### 34.2.1 Potential benefits

There are a number of potential benefits of organizational performance management conducting formal performance appraisals (PAs). There has been a general

consensus in the belief that PAs lead to positive implications of organizations.<sup>[17]</sup> Furthermore, PAs can benefit an organization's effectiveness.<sup>[16]</sup> One way is PAs can often lead to giving individual workers feedback about their job performance.<sup>[13]</sup> From this may spawn several potential benefits such as the individual workers becoming more productive.<sup>[18]</sup>

Other potential benefits include:

- Facilitation of communication: communication in organizations is considered an essential function of worker motivation.<sup>[13]</sup> It has been proposed that feedback from PAs aid in minimizing employees' perceptions of uncertainty.<sup>[16]</sup> Fundamentally, feedback and management-employee communication can serve as a guide in job performance.<sup>[13]</sup>
- Enhancement of employee focus through promoting trust: behaviors, thoughts, and/or issues may distract employees from their work, and trust issues may be among these distracting factors.<sup>[19]</sup> Such factors that consume psychological energy can lower job performance and cause workers to lose sight of organizational goals.<sup>[13]</sup> Properly constructed and utilized PAs have the ability to lower distracting factors and encourage trust within the organization.<sup>[20]</sup>
- Goal setting and desired performance reinforcement: organizations find it efficient to match individual worker's goals and performance with organizational goals.<sup>[13]</sup> PAs provide room for discussion in the collaboration of these individual and organizational goals.<sup>[21]</sup> Collaboration can also be advantageous by resulting in employee acceptance and satisfaction of appraisal results.<sup>[22]</sup>
- Performance improvement: well constructed PAs can be valuable tools for communication with employees as pertaining to how their job performance stands with organizational expectations.<sup>[16]</sup> "At the organizational level, numerous studies have reported positive relationships between human resource management (HRM) practices"<sup>[13]</sup> and performance improvement at both the individual and organizational levels.
- Determination of training needs: "Employee training and development are crucial components in helping an organization achieve strategic initiatives".<sup>[13][23]</sup> It has been argued that for PAs to truly be effective, post-appraisal opportunities for training and development in problem areas, as determined by the appraisal, must be offered.<sup>[24]</sup> PAs can especially be instrumental for identifying training needs of new employees.<sup>[7]</sup> Finally, PAs can help in the establishment and supervision of employees' career goals.<sup>[16]</sup>

### 34.2.2 Potential complications

Despite all the potential advantages of formal performance appraisals (PAs), there are also potential drawbacks. It has been noted that determining the relationship between individual job performance and organizational performance can be a difficult task.<sup>[23]</sup> Generally, there are two overarching problems from which several complications spawn. One of the problems with formal PAs is there can be detrimental effects to the organization(s) involved if the appraisals are not used appropriately. The second problem with formal PAs is they can be ineffective if the PA system does not correspond with the organizational culture and system.<sup>[13]</sup>

Complications stemming from these issues are:

- Detrimental to quality improvement: it has been proposed that the use of PA systems in organizations adversely affect organizations' pursuits of quality performance.<sup>[25]</sup> It is believed by some scholars and practitioners that the use of PAs is more than unnecessary if there is total quality management.<sup>[21]</sup>
- Subjective evaluations: Traditional performance appraisals are often based upon a manager's or supervisor's perceptions of an employee's performance and employees are evaluated subjectively rather than objectively. Therefore the review may be influenced by many non-performance factors such as employee 'likeability', personal prejudices, ease of management, and/or previous mistakes or successes. Reviews should instead be based on data-supported, measurable behaviors and results within the performers control.<sup>[26]</sup>
- Negative perceptions: "Quite often, individuals have negative perceptions of PAs".<sup>[17]</sup> Receiving and/or the anticipation of receiving a PA can be uncomfortable and distressful<sup>[16]</sup> and potentially cause "tension between supervisors and subordinates".<sup>[18]</sup> If the person being appraised does not trust their employer, appraiser or believe that they will benefit from the process it may become a "tick box" exercise.<sup>[27]</sup>
- Errors: Performance appraisals should provide accurate and relevant ratings of an employee's performance as compared to pre-established criteria/goals (i.e. organizational expectations).<sup>[28]</sup> Nevertheless, supervisors will sometimes rate employees more favorably than that of their true performance in order to please the employees and avoid conflict.<sup>[13]</sup> "Inflated ratings are a common malady associated with formal" PA.<sup>[29]</sup>
- Legal issues: when PAs are not carried out appropriately, legal issues could result that place the organization at risk.<sup>[18]</sup> PAs are used in organizational

disciplinary programs<sup>[16]</sup> as well as for promotional decisions within the organization.<sup>[13]</sup> The improper application and utilization of PAs can affect employees negatively and lead to legal action against the organization.

- **Performance goals:** performance goals and PA systems are often used in association. Negative outcomes concerning the organizations can result when goals are overly challenging or overemphasized to the extent of affecting ethics, legal requirements, or quality.<sup>[30]</sup> Moreover, challenging performance goals can impede an employees' abilities to acquire necessary knowledge and skills.<sup>[19]</sup> Especially in the early stages of training, it would be more beneficial to instruct employees on outcome goals than on performance goals.<sup>[13]</sup>
- **Derail merit pay or performance-based pay:** some researchers contend that the deficit in merit pay and performance-based pay is linked to the fundamental issues stemming from PA systems.<sup>[24]</sup>

### 34.2.3 Improvements

Although performance appraisals can be so easily biased, there are certain steps that can be taken to improve the evaluations and reduce the margin of errors through the following:

- *Training* - Creating an awareness and acceptance in the people conducting the appraisals that within a group of workers, they will find a wide range in difference of skills and abilities.
- *Providing Feedback to Raters* - Trained raters provide managers who evaluated their subordinates with feedback, including information on ratings from other managers. This reduces leniency errors.
- *Subordinate Participation* - By allowing employee participation in the evaluation process, there is employee-supervisor reciprocity in the discussion for any discrepancies between self ratings and supervisor ratings, thus, increasing job satisfaction and motivation.<sup>[31]</sup>

### 34.2.4 Opposition

Not everyone is in favor of formal performance appraisal systems. Many employees, especially those most affected by such ratings are not very enthusiastic about them.

There are many critics of these appraisals including labor unions and managers.

#### Labor Unions

Labor unions represent 11% (7% in the private sector) of the work force in the United States. In some cases they may require that seniority be taken as one of the main criteria for promotion. However, length of job experience may not always be a reliable indication of the ability to perform a higher level job. That is why some employers give senior people the first opportunity for promotion, but the employer may seek to further qualify the employee for that promotion because of their abilities (not solely because of length of service). Performance appraisals may provide a basis for assessment of employee merit as a component of these decisions.<sup>[32][33][34]</sup>

#### Managers

Managers who have had unsatisfactory experiences with inadequate or poorly designed appraisal programs may be skeptical about their usefulness.

- Some managers may not like to play the role of a judge and be responsible for the future of their subordinates.
- They may be uncomfortable about providing negative feedback to the employees.
- This tendency can lead them to inflate their assessments of the workers' job performance, giving higher ratings than deserved.

## 34.3 Who conducts them

Human resource management (HRM) conducts performance management. Performance management systems consist of the activities and/or processes embraced by an organization in anticipation of improving employee performance, and therefore, organizational performance.<sup>[35]</sup> Consequently, performance management is conducted at the organizational level and the individual level. At the organizational level, performance management oversees organizational performance and compares present performance with organizational performance goals.<sup>[24]</sup> The achievement of these organizational performance goals depends on the performance of the individual organizational members.<sup>[24]</sup> Therefore, measuring individual employee performance can prove to be a valuable performance management process for the purposes of HRM and for the organization.<sup>[24]</sup> Many researchers would argue that "performance appraisal is one of the most important processes in Human Resource Management".<sup>[14]</sup>

The performance management process begins with leadership within the organization creating a performance management policy.<sup>[24]</sup> Primarily, management governs performance by influencing employee performance input

(e.g. training programs) and by providing feedback via output (i.e. performance assessment and appraisal).<sup>[36]</sup> “The ultimate objective of a performance management process is to align individual performance with organizational performance”.<sup>[37]</sup> A very common and central process of performance management systems is performance appraisal (PA).<sup>[24]</sup> The PA process should be able to inform employees about the “organization’s goals, priorities, and expectations and how well they are contributing to them”.<sup>[37]</sup>

## 34.4 When are they conducted

Performance appraisals (PAs) are conducted at least annually,<sup>[24]</sup> and annual employee performance reviews appear to be the standard in most American organizations.<sup>[8]</sup> However, “it has been acknowledged that appraisals conducted more frequently (more than once a year) may have positive implications for both the organization and employee.”<sup>[13]</sup> It is suggested that regular performance feedback provided to employees may quell any unexpected and/or surprising feedback to year-end discussions.<sup>[14]</sup> In a recent research study concerning the timeliness of PAs, “one of the respondents even suggested that the performance review should be done formally and more frequently, perhaps once a month, and recorded twice a year.”<sup>[14]</sup>

Other researchers propose that the purpose of PAs and the frequency of their feedback are contingent upon the nature of the job and characteristics of the employee.<sup>[38]</sup> For example, employees of routine jobs where performance maintenance is the goal would benefit sufficiently from annual PA feedback. On the other hand, employees of more discretionary and non-routine jobs, where goal-setting is appropriate and there is room for development, would benefit from more frequent PA feedback. Non formal performance appraisals may be done more often, to prevent the element of surprise from the formal appraisal.<sup>[8][38][39]</sup>

## 34.5 Methods of collecting data

There are three main methods used to collect performance appraisal (PA) data: objective production, personnel, and judgmental evaluation. Judgmental evaluations are the most commonly used with a large variety of evaluation methods.<sup>[6]</sup>

### 34.5.1 Objective production

The objective production method consists of direct, but limited, measures such as sales figures, production numbers, the electronic performance monitoring of data entry workers, etc.<sup>[6]</sup> The measures used to appraise per-

formance would depend on the job and its duties. Although these measures deal with unambiguous criteria, they are usually incomplete because of criterion contamination and criterion deficiency. Criterion contamination refers to the part of the actual criteria that is unrelated to the conceptual criteria.<sup>[6]</sup> In other words, the variability in performance can be due to factors outside of the employee’s control. Criterion deficiency refers to the part of the conceptual criteria that is not measured by the actual criteria.<sup>[6]</sup> In other words, the quantity of production does not necessarily indicate the quality of the products. Both types of criterion inadequacies result in reduced validity of the measure.<sup>[6]</sup> Regardless of the fact that objective production data is not a complete reflection upon job performance, such data is relevant to job performance.

### Happy-productive worker hypothesis

The happy-productive worker hypothesis states that the happiest workers are the most productive performers, and the most productive performers are the happiest workers.<sup>[40]</sup> Yet, after decades of research, the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance produces only a weak positive correlation. Published in 2001 by *Psychological Bulletin*, a meta-analysis of 312 research studies produced an uncorrected correlation of 0.18.<sup>[41]</sup> This correlation is much weaker than what the happy-productive worker hypothesis would predict.

### 34.5.2 Personnel

The personnel method is the recording of withdrawal behaviors (i.e. absenteeism, accidents). Most organizations consider unexcused absences to be indicators of poor job performance, even with all other factors being equal;<sup>[40]</sup> however, this is subject to criterion deficiency. The quantity of an employee’s absences does not reflect how dedicated he/she may be to the job and its duties. Especially for blue-collar jobs, accidents can often be a useful indicator of poor job performance,<sup>[6]</sup> but this is also subject to criterion contamination because situational factors also contribute to accidents. Once again, both types of criterion inadequacies result in reduced validity of the measure.<sup>[6]</sup> Although excessive absenteeism and/or accidents often indicate poor job performance rather than good performance, such personnel data is not a comprehensive reflection of an employee’s performance.<sup>[6]</sup>

### 34.5.3 Judgmental evaluation

Judgmental evaluation appears to be a collection of methods, and as such, could be considered a methodology. A common approach to obtaining PAs is by means of raters.<sup>[1]</sup> Because the raters are human, some error will always be present in the data. The most common types of error are leniency errors, central tendency errors, and

errors resulting from the **halo effect**.<sup>[1]</sup> Halo effect is characterized by the tendency to rate a person who is exceptionally strong in one area higher than deserved in other areas. It is the opposite of the Horns effect, where a person is rated as lower than deserved in other areas due to an extreme deficiency in a single discipline.<sup>[42]</sup> These errors arise predominantly from **social cognition** and the theory in that how we judge and evaluate other individuals in various contexts is associated with how we “acquire, process, and categorize information”.<sup>[1]</sup>

An essential piece of this method is rater training. Rater training is the “process of educating raters to make more accurate assessments of performance, typically achieved by reducing the frequency of halo, leniency, and central-tendency errors”.<sup>[1]</sup> Rater training also helps the raters “develop a common frame of reference for evaluation” of individual performance.<sup>[43]</sup> Many researchers and survey respondents support the ambition of effectual rater training.<sup>[14]</sup> However, it is noted that such training is expensive, time consuming, and only truly functional for behavioral assessments.<sup>[14]</sup>

Another piece to keep in mind is the effects of rater motivation on judgmental evaluations. It is not uncommon for rating inflation to occur due to rater motivation (i.e. “organizationally induced pressures that compel raters to evaluate ratees positively”).<sup>[1]</sup> Typically, raters are motivated to give higher ratings because of the lack of organizational sanction concerning accurate/inaccurate appraisals, the rater’s desire to guarantee promotions, salary increases, etc., the rater’s inclination to avoid negative reactions from subordinates, and the observation that higher ratings of the ratees reflect favorably upon the rater.<sup>[1]</sup>

The main methods used in judgmental performance appraisal are:<sup>[1]</sup>

- **Graphic Rating Scale:** graphic rating scales (see scale (social sciences)) are the most commonly used system in PA.<sup>[1]</sup> On several different factors, subordinates are judged on 'how much' of that factor or trait they possess. Typically, the raters use a 5- or 7-point scale; however, there are as many as 20-point scales.<sup>[1]</sup>
- **Employee-Comparison Methods:** rather than subordinates being judged against pre-established criteria, they are compared with one another. This method eliminates central tendency and leniency errors but still allows for halo effect errors to occur.<sup>[1]</sup> The rank-order method has raters ranking subordinates from “best” to “worst”, but how truly good or bad one is on a performance dimension would be unknown.<sup>[1]</sup> The **paired-comparison** method requires the rater to select the two “best” subordinates out of a group on each dimension then rank individuals according to the number of times each subordinate was selected as one of the “best”.<sup>[1]</sup> The forced-distribution method is good for large groups

of rates. The raters evaluate each subordinate on one or more dimensions and then place (or “force-fit”, if you will) each subordinate in a 5 to 7 category **normal distribution**.<sup>[1]</sup> The method of top-grading can be applied to the forced distribution method.<sup>[44]</sup> This method identifies the 10% lowest performing subordinates, as according to the forced distribution, and dismisses them leaving the 90% higher performing subordinates.

- **Behavioral Checklists and Scales:** behaviors are more definite than traits. The critical incidents method (or **critical incident technique**) concerns “specific behaviors indicative of good or bad job performance”.<sup>[1]</sup> Supervisors record behaviors of what they judge to be job performance relevant, and they keep a running tally of good and bad behaviors. A discussion on performance may then follow. The **behaviorally anchored rating scales (BARS)** combine the critical incidents method with rating scale methods by rating performance on a scale but with the scale points being anchored by behavioral incidents.<sup>[1]</sup> Note that BARS are job specific. In the **behavioral observation scale (BOS)** approach to performance appraisal, employees are also evaluated in the terms of critical incidents. In that respect, it is similar to BARS. However, the **BOS** appraisal rate subordinates on the *frequency* of the critical incidents as they are observed to occur over a given period. The ratings are assigned on a five-point scale. The behavioral incidents for the rating scale are developed in the same way as for BARS through identification by supervisors or other subject matter experts. Similarly, **BOS** techniques meet equal employment opportunity because they are related to actual behavior required for successful job performance.

#### 34.5.4 Peer and self assessments

While assessment can be performed along reporting relationships (usually top-down), net assessment can include peer and self-assessment. Peer assessment is when assessment is performed by colleagues along both horizontal (similar function) and vertical (different function) relationship. Self-assessments are when individuals evaluate themselves.<sup>[1]</sup> There are three common methods of peer assessments. *Peer nomination* involves each group member nominating who he/she believes to be the “best” on a certain dimension of performance. *Peer ratings* has each group member rate each other on a set of performance dimensions. *Peer ranking* requires each group member rank all fellow members from “best” to “worst” on one or more dimensions of performance.

- **Self-assessments:** for self-assessments, individuals assess and evaluate their own behavior and job performance.<sup>[1]</sup>

- **Peer assessments:** members of a group evaluate and appraise the performance of their fellow group members.<sup>[1]</sup> There It is common for a graphic rating scale to be used for self-assessments. Positive leniency tends to be a problem with self-assessments.<sup>[6]</sup>
- **360-degree feedback:** 360-degree feedback is multiple evaluations of employees which often include assessments from superior(s), peers, and one's self.<sup>[1]</sup>
- **Negotiated Performance Appraisal:** The Negotiated Performance Appraisal (NPA) is an emerging approach for improving communication between supervisors and subordinates and for increasing employee productivity, and may also be adapted to an alternate mediation model for supervisor-subordinate conflicts. A facilitator meets separately with the supervisor and with the subordinate to prepare three lists. What employees do well, where the employee has improved in recently, and areas where the employee still needs to improve. Because the subordinate will present his or her lists first during the joint session, this reduces defensive behaviors. Furthermore, the subordinate comes to the joint session not only prepared to share areas of needed improvement, but also brings concrete ideas as to how these improvements can be made. The NPA also focuses very strongly on what employees are doing well, and involves a minimum of twenty minutes of praise when discussing what the employee does well. The role of the facilitator is that of a coach in the pre-caucuses, and in the joint sessions the supervisor and subordinate mostly speak to each other with little facilitator interference.<sup>[45][46]</sup>

In general, optimal PA process involves a combination of multiple assessment modalities. One common recommendation is that assessment flows from self-assessment, to peer-assessment, to management assessment - in that order. Starting with self-assessment facilitates avoidance of conflict. Peer feedback ensures peer accountability, which may yield better results than accountability to management. Management assessment comes last for need of recognition by authority and avoidance of conflict in case of disagreements. It is generally recommended that PA is done in shorter cycles to avoid high-stakes discussions, as is usually the case in long-cycle appraisals.

### 34.6 Normalization of Performance Appraisal Score

Normalization is the process of review of the ratings each group as a whole to ensure the ratings are as per the recommended norms and the percentages are generally decided by Management.

## 34.7 Organizational citizenship behavior

Main article: [Organizational citizenship behavior](#)

Also referred to as contextual behavior, prosocial behavior, and extra-role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) consists of employee behavior that contributes to the welfare of the organization but is beyond the scope of the employee's job duties.<sup>[6]</sup> These extra-role behaviors may help or hinder the attainment of organizational goals. Research supports five dimensions of OCB: altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue.<sup>[47]</sup> Researchers have found that the OCB dimensions of altruism and civic virtue can have just as much of an impact on manager's subjective evaluations of employees' performances as employees' objective productivity levels.<sup>[48]</sup> The degree to which OCB can influence judgments of job performance is relatively high. Controversy exists as to whether OCB should be formally considered as a part of performance appraisal (PA).

## 34.8 Interviews

The performance appraisal (PA) interview is typically the final step of the appraisal process.<sup>[1]</sup> The interview is held between the subordinate and supervisor. The PA interview can be considered of great significance to an organization's PA system.<sup>[8]</sup> It is most advantageous when both the superior and subordinate participate in the interview discussion and establish goals together.<sup>[1]</sup> Three factors consistently contribute to effective PA interviews: the supervisor's knowledge of the subordinate's job and performance in it, the supervisor's support of the subordinate, and a welcoming of the subordinate's participation.<sup>[8]</sup>

## 34.9 Employee reactions

Numerous researchers have reported that many employees are not satisfied with their performance appraisal (PA) systems.<sup>[14]</sup> Studies have shown that subjectivity as well as appraiser bias is often a problem perceived by as many as half of employees.<sup>[14]</sup> Appraiser bias, however, appears to be perceived as more of a problem in government and public sector organizations.<sup>[14]</sup> Also, according to some studies, employees wished to see changes in the PA system by making "the system more objective, improving the feedback process, and increasing the frequency of review."<sup>[14]</sup> In light of traditional PA operation defects, "organizations are now increasingly incorporating practices that may improve the system. These changes are particularly concerned with areas such as elimination of subjectivity and bias, training of appraisers, improvement of the feedback process and the performance review

discussion.”<sup>[14]</sup>

According to a meta-analysis of 27 field studies, general employee participation in his/her own appraisal process was positively correlated with employee reactions to the PA system.<sup>[22]</sup> More specifically, employee participation in the appraisal process was most strongly related to employee satisfaction with the PA system.<sup>[22]</sup> Concerning the reliability of employee reaction measures, researchers have found employee reaction scales to be sound with few concerns through using a confirmatory factor analysis that is representative of employee reaction scales.<sup>[49]</sup>

Researchers suggest that the study of employees' reactions to PA is important because of two main reasons: employee reactions symbolizes a criterion of interest to practitioners of PAs and employee reactions have been associated through theory to determinants of appraisal acceptance and success.<sup>[49]</sup> Researchers translate these reasons into the context of the scientist-practitioner gap or the “lack of alignment between research and practice.”<sup>[49]</sup>

[1] Schultz & Schultz notes that opposition to performance appraisals generally don't receive positive ratings from anyone involved. “So employees that will be directly affected by the Performance Appraisals are less than enthusiastic about participating in them”. [2] When an employee knows that their work performance has been less than perfect it's nerve racking to be evaluated. Most workers just don't appreciate constructive criticism or any criticism. Employees tend to be hostile knowing they could be given bad news on their performance. Schultz, Duane P. Schultz, Sydney Ellen (2009). *Psychology and work today* (10th ed., International ed. ed.). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson Education. pp. 108–109. ISBN 9780205705870. More than one of lauthor= and llast= specified Schultz, Duane P. Schultz, Sydney Ellen (2009). *Psychology and work today* (10th ed., International ed. ed.). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson Education. p. 109. ISBN 9780205705870. More than one of lauthor= and llast= specified

### 34.10 Legal implications

There are federal laws addressing fair employment practices, and this also concerns performance appraisal (PA). Discrimination can occur within predictions of performance and evaluations of job behaviors.<sup>[1]</sup> The revision of many court cases has revealed the involvement of alleged discrimination which was often linked to the assessment of the employee's job performance.<sup>[50]</sup> Some of the laws which protect individuals against discrimination are “the Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Civil Rights Act of 1991, the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA), and the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA).”<sup>[1]</sup> Lawsuits may also results from charges of an employer's negligence, defamation, and/or misrepresentation.<sup>[1]</sup> A few appraisal criteria to keep in

mind for a legally sound PA is to keep the content of the appraisal objective, job-related, behavior-based, within the control of the ratee, and related to specific functions rather than a global assessment.<sup>[50]</sup> Some appraisal procedure suggestions for a legally sound PA is to standardize operations, communicate formally with employees, provide information of performance deficits and give opportunities to employees to correct those deficits, give employees access to appraisal results, provide written instructions for the training of raters, and use multiple, diverse and unbiased raters.<sup>[50]</sup> These are valuable but not exhaustive lists of recommendations for PAs. The Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) guidelines apply to any selection procedure that is used for making employment decisions, not only for hiring, but also for promotion, demotion, transfer, layoff, discharge, or early retirement. Therefore, employment appraisal procedures must be validated like tests or any other selection device. Employers who base their personnel decisions on the results of a well-designed performance review program that includes formal appraisal interviews are much more likely to be successful in defending themselves against claims of discrimination.<sup>[51]</sup>

### 34.11 Cross-cultural implications

Performance appraisal (PA) systems, and the premises of which they were based, that have been formed and regarded as effective in the United States may not have the transferability for effectual utilization in other countries or cultures, and vice versa.<sup>[15]</sup> Performance “appraisal is thought to be deeply rooted in the norms, values, and beliefs of a society”.<sup>[52]</sup> “Appraisal reflects attitudes towards motivation and performance (self) and relationships (e.g. peers, subordinates, supervisors, organization), all of which vary from one country to the next”.<sup>[53]</sup> Therefore, appraisal should be in conjunction with cultural norms, values, and beliefs in order to be operative.<sup>[54]</sup> The deep-seated norms, values and beliefs in different cultures affect employee motivation and perception of organizational equity and justice. In effect, a PA system created and considered effectual in one country may not be an appropriate assessment in another cultural region.<sup>[53]</sup>

For example, some countries and cultures value the trait of assertiveness and personal accomplishment while others instead place more merit on cooperation and interpersonal connection. Countries scoring high on assertiveness consider PA to be a way of assuring equity among employees so that higher performing employees receive greater rewards or higher salaries.<sup>[53]</sup> Countries scoring low on assertiveness but higher in interpersonal relations may not like the social separation and pay inequity of higher/lower performing employees; employees from this more cooperative rather than individualistic culture place more concern on interpersonal relationships with

other employees rather than on individual interests.<sup>[53]</sup> High assertive countries value performance feedback for self-management and effectiveness purposes while countries low in assertiveness view performance feedback as “threatening and obtrusive”.<sup>[53][55]</sup> In this case, the PA of the high assertive countries would likely not be beneficial for countries scoring lower in assertiveness to employ. However, countries scoring lower in assertiveness could employ PA for purposes of improving long-term communication development within the organization such as clarifying job objectives, guide training and development plans, and lessen the gap between job performance and organizational expectations.<sup>[56]</sup>

## 34.12 Developments in information technology

Computers have been playing an increasing role in PA for some time (Sulsky & Keown, 1998). There are two main aspects to this. The first is in relation to the electronic monitoring of performance, which affords the ability to record a huge amount of data on multiple dimensions of work performance (Stanton, 2000). Not only does it facilitate a more continuous and detailed collection of performance data in some jobs, e.g. call centres, but it has the capacity to do so in a non-obvious, covert manner. The second aspect is in mediating the feedback process, by recording and aggregating performance ratings and written observations and making the information available on-line; many software packages are available for this. The use of IT in these ways undoubtedly helps in making the appraisal process more manageable, especially where multiple rating sources are involved, but it also raises many questions about appraisees’ reactions and possible effects on PA outcomes. Mostly, the evidence so far is positive.<sup>[57]</sup>

## 34.13 Rater errors

Mistakes made by raters is a major source of problems in performance appraisal. There is no simple way to completely eliminate these errors, but making raters aware of them through training is helpful. Rater errors are based on the feelings and it has consequences at the time of appraisal.<sup>[58][59]</sup>

### Varying standards <sup>[60]</sup>

- Problem: When a manager appraises (evaluates) his or her employees and the manager uses different standards and expectations for employees who are performing similar jobs.
- Example: A professor do not grade the exams of all students in the same stan-

dards, sometimes it depends on the affection that the professor has towards others. This affection will make professor give students higher or lower grades.

- Solution: The rater must use the same standards and weights for every employee. The manager should be able to show coherent arguments in order to explain the difference. Therefore, it would be easier to know if it is done, because the employee has done a good performance, or if it because the manager perception is distorted.

### Recency Effects

- Problem: When the manager, according only to the last performance, that has been quite good, rates higher.
- Example: When a professor gives the course grade based just in the performance of the student, only in the last week.
- Solution: In order to avoid that, the manager should use some methods as documenting both in positive and negative aspects.

### Primacy Effects

- Problem: When the person who evaluates gives more weight according to information the manager has received first.
- Example: It could be a silly example. When we are watching a TV quiz and conquest have to remember a list of things, they only remember the first ones. This is apply also in remembering human performance.
- Solution: performance. When manager has to take some decision, is better not to do it according to what he or she remembers. It is better to based on real actions that has happened and are recorded.

### Central Tendency

- Problem: When the manager evaluate every employees within a narrow range, as the average because he or she is dismissing the differences in the performance that employees have done.
- Example: When a professor because the average of the class tends to grade harder. Therefore, if the performance of the class



average is quite high, the professor will evaluate them more high. In the contrary, if the average of the class is lower, he or she would appraise lower.

### Leniency

- Problem: Rating of all employees are at the high end of the scale.
- Example: When the professor tends to grade harder, because the average of the class.

### Strictness

- Problem: When a manager uses only the lower part of the scale to rate employees.
- Example: When the professor tends to grade lower, because the average of the class.
- Solution: try to focus more on the individual performance of every employee regardless the average results.

### Rater Bias<sup>[61]</sup>

- Problem: Rater's when the manager rates according to his or her values and prejudices which at the same time distort (distorsionar) the rating. Those differentiations can be made due to the ethnic group, gender, age, religion, sex, appearance...
- Example: Sometimes happen that a manager treats someone different, because he or she thinks that the employee is homosexual.
- Solution: If then, the examination is done by higher-level managers, this kind of appraising can be corrected, because they are supposed to be more partial.

### Halo Effect

- Problem: When a manager rates an employee high on all items because of one characteristic that he or she likes.
- Example: If a worker has few absence but the supervisor has a good relationship with that employee, the supervisor might give to the employee a high rating in all other areas of work, in order to balance the rating. Sometimes it happens due to the emotional dependability based on the good relationship they have.

- Solution: Training raters to recognize the problem and differentiating the person with the performance they do.

### Horns Effect

- Problem: This is the opposite to the Halo effect and Horns effect occurs when a manager rates an employee low on all items because of one characteristic that he or she dislikes.
- Example: If a worker does a good performance and in some resting times he or she loves telling jokes, but his or her supervisor hates jokes, the supervisor might give to the employee a lower rating in all other areas of work, because they do not have that connexion. Sometimes it happens when they do not have a close relationship and manager do not like the person her/him-self.
- Solution: Is the same as in the Halo Effect. Training raters to recognize the problem and differentiating the person with the performance they do.

### Contrast

- Problem: The tendency to rate people relative to other people rather than to the individual performance he or her is doing.
- Example: At school, if you are sat down where all the chatty people are and you are silent but you do not pay attention and you do not do your homework, because you are drawing; when teacher gets angry with the group, you might be excluded of the bad behavior they have just because you are silent; but not because you are doing a good performance. Therefore, according to the group, you are not that chatty, but you are either doing the proper performance. However the rater will only get the idea that your behavior is not as bad as other, thus, you will be rate higher.
- Solution: The rating should reflect the task requirement performance, not according to other people attitude.

### Similar-to-Me / Different-from-Me

- Problem: Sometimes, ratters are influenced by some of the characteristics that people show. Depending if those characteristics are similar or different to ratters' one, they would be evaluated differently.

- Example: A manager with higher education degree might give subordinates with higher education degree a higher appraisal than those with only bachelor's degrees.
- Solution: Try to focus on the performance the employee is doing regardless the common characteristic that you have

### Sampling

- Problem: When the rater evaluates the performance of an employee relying only on a small percentage of the amount of work done.
- Example: An employee has to do 100 reports. Then, the manager take five of them to check how has the work been made, and the manager finds mistakes in those five reports. Therefore the manager will appraised the work of the employee as a "poor" one, without having into account the other 95 reports that the manager has not seen, that have been made correctly.
- Solution: To follow the entire track of the performance, not just a little part of it.

We have been looking one by one the possible solutions to each of the situations, which are also complicated to put into practice, thus here we have a general solution that could be apply to all the possible rating errors. It is difficult to minimized rater errors, since we are humans and we are not objective. Moreover, sometimes, we are not aware of our behavior of having preferences towards people but there are some tools in order to have a more objective information as using available technology to track performances and record it which enables manager to have some objective information about the process.

### 34.14 See also

- Performance rating (work measurement)
- Performance paradox
- Industrial and organizational psychology
- Behavioral risk management
- Employee motivation
- Employment law
- Human resource development
- Human resource management

- Industrial sociology
- Organizational socialization
- Personnel psychology
- Quality of working life
- Systems psychology
- Association of Business Psychologists
- Work motivation
- Job analysis
- Personnel selection
- Employment integrity testing
- Job satisfaction
- Organizational commitment
- Cultural psychology
- Stagnation Increment in CPSEs

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## Chapter 35

# Position analysis questionnaire

**Position analysis questionnaire** or “PAQ” is a method of Job analysis questionnaire that evaluates job skill level and basic characteristics of applicants for a set match of employment opportunity. The position analysis questionnaire has been developed at Purdue University by McCormick, E.J., & Jeanneret, and Mechame in 1972. The Position analysis questionnaire involves a series of detail questioning to produce many analysis reports.<sup>[1]</sup> This method is high in use within Industrial and Organizational Psychology also Individual psychological assessment the Human Resource department or any individual trained in Job analysis take part in “PAQ”.

### 35.1 Purpose of PAQ

The PAQ was developed with the hope that it could be used with a minimum of training on the part of the individual who uses it in analyzing a job.<sup>[2]</sup> Compared to many other methods in Job analysis PAQ has been created to be more effective becoming easy to use for Human resource and trainees, they are less time consuming to conduct and inexpensive. This questionnaire’s purpose is to further define the duties and responsibilities of a position in order to determine the appropriateness of the position classification, essential functions and/or whether or not the position is exempt from overtime. Position analysis Questionnaire contains 194 items called “job elements” and consists of six different divisions:

- 1. Information input
- 2. Mental processes
- 3. Work Output
- 4. Relationships with other persons
- 5. Job context
- 6. Job related variables

### 35.2 Advantages and Disadvantages

The Position analysis questionnaire is inexpensive and takes little time conduct. It is one of the most standardized job analysis methods, it has levels of reliability, its position can be compared through computer analysis.<sup>[3]</sup> PAQ elements apply to a various number of jobs across-the-board, as diverged with job assignments. Position Analysis Questionnaire can be used for individuals repairing automobile generators, serving food to patrons in a restaurant, taking samples of blood from patients or with worker characteristics general learning ability, verbal aptitude, numerical aptitude, manual dexterity, stamina and reaction time.<sup>[4]</sup> PAQ used simple wording and less complex questions to apply to the various of jobs it can attract through the method. Through exceptional research PAQ has been shown to be an easier and effective method for Human resource and other departments for hiring process. In 1975 Ekkehart Frieling criticized the Position analysis through extensive research stating it is not possible one method to be used to differentiate and classify equally all conceivable occupations.<sup>[5]</sup> Other findings stated, the PAQ has been written in the college level while the incumbents had the education of 10th to 12th grade level. In addition the PAQ has been developed for all jobs but has been shown that it is limited to 194 jobs and six dimensions.

### 35.3 PAQ Revision

The three basic steps to conduct a Position analysis questionnaire.

1. Human resources and other staff attend a PAQ Job Analysis Training Course. PAQ Questionnaires are filled out by trained professionals, not job incumbents.
2. Trained PAQ Job Analysts then use the Position Analysis Questionnaire to analyze selected jobs.
3. The PAQ Questionnaires are submitted to PAQ for scoring, with the results then used to analyze by Human resource or other trained managers.<sup>[6]</sup>

Patrick and Moore have revised the PAQ and developed a couple of changes which is called Job Structure Profile (JSP). JSP included item content style and new items to increase the discriminatory of the decision making dimension. This method is designed to be used more by Job analyst then by job incumbent. Another alternative to the Position analysis questionnaire was developed by Cornelius and Hackel in 1978 called Job Element Inventory "JEI" and it is very similar to the tradition PAQ but it is constructed to be easier to read for both incumbent, job analyst, and applicants. [7]

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## 35.5 See also

- Job analysis
- Industrial and organizational psychology
- Human Resource

## Chapter 36

# Positive organizational behavior

**Positive Organizational Behavior (POB)** is defined as “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” (Luthans, 2002a, p. 59).<sup>[1]</sup>

For a positive psychological capacity to qualify for inclusion in POB, it must be positive and must have extensive theory and research foundations and valid measures. In addition, it must be state like, which would make it open to development and manageable for performance improvement. Finally, positive states that meet the POB definitional criteria are primarily researched, measured, developed, and managed at the individual, micro level.<sup>[2]</sup>

The state-like criterion distinguishes POB from other positive approaches that focus on positive traits, whereas its emphasis on micro, individual-level constructs separates it from positive perspectives that address positive organizations and their related macro-level variables and measures. Meeting the inclusion criteria for POB are the state-like psychological resource capacities of self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resiliency and, when combined, the underlying higher-order, core construct of Positive psychological capital or PsyCap.<sup>[3]</sup>

### 36.1 General overview

POB is the application of Positive psychology to the workplace. Its focus is on strengths and on building the best in the workplace under the basic assumption is that goodness and excellence can be analyzed and achieved.

#### 36.1.1 Origins of POB: The Positive Psychology Movement

Although POB research is relatively new, its core ideas are based on ideas of earlier scholars. POB origins developed from the Positive Psychology movement, initiated in 1998 by Martin Seligman and colleagues. Positive Psychology aims to shift the focus in psychology from dysfunctional mental illness to mental health, calling for an increased focus on the building of

human strength.

The levels of analysis of positive psychology have been summarized to be at the subjective level (i.e., positive subjective experience such as well being and contentment with the past, flow and happiness in the present, and hope and optimism into the future); the micro, individual level (i.e., positive traits such as the capacity for love, courage, aesthetic sensibility, perseverance, forgiveness, spirituality, high talent, and wisdom); and the macro group and institutional level (i.e., positive civic virtues and the institutions that move individuals toward better citizenship such as responsibility, altruism, civility, moderation, tolerance, and a strong work ethic).<sup>[4]</sup>

By integrating positive psychology to organizational setting, Fred Luthans has pioneered the positive organizational behavior research in 1999. Since then, Luthans and colleagues have been attempting to find ways of designing work settings that emphasize people’s strengths, where they can be both their best selves and at their best with each other. Thus far research has shown that employees who are satisfied and find fulfillment in their work are more productive, absent less, and demonstrate greater organizational loyalty.<sup>[5] [6] [7]</sup>

Despite initial studies and conceptualizations, the field of POB is still in its infancy. Further research regarding the precise antecedents, processes, and consequences of positive psychological behavior is needed. The challenge currently awaiting POB is to bring about a more profound understanding the real impact of positive states for organizational functioning and how these states can be enhanced within the work place.

### 36.2 See also

- Positive psychological capital
- Positive psychology
- Positive organizational scholarship

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### 36.4 External links

- Fred Luthans, profile in University of Nebraska-Lincoln
- Institute of Applied Positive Psychology (IAPPI) - A not-for-profit, research based, educational institution dedicated to advancing the use of positive psychology in organizations.



## Chapter 37

# Positive psychological capital

**Positive Psychological Capital** is defined as the positive and developmental state of an individual as characterized by high self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resiliency.<sup>[1]</sup>

### 37.1 Introduction

For decades psychology has been associated as dealing mainly with treatment of mental illness, although other areas of research and application have existed since its origins. At the very end of the twentieth century a new approach in psychology gained popularity: positive psychology.

Positive psychology, the study of optimal human functioning, is an attempt to respond to the systematic bias inherent in psychology's historical emphasis on mental illness rather than on mental wellness (Seligman, 2002), mainly by focusing on two, forgotten but classical psychological goals:

- Help ordinary people to live a more productive and meaningful life.
- A full realization of the potential that exists in the human being.

Since Martin Seligman, a former head of American Psychological Association, chose positive psychology as the theme of his presidency term, more empirical research and theoretic development emerged in this field.

Two new branches of positive psychology are being implemented into the industrial-organizational world.

- Positive organizational scholarship- originated by Kim Cameron and colleagues <sup>[2]</sup> is a research field that emphasizes the positive characteristics of the organization that facilitates its ability to function during periods of crisis.
- Positive organizational behavior (POB) – originated by Fred Luthans <sup>[3]</sup> a former president of the Academy of Management focuses on measurable positive- psychological states that are open to development and have impact on desired employee attitudes, behaviors, and performance.

Drawing from positive psychology constructs and empirical research, four psychological resources were determined to best meet the POB scientific criteria: Hope, Efficacy, Resilience, and Optimism and were termed by Luthans and colleagues as psychological Capital or PsyCap <sup>[4] [5] [6]</sup> In combination, the four constructs making up PsyCap were empirically determined to be a second-order, core construct that had a stronger relationship with satisfaction and performance than each of the components by itself. <sup>[7]</sup> The four components are defined as follows:

**Hope** – Is defined as a positive motivational state where two basic elements - successful feeling of agency (or goal oriented determination) and pathways (or proactively planning to achieve those goals) interact.

**Self efficacy** – Is defined as people's confidence in their ability to achieve a specific goal in a specific situation.

**Optimism** – was defined by Seligman by Attribution theory (Fritz Heider, 1958). An Optimistic person is defined as one that makes "Internal" or "dispositional", fixed and global attributions for positive events and "External" or "situational", not fixed and specific attributions to negative events. Optimism in PsyCap is thought as a realistic construct that regards what an employee can or cannot do, as such, optimism reinforces efficacy and hope.

**Resilience** – Is defined in Positive Psychology as a positive way of coping with adversity or distress. In organizational aspect, it is defined as an ability to recuperate from stress, conflict, failure, change or increase in responsibility.

### 37.2 Relationship between positive psychological capital and different organizational outcomes

**PsyCap has positive correlation with desired employee attitudes, behaviors and performance.**<sup>[8]</sup>

A meta-analysis of 51 independent samples found strong, significant, positive relationship between PsyCap and

desirable attitudes (e.g., satisfaction, commitment, and well-being), behaviors (e.g., citizenship) and performance (self, supervisor rated, and objective) and a negative relationship with undesirable attitudes (e.g., cynicism, stress, anxiety, and turnover intentions) and behaviors (e.g., deviance).

### **PsyCap mediates between supportive climate and employee performance<sup>[9]</sup> - Psycap**

PsyCap and positive supportive climate are necessary for human resources in order to achieve stable organizational growth. Supportive climate is defined as the total support that an employee receives from their coworkers, other departments and their supervisors which helps them with their job demands.

### **High PsyCap Employees supports effective organizational change<sup>[10]</sup>**

Organizational change is defined as a lack of fit with the environment which intensifies as a result of a gap between the organizational goals and its present outcomes. The employees have the responsibility to adjust and behave according to the new strategy dictated by the management, mostly with fewer resources. During change, different aspects of employees' PsyCap is put to the test – they have to learn new ways of behavior and be confident to do so, recover from the crisis, be motivated to cope efficiently and to believe in a better future. PsyCap and positive emotions are examples of how personal factors facilitate organizational change. Positive change is defined as every change that the organization undergoes for its own benefit and has more positive psychological and behavioral consequences than negative ones. The role of positive emotions is that they help workers cope with the organizational change by broadening their point of view, encourage open decision making and giving them essential vitality for their coping. This interaction means that PsyCap, through positive emotions, influences the worker's attitudes and behavior, which in turn, influences the organizational change.

### **PsyCap can be developed<sup>[11]</sup>**

Both experimental <sup>[12]</sup> <sup>[13]</sup> and longitudinal <sup>[14]</sup> research indicates the state-like nature of PsyCap and that it can be developed and cause performance to improve.

### **PsyCap can be extended beyond work into other life domains such as relationships and health<sup>[15]</sup>**

Recent research has found that measures of "Relationship PsyCap" and "Health PsyCap" are related to both individual's respective satisfaction appraisals and desired objective outcomes such as time spent with family and friend in the cases of relationships and cholesterol and BMI in the case of health. When combined with work satisfaction, these three are related to overall well-being.

Now after almost a decade of theory building <sup>[16]</sup> and research, PsyCap is widely recognized throughout the world and is being applied in positive leadership <sup>[17]</sup> <sup>[18]</sup> and

human resource development and performance management programs in all types of organizations - businesses, health, education, military and athletics.

## **37.3 External links**

- Liam F. Page and Ross Donohue, *Positive Psychological Capital: A Preliminary Exploration of the Construct*, Monash University
- Institute of Applied Positive Psychology (IAPPI) - A not-for-profit, research based, educational institution dedicated to advancing the use of positive psychology in organizations.

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## Chapter 38

# Positive psychology in the workplace

Implementing **positive psychology in the workplace** means creating an environment that is relatively enjoyable and productive. This also means creating a work schedule that does not lead to emotional and physical distress.

### 38.1 Background

According to information provided by The **United States Department of Labor**, “In 2009 employed persons worked an average of 7.5 hours on the days they worked, which were mostly weekdays. [In addition to that], 84 percent of employed persons did some or all of their work at their workplace.[1]” [1] Therefore, this indicates that the majority of the population is spending their waking hours at work, outside their homes. Therefore employers must do their best to create a low stress and inspiring work environment to yield greater productivity. Michelle T. Jaffaldano and Paul M. Muchinsky were one of the first people to reignite interest in the connection between **job satisfaction** and job performance. The meta-analytic research of these individuals impacted the way in which later research on the topic was conducted, especially regarding sample sizes.[2]

Positive psychology in the workplace is about shifting attention away from negative aspects such as work violence, stress, burnout, and job insecurity. Positive psychology can help create a working environment goal of promoting positive affect in its employees. Fun should not be looked at as something that cannot be achieved during work but rather as a motivation factor for the staff. Along these same lines, it is important to examine the role of: helping behaviors, team building exercises, job resources, job security and work support. The new emerging field of Positive Psychology also helps to creatively manage organizational behaviors and to increase productivity in the workplace through applying positive organizational forces.[3] In the broad sense traditional psychology has not specifically focused on the implementation of positive psychology methods in the workplace. The recent research on job satisfaction and employee retention has created a greater need to focus on implementing positive psychology in the workplace.

### 38.2 Major theoretical approaches

**Martin E.P. Seligman** and **Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi** are noted as two individuals who mainstreamed the idea of positive psychology as an area of study. They state that “psychology has become a science largely about healing. Therefore its concentration on healing largely neglects the fulfilled individual and thriving community”.[4] According to Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, “the aim of positive psychology is to begin to catalyze a change in the focus of psychology from preoccupation only with repairing the worst things in life to also building positive qualities.”[4] Positive psychology hopes its necessity will diminish because it will eventually be incorporated to pre-existing areas of psychological study.

**Abraham Maslow** and **Carl Rogers** developed **Humanistic Psychology** that focuses on the positive potential of people and on helping people to reach their full potential.[5]

**Peter Warr** is noted for his early work on work well-being. “Proponents of the well-being perspective argue that the presence of positive emotional states and positive appraisals of the worker and his or her relationships within the workplace accentuate worker performance and quality of life”.[6] A common idea in work environment theories is that demands match or slightly exceed the resources. In regards to the research regarding positive outcomes within the employment setting, several models (**Demand Control**, **Job Demands-Resources**, and **Job Characteristics**) have been established.

#### 38.2.1 Demand control model

**Robert A. Karasek** is credited with this particular work design model. The **Demand Control Model (DCM)** has been used by researchers to design jobs that enhance the psychological and physical well-being.[7] This model promotes a work design that proposes high demand and high control, fostering an environment that encourages learning and offers autonomy simultaneously. This model is based on an assumption that “workers with active jobs are more likely to seek challenging situations that promote mastery, thereby encouraging skill and knowledge acquisition”.[8] This model also points out the role of so-

cial support, referring to the quality interactions between colleagues and managers.<sup>[9]</sup> However, there is some controversy over this model because some researchers<sup>[10]</sup> believe it lacks evidence for the interaction between demand and control. The DCM is commonly criticized for its inability to consistently replicate findings to support its basic assumption. The DCM has been criticized for “its simplicity, inability to capture the complexity of work environments. However there is evidence that supports the idea that “high amounts of job control is associated with increases in job satisfaction and decreased depression, however high demands with out adequate control may lead to increase anxiety”.<sup>[11]</sup>

### 38.2.2 Job demands-resources

The job demands-resources model (JD-R) is an expansion of the DCM and is founded on the same principle that high job demands and high job resources produce employees with more positive work attitudes. The difference between the JD-R and DCM is that the JD-R expounds upon the differentiation between demand and resources, as well as encompasses a broader view of resources. This model refers to demands as “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort.”<sup>[12]</sup> This may refer to jobs that require contact with customers. Resources are regarded as “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either/or: (1) functional in achieving work goals; (2) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; and (3) stimulate personal growth, learning, and development”.<sup>[13]</sup> Another difference between these two theories is that the JD-R postulates that resources can be predictors of motivation and learning related outcomes. The findings by Bakker and colleagues supports their hypothesis that many resources may be linked to job well-being. They also found that “task enjoyment and organizational commitment are the result of combinations of many different job demands and job resources. Enjoyment and commitment were high when employees were confronted with challenging and stimulating tasks, and simultaneously had sufficient resources at their disposal”.<sup>[14]</sup>

### 38.2.3 Job characteristics model

The job characteristics model (JCM) is “an influential theory of work design developed by Hackman and Oldham. It is based upon five characteristics - skill variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and task feedback - which are used to identify the general content and structure of jobs”.<sup>[15]</sup> This model argues that employees with a personal need for growth and development, as well as knowledge and skill, will display more positive work outcomes. These include things such as: job satisfaction, lower absenteeism, and better work turnover.

This model is based upon an idea that high task control and feedback are two essential elements for maximizing work potential. Stronger experiences of these five traits is said to lead to greater job satisfaction and better performance.<sup>[16]</sup>

## 38.3 Empirical evidence

### 38.3.1 Safety

In order to protect the physical and mental health of workers, the demands of the job must be balanced by easily accessible job resources in order to prevent burnout (psychology) in employees yet encourage employee engagement.<sup>[17]</sup> The interaction between the demand and resources within a job determines employee engagement or burnout. Engagement signifies a positive employee who is committed to the safety within the workplace for self and others. In contrast, burnout represents a negative employee possessing elements of anxiety, depression, and work-related stress. Engagement increases as job resources like knowledge of safety are present. On the other hand, burnout increases when more job demands are present without the buffering effects of job resources.

Hazards in the workplace can be seen as a combination of the physical demands of the work and the complexity of the work. Job resources provide a buffering effect that protects the employees from job demands like high work pressure, an unfavorable physical environment, and emotionally demanding interactions.<sup>[18]</sup> Employees are better equipped to handle changes in their work environment when resources are readily available.<sup>[19]</sup> The resources a job can provide include autonomy, support, and knowledge of safety. Autonomy allows employees the freedom to decide how to execute their work. Support can originate directly from a supervisor or from other workers in the environment. And lastly, employees must have knowledge about safety procedures and policies. When the employee is able to work in a safe environment, workers are more satisfied with their jobs. A safe environment provides support and resources that promote healthy employees.

### 38.3.2 Emotion, attitude and mood

Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognize, and interpret emotions that can be used to regulate emotions and assist cognitive processes which promote emotional and intellectual growth.<sup>[20]</sup> Emotional intelligence has been researched by Carmelli (2003) in order to see its effect on employees work performance.<sup>[21]</sup> Due to the social nature of the interactions of the employees, emotional intelligence is essential in order to work well with co-workers. When employees work well together their task performance improves and as a result the business ben-

efits. With emotional intelligence, employees are better able to perceive others needing help and are more willing to help for intrinsic benefits.

Isen & Reeve (2005) proposed that positive affect led to positive intrinsic motivation for completing a task.<sup>[22]</sup> As a result of the intrinsic motivation, the employees enjoyed the task more and were more optimistic when having to complete more uninteresting task. The combination of having the freedom to choose tasks and maintaining positive affect results in better task performance. Positive affect promotes self-control to remain focused on any task and forward-looking thinking that motivates workers to look-forward to more enjoyable tasks.

Concepts of positive psychology like hope and altruism provide a positive work environment that influences the moods and attitudes of workers. Youssef & Luthans (2007) examined the effects hope, optimism, and resilience had in the workplace on employees' job performance, job satisfaction, work happiness, and organizational commitment.<sup>[23]</sup> Hope and resilience had a more direct effect on organizational commitment whereas hope had a greater impact on performance. Hope allows employees to be better at creating more realistic plans for completing task so as not to focus on the failure that accompanies an incomplete task. Optimism strengthens the employee's resilience to break through barriers and causes the employee to build social support and other strengths to overcome obstacle he or she may encounter.

Positive psychology also encourages maintaining positive mood in the work environment to encourage productivity on an individual level and organizational level. Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) refer to behaviors like altruism and compliance that are not formal tasks in that the behaviors are not a mandatory of the workers job description. They are considered extra-role behaviors that help in gauging the workers commitment to the job and to the rules of the job in the absence of monitoring these behaviors. OCB have proven to improve the moods of employees and the moods in the workplace.<sup>[24]</sup> A helping behavior improves mood because the individual is no longer focused of negative moods; helping others acts as a distracter for the employee. Altruism is effective because it has more impact in a social setting like the workplace and is more extrinsically rewarding. OCB encourage positive interactions among workers and lead to better psychological health for employees.

According to Froman (2010), having a more hopeful perspective about life leads one to being more optimistic about responding to opportunities.<sup>[25]</sup> Workers are more resilient to adversity and are able to bounce back more quickly. When organizations encourage positive attitudes in their employees, they grow and flourish. As a result, the organization profits and grows from the human capital of productive employees and the monetary capital resulting from productive workers.

### 38.3.3 Fun

Chan (2010) studied fun activities in the workplace that created a positive work environment that could retain and attract employees and encourage employee well-being.<sup>[26]</sup> Activities must be enjoyable and pleasurable. The activities also encourage employees to be more responsible and a team player. These qualities empower employees to more engaged with their work, take on more leadership roles, and experience less stress. Making work fun promotes positive, happy moods in employees that in turn increase job satisfaction and organizational commitment. According to Chan's framework, workplace fun must be staff-oriented, supervisor-oriented, social-oriented, or strategy oriented.<sup>[27]</sup> While staff-oriented activities focus on creating fun work for employees, supervisor-oriented activities create a better relationship between the employees and supervisors. Social-oriented activities create social events that are organizational-based (i.e. company barbecue or Christmas office party). Strategy-oriented activities allow more autonomy with employees in different aspects of their work in hopes of cultivating strengths within the organization's employees. The framework proposes that a fun work environment promotes employee well-being in addition to fostering creativity, enthusiasm, satisfaction and communication among the organization's employees. The research found in this study hopes to encourage implementing other work fun activities in other various industries in order to engage and retain positive employees.

## 38.4 Applications

There are several examples of popular, real-world uses of infusing Positive Psychology in the workplace. In such contexts such as a workplace, researchers often hope to examine and measure variable levels of such factors such as productivity and organization. One such popular model is the aforementioned Job Characteristics Model (JCM), which applies influential theories of work as it correlates to the five central characteristics of skill variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and task feedback.<sup>[28]</sup> However, such practices such as business teams within a workplace often present the varying dynamics of positivity and negativity in business behaviors. There are often a plethora of special research teams that go into looking at certain workplaces in order to help report to employers the status of their employees. Furthermore, the three psychological states often measured and examined are: meaningfulness of performed work, responsibility of outcomes, and results knowledge. In mixing together these aspects, a score is generated in order to observe a range reflecting a job quality. In addition, each score details the differing degrees of autonomy and necessary feedback as it relates to ensuring high quality work. Most research points to the fact that typical teams of high performance are those that function high on pos-

itivity in their workplace behaviors.

### 38.5 Controversies

Adequate research regarding whether the practice of measuring factors, such as positive behaviors is lacking. More specifically, in attempting to measure some form of a variable in order to later ensure a positive environment context in the workplace, there is debate to an extent regarding which proper components to value and measure. Additionally, the act and process of specifically looking into certain factors of productivity in the workplace can also go on to influence workers negatively due to pressure.

### 38.6 Conclusion

The multitudes of research and new, developing information detailing the possibility of positive psychology at work often deals with reporting workplace safety, employee engagement, productivity, and overall happiness.<sup>[29]</sup> Moreover, understanding the significance of a healthy work environment can directly provide and contribute to work mastery and work ethic. Motivation, researchers have learned, helps to keep a reinforced sense of both discipline and a higher perception which then yields to higher levels of efficiency for both employees and employers.

### 38.7 See also

- Positive psychology
- Happiness at work
- Employee engagement
- Work engagement
- Booster Breaks in the Workplace

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## Chapter 39

# Shared leadership

**Shared leadership** is leadership that is broadly distributed, such that people within a team and organization lead each other. It has frequently been compared to horizontal leadership, distributed leadership, and collective leadership and is most contrasted with more traditional “vertical” or “hierarchical” leadership which resides predominantly with an individual instead of a group.<sup>[1]</sup>

### 39.1 Definitions

Shared leadership can be defined in a number of ways, but all definitions describe a similar phenomenon – team leadership by more than only the appointed leader. Below are a few examples from researchers in this field:

- Yukl (1989): “Individual members of a team engaging in activities that influence the team and other team members.”<sup>[2]</sup>
- Pearce and Sims (2001): “leadership that emanates from members of teams, and not simply from the appointed leader.”<sup>[3]</sup>
- Pearce and Conger (2003): “a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals and groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both.” They also added that “this influence process often involves peer, or lateral, influence and at other times involves upward or downward hierarchical influence”<sup>[4]</sup>
- Carson, Tesluck, and Marrone (2007): “An emergent team property that results from the distribution of leadership influence across multiple team members.”<sup>[5]</sup>
- Bergman, Rentsch, Small, Davenport, and Bergman (2012): “Shared leadership occurs when two or more members engage in the leadership of the team in an effort to influence and direct fellow members to maximize team effectiveness.”<sup>[6]</sup>

Shared leadership is also commonly thought of as the “serial emergence” of multiple leaders over the life of a team, stemming from interactions among team members in which at least one team member tries to influence other members or the team in general.<sup>[7]</sup> While the definition clearly has several variants, they all make the fundamental distinction between shared leadership and more traditional notions of hierarchical leadership. As Pearce, Manz and Sims (2009) summarize, all definitions of shared leadership consistently include a “process of influence” that is “built upon more than just downward influence on subordinates or followers by an appointed or elected leader.” Nearly all concepts of shared leadership entail the practice of “broadly sharing power and influence among a set of individuals rather than centralizing it in the hands of a single individual who acts in the clear role of a dominant superior.”<sup>[8]</sup>

### 39.2 Background

Though a relatively new phenomenon in the literature, the concept of shared leadership can actually be traced back several centuries. In a 2002 paper, David Sally noted that shared leadership was present even in the early days of Republican Rome. Indeed, during those ancient times, Rome “had a successful system of co-leadership that lasted for over four centuries. This structure of co-leadership was so effective that it extended from the lower levels of the Roman magistracy to the very top position, that of consul.” (Sally, 2002) Despite such early incantations of the practice, however, most of the scholarly work on leadership has still been predominantly focused on the study of leadership in its hierarchical form. Leadership is conceived around a single individual – the leader – and how that person inspires, entices, commands, cajoles and controls followers. Research on shared leadership instead departs from the notion that leadership may well be studied as a collective phenomenon, as activities involving several individuals beyond the formally appointed manager<sup>[9]</sup>

There are some earlier conceptualizations of shared leadership. In 1924, Mary Parker Follet wrote that “one should not only look to the designated leader, but one

should let logic dictate to whom one should look for guidance” (as cited by Crainer, 2002, p. 72).<sup>[10]</sup> Along similar lines, Gibb, in 1954, wrote that “leadership is probably best conceived as a group quality, as a set of functions which must be carried out by the group.”<sup>[11]</sup> Despite these early nods toward group leadership, the formalized construct of shared leadership did not become more developed and experimentally explored until recently. Current research suggest that shared leadership forms may imply significant advantages at individual-, team-, organizational- and societal levels<sup>[12]</sup>

The shift in this scholarly paradigm might partly be explained by looking at the rise of studies on teamwork. Teamwork is becoming increasingly important in the workplace literature as many organizations recognize the benefits that teamwork can bring. Thus, organizations consider it important to investigate team effectiveness and the elements that increase this. Leaders have been pointed to as critical factors in team performance and effectiveness; some have even gone as far as to say they the most important ingredient for team effectiveness.<sup>[13]</sup> Additionally, problems associated with team leaders are often cited as the primary reason for failures of work involving teams.<sup>[14]</sup>

With the complexity and ambiguity of tasks that teams often experience, it is becoming more apparent that a single leader is unlikely to have all of the skills and traits to effectively perform the necessary leadership functions.<sup>[15]</sup> Thus, shared leadership is becoming increasingly popular in teams, as multiple team members emerge as leaders, especially when they have the skills/knowledge/expertise that the team needs.

### 39.3 Measuring shared leadership

There are two main ways in which most researchers measure the existence and extent of shared leadership in a team: Ratings of the team’s collective leadership behavior and Social Network Analysis. A less common technique of measuring shared leadership is with the use of Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales.

#### 39.3.1 Ratings of team’s collective leadership behavior

Many studies measure shared leadership as team member perceptions of leader behavior exhibited by respective team leaders and team members.<sup>[16]</sup> Often this is done by distributing leader behavior questionnaires (surveys aimed at measuring the existence and frequency of different leader behaviors) to all members of a team. Team members are instructed to fill these out once for the appointed leader and then again for all other team members. Although this allows leadership quantity to be assessed, it does not pinpoint how many other team members are en-

gaging in leadership behaviors or how many members are looking to the same people for leadership.

#### 39.3.2 Social network analysis

Social network analysis (SNA) addresses some of the flaws of collective leader behavior ratings by assessing the patterns of connections that emerge in a team and providing a method for modeling both vertical and shared leadership within a team. SNA examines the relationships that form between individuals and uses these relationships as the units of analysis. In the leadership domain, a relationship, or “tie” as it is referred to in SNA literature, occurs when one team member perceives another as exerting leadership influence on the team. The proportion of actual ties that exist in a team to all potential ties that could have emerged in a team is called network density and can be used as a measure of shared leadership.<sup>[17]</sup>

Some researchers go further into SNA and analyze a network’s centralization, which helps assess the distribution of leadership, as well as the quantity.<sup>[18]</sup> Network centralization is measured using centrality values that are calculated for each individual. A centrality value for an individual represents the number of connections that individual has with others. The sum of the differences between the maximum individual centrality value and every other individual centrality value, divided by the maximum possible sum of differences, produces a measure of network centralization between 0 and 1, which describes the extent to which connections are concentrated around one individual, or if multiple individuals are central to the leadership network.

A shared leadership network can be further separated into distributed-coordinated or distributed-fragmented by SNA.<sup>[19]</sup> This distinction depends on whether the formal and emergent leaders in a network recognize each other as leaders and are able to coordinate and lead together efficiently.<sup>[20]</sup>

#### 39.3.3 Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS)

Some studies have sought to measure shared leadership through observations of actual leadership behaviors. Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS) are commonly used to assess and rate performances, and can be developed to assess different leadership behaviors. Bergman et al. (2012), for example, developed such a scale and had trained raters watch videotapes of team interactions and rate each team member’s behavior in terms of the dimensions on the BARS. They then operationalized shared leadership as the number of members who performed leadership behaviors, as well as the amount of leadership behavior exhibited by the team (calculated by aggregating the leadership ratings for each team member to the team level).<sup>[21]</sup>

There are advantages and disadvantages to each measurement technique. Although all are attempting to measure the same phenomenon and all have been used in published studies, the particular measure that a researcher uses can impact his or her results.

## 39.4 Antecedents: internal and external conditions

A host of scholars who have studied shared leadership found that in order for the dynamic to properly emerge, two preconditions must be met. First, team members must actually be willing to extend their feedback to the team in a way that aims to influence and motivate the direction of the group. Second, the team must overall be disposed to accept and rely on such feedback by other team members.<sup>[22]</sup> The preconditions specified by Katz and Kahn (1978) tend to be met by leadership sharing in teams by the development of interpersonal alliances (measured by LMX-TEAM) between and among participants as several meta-analyses reported.<sup>[23]</sup> Carson et al. (2007) expanded these two requirements by describing them in a larger, two-part framework that includes the degree to which a strong internal team environment exists and the extent to which positive external team coaching occurs.<sup>[24]</sup>

### 39.4.1 Internal team environment

Carson et al. (2007) propose first that shared leadership is facilitated by an overall team environment that consists of three dimensions: shared purpose, social support, and voice. The three concepts are also drawn from a wide body of literature:

- **Shared purpose** prevails when team members have similar understandings of their team's main objectives and take steps to ensure a focus on collective goals.
- **Social support** is the extent to which team members actively provide emotional and psychological strength to one another. This may occur through overt acts of encouragement or expressed recognition of other team members' contributions and accomplishments.
- **Voice** is the degree to which a team's members have input into how the team carries out its purpose.<sup>[25]</sup>

The three dimensions are highly interrelated and mutually reinforcing, thereby "representing a high order construct."<sup>[26]</sup> Carson et al. summarize the interconnectivity of these three concepts in a concise narrative: When team members are able to speak up and get involved

(voice), the likelihood that many of them will exercise leadership increases greatly. The opportunity for voice also facilitates shared leadership by strengthening both a common sense of direction and the potential for positive interpersonal support in a team. When teams are focused on collective goals (shared purpose), there is a greater sense of meaning and increased motivation for team members to both speak up and invest themselves in providing leadership to the team and to respond to the leadership of others. The motivation to participate and provide input toward achieving common goals and a common purpose can also be reinforced by an encouraging and supportive climate. When team members feel recognized and supported within their team (social support) they are more willing to share responsibility, cooperate, and commit to the team's collective goals. Thus, these three dimensions work together to create an internal team environment that is characterized by a shared understanding about purpose and goals, a sense of recognition and importance, and high levels of involvement, challenge, and cooperation.<sup>[27]</sup>

### 39.4.2 External team coaching

Scholars have also described the important role that external team leaders and support can have in the development of shared leadership.<sup>[28]</sup> When framing this dynamic or antecedent, scholars have stressed the importance of external coaching behaviors. One scholar defines these coaching behaviors as: "direct interaction with a team intended to help team members make coordinated and task-appropriate use of their collective resources in accomplishing the team's task."<sup>[29]</sup> Researchers have identified two types of team coaching, distinguishing between those which reinforce shared leadership (supportive coaching) and those which focus on identifying team problems through task interventions (functional approach).<sup>[30]</sup> Through supportive coaching, external team managers can reinforce the development of shared leadership in a variety of ways. Through active encouragement and positive reinforcement of team members who demonstrate leadership, coaching can foster independence and a sense of self-competence nurtures among team members. Coaching can also nurture collective commitment to the team and its objectives, a shared promise that can reduce free riding and increase the possibility that team members will demonstrate personal initiative.<sup>[31]</sup>

A second, more indirect, way in which external coaching may positively encourage shared leadership is based on a functional approach. Within this approach, the role of an external team leader is to do whatever is not being adequately managed by the team itself, to "intervene on behalf of an incomplete task." This functional coaching can be redundant when teams have highly supportive internal environments and therefore are less critical to the overall development of shared leadership. When interventions

are necessary, however, such as when teams lack a strong shared purpose, the functional approach asserts that this kind of external influence may be particularly important. In this sense, the functional approach can be understood as providing “motivational and consultative functions that enable shared leadership but have not been adequately developed by the team internally.”<sup>[32]</sup>

## 39.5 Effects

Although there is an ongoing debate about the existence and importance of shared leadership, many studies have shown shared leadership to be a significant predictor for various team processes.

### 39.5.1 Team effectiveness/performance

A commonly explored consequence of shared leadership is team effectiveness or team performance, which can be measured either by self-reports of team members or by outsider ratings, such as supervisor or client ratings.<sup>[33]</sup> Performance is also sometimes measured more objectively, by using a commonly agreed-upon scale or rubric to rate the execution of a task. Many studies have found a positive relationship between shared leadership and team effectiveness and performance.<sup>[34]</sup> Similarly, other studies have explored the extent to which shared leadership can predict a team’s effectiveness or performance, and have found it to be a significant predictor, and often a better predictor than vertical leadership.<sup>[35]</sup>

As discussed in the measurement section of this article, the technique used to measure shared leadership can influence the results that are found. For example, Mehra et al. (2006) first compared teams with a distributed (shared) leadership structure to teams with a more traditional (vertical) leadership structure. In contrast to other studies, they did not find that teams with shared leadership outperformed the traditional teams. However, when they separated the distributed teams into distributed-coordinated and distributed-fragmented (see measures section), they found that distributed-coordinated team structures were associated with higher performance than both traditional leader-centered teams and distributed-fragmented leadership networks. Thus, they theorized, having more leaders is not the only factor that matters to team performance; rather, leaders must recognize other leaders as such in order for them to contribute positively to team effectiveness.<sup>[36]</sup>

### 39.5.2 Number and types of leadership

Not surprisingly, shared leadership has been shown to increase the number and types of leadership (for example, transformational leadership; transactional leadership; and consideration and initiating structure. )<sup>[37]</sup> Shared

leadership enables team members to express their different abilities, thus allowing different leadership behaviors to be exhibited in a single team. Bergman et al. (2012) found that teams did, in fact, experience more types of leadership behaviors when multiple members of the team participated in the team’s leadership. Additionally, they found that each leader only effectively engaged in one type of leadership, leading us to further believe that shared leadership allows for more leadership behaviors to be expressed than vertical leadership.<sup>[38]</sup>

## 39.6 Implications and further research directions

Scholars have pointed to 4 main areas in shared leadership that need more research:

1. events that generate shared leadership,
2. facilitation factors,
3. the most conducive influence approaches, and
4. stages and life cycles in shared leadership settings (Carson et al., 2007; Pearce and Conger, 2002).

Additionally, more scholarship needs to be done on outcomes of shared leadership. The spike of recent scholarship in this field does indicate that scholars increasingly understand the significance of shared leadership as organizations in the field are also increasingly capitalizing on the many benefits a shared leadership approach can offer.

## 39.7 See also

- [Template:Leader-member exchange](#)
- [Collaborative leadership](#)
- [Group dynamics](#)
- [Group development](#)
- [Human resources](#)
- [Leadership development](#)
- [Leadership studies](#)
- [Organizational development](#)
- [Three Levels of Leadership model](#)
- [Team building](#)
- [Team composition](#)
- [Trait leadership](#)

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# Chapter 40

## Team effectiveness



US Navy sailors effectively hauling in a mooring line (2010)

**Team effectiveness** (also referred to as **group effectiveness**) is the capacity a team has to accomplish the goals or objectives administered by an authorized personnel or the organization.<sup>[1]</sup> A team is a collection of individuals who are interdependent in their tasks, who share responsibility for outcomes, and view themselves as a unit embedded in an institutional or organizational system which operates within the established boundaries of that system.<sup>[2]</sup> Teams and groups have established a synonymous relationship within the confines of processes and research relating to their effectiveness<sup>[3]</sup> (i.e. **group cohesiveness**, **teamwork**) while still maintaining their independence as two separate units, as groups and their members are independent of each other's role, skill, knowledge or purpose versus teams and their members, who are interdependent upon each other's role, skill, knowledge and purpose.

### 40.1 Overview

The evaluation of how effective a team is, is achieved with the aid of a variety of components derived from research and theories that help in creating a description of the multifaceted nature of team effectiveness. According to Hackman (1987),<sup>[4]</sup> team effectiveness can be defined in terms of three criteria:

1. **Output** - The final outputs produced by the team must meet or exceed the standards set by key constituents within the organization

2. **Social Processes** - The internal social processes operating as the team interacts should enhance, or at least maintain, the group's ability to work together in the future
3. **Learning** - The experience of working in the team environment should act to satisfy rather than aggravate the personal needs of team members<sup>[5]</sup>



US Navy Rowing team rowing with cohesion, efficacy and without group conflict (2007)

In order for these criteria to be assessed appropriately, an evaluation of team effectiveness should be conducted, which involves both a measure of the teams' final task performance as well as criteria with which to assess intra-group process. The three major intragroup process constructs examined are **intra-group conflict**, **team cohesion**, and **team-efficacy**. **Intra-group conflict** is an integral part of the process a team undergoes and the effectiveness of the unit that was formed. Previous research has differentiated two components of *intra-group conflict*:

- **Relationship conflict** - This is the interpersonal incompatibilities between team members such as annoyance and animosity
- **Task conflict** - This occurs when members convey divergent ideas and opinions about specific aspects related to task accomplishment

*Team cohesion* is viewed as "a general indicator of synergistic group interaction—or process".<sup>[6]</sup> Furthermore,

cohesion has been linked to greater coordination during team-tasks as well as improved satisfaction, productivity, and group interactions.<sup>[7]</sup> *Team efficacy* refers to team members' perceptions of task-specific team competence. This construct is thought to create a sense of confidence within the team that enables the group to persevere when faced with hardship.<sup>[8]</sup> According to Hackman (2002),<sup>[9]</sup> there are also 5 conditions that research has shown to optimize the effectiveness of the team:

1. **Real Team** - Stability in the group membership over time
2. **Compelling Direction** - A clear purpose that relies on end goals
3. **Enabling Structure** - The groups dynamic must be producing good, not bad
4. **Social Support** - The group must have a system to collaborate properly
5. **Coaching** - Opportunities for a coach to give help<sup>[10]</sup>

## 40.2 Teams and their effectiveness

### 40.2.1 Work teams

*Work teams* (also referred to as *production and service teams*) are continuing work units responsible for producing goods or providing services for the organization.<sup>[11]</sup> Their membership is typically stable, usually full-time, and well-defined.<sup>[12]</sup> These teams are traditionally directed by a supervisor who mandates what work is done, who does it, and in what manner is it executed. Work teams are effectively used in manufacturing sectors such as mining and apparel and service based sectors such as accounting which utilize audit teams.<sup>[13]</sup>

#### Self-managed

*Self-managed work teams* (also referred to as *autonomous work groups*) allow their members to make a greater contribution at work and constitute a significant competitive advantage for the organization.<sup>[14]</sup> These work teams determine how they will accomplish the objectives they are mandated to achieve and decide what route they will take to complete the current assignment.<sup>[15]</sup> Self-managed work teams are granted the responsibility of planning, scheduling, organizing, directing, controlling and evaluating their own work process. They also select their own members and evaluate the members' performance. Self-managed work teams have been favored for their effectiveness over traditionally managed teams due their ability to enhance productivity, costs, customer service, quality, and safety.<sup>[16][17]</sup>

### 40.2.2 Parallel teams



*Parallel team solving a problem (2013)*

*Parallel teams* (also referred to as *advice and involvement teams*) pull together people from different work units or jobs to perform functions that the regular organization is not equipped to perform well. These teams are given limited authority and can only make recommendations to individuals higher in the organizational hierarchy.<sup>[18]</sup> Parallel teams are used for solving problems and activities that are in need of revision or improvement.<sup>[19]</sup> Examples of parallel teams are quality circles, task forces, quality improvement teams, employee involvement groups. The effectiveness of parallel teams is proven by the continuation of their usage and expansion throughout organizations due to their ability to improve quality and increase employee involvement.<sup>[20][21]</sup>

### 40.2.3 Project teams

Main article: Project team

*Project teams* (also referred to as *development teams*) produce new products and services for an organization or institution on a one-time or limited basis, of which the copyrights of that new product or service will belong to the establishment that it was made for once it is completed. The task of these teams may vary from just improving a current project, concept or plan to creating an entirely new projects with very few limitations. Projects teams rely on their members being knowledgeable and well versed in many disciplines and functions, as this allows them to complete the task effectively.<sup>[22]</sup> Once a project is completed, the team either disbands and are individually moved to other special functions or moves on to other projects and tasks that they as a unit can accomplish or develop. A common example of project teams are *cross-functional teams*.<sup>[23]</sup> A project team's effectiveness is associated with the speed with which they are able to create and develop new products and services which reduces time spent on individual projects.<sup>[24]</sup>



### 40.2.4 Management teams

*Management teams* (also referred to as *action and negotiation teams*) are responsible for the coordination and direction of a division within an institution or organization during various assigned projects and functional, operational and/or strategic tasks and initiatives.<sup>[25]</sup> Management teams are responsible for the total performance of the division they oversee with regards to day-to-day operations, delegation of tasks and the supervision of employees.<sup>[26]</sup> The authority of these teams are based on the members position on the company's or institution's organizational chart. These management teams are constructed of managers from different divisions (e.g. Vice President of Marketing, Assistant Director of Operations).<sup>[27][28]</sup> An example of management teams are executive management teams, which consists of members at the top of the organization's hierarchy, such as Chief Executive Officer, Board of Directors, Board of Trustees, etc., who establish the strategic initiatives that a company will undertake over a long term period (~ 3–5 years).<sup>[29]</sup> Management teams have been effective by using their expertise to aid companies in adjusting to the current landscape of a global economy, which helps them compete with their rivals in their respective markets, produce unique initiatives that sets them apart from their rivals and empower the employees who are responsible for the success of the organization or institution.<sup>[30][31]</sup>

### 40.3 See also

- Equity theory
- Group behaviour
- Group cohesiveness
- Group conflict
- Group dynamics
- Industrial and organizational psychology
- Industrial sociology
- Organizational behavior
- Scientific management
- Team
- Team building
- Team composition
- Teamwork
- Work motivation

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# Chapter 41

## Trait leadership

**Trait leadership** is defined as integrated patterns of personal characteristics that reflect a range of individual differences and foster consistent leader effectiveness across a variety of group and organizational situations (Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). The theory of trait leadership developed from early leadership research which focused primarily on finding a group of heritable attributes that differentiated leaders from nonleaders. Leader effectiveness refers to the amount of influence a leader has on individual or group performance, followers' satisfaction, and overall effectiveness (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). Many scholars have argued that leadership is unique to only a select number of individuals and that these individuals possess certain immutable traits that cannot be developed (Galton, 1869). Although this perspective has been criticized immensely over the past century, scholars still continue to study the effects of personality traits on leader effectiveness. Research has demonstrated that successful leaders differ from other people and possess certain core personality traits that significantly contribute to their success. Understanding the importance of these core personality traits that predict leader effectiveness can help organizations with their leader selection, training, and development practices (Derue et al., 2011).

### 41.1 History of research on trait leadership

The emergence of the concept of trait leadership looks back to Thomas Carlyle's "great man" theory, which stated: "The History of the World [...] was the Biography of Great Men."<sup>[1]</sup> Subsequent commentators interpreted this view to conclude that the forces of extraordinary leadership<sup>[2]</sup> shape history (Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009). Influenced by Carlyle, Francis Galton in *Hereditary Genius* (1869) took this idea further. Galton found that leadership was a unique property of extraordinary individuals, and suggested that the traits which leaders possessed were immutable and could not be developed. Throughout the early 1900s, the study of leadership focused on traits. Cowley (1931) commented that the approach to the research of leadership has usually

been and should always be through the study of traits (Cowley, 1931). Many theorists, influenced by Carlyle and Galton, believed that trait leadership depended on the personal qualities of the leader; however, they did not assume that leadership only resides within a select number of people (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). This trait perspective of leadership was widely accepted until the late 1940s and early 1950s, when researchers began to deem personality traits insufficient in predicting leader effectiveness (Stogdill, 1948; Mann, 1959).

In 1948, Stogdill stated that leadership exists between persons in a social situation, and that persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations. This statement has been cited ubiquitously as sounding the death knell for trait-leadership theory. Furthermore, scholars commented that any trait's effect on leadership behavior will always depend on the situation (Huges, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1996; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Subsequently, leadership stopped being characterized by individual differences, and behavioral and situational analyses of leadership took over and began to dominate the field of leadership research (Bass, 1990). During this period of widespread rejection, several dominant theories took the place of trait leadership theory, including Fiedler's (1967) contingency model, Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid, Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) situational leadership model, and transformational and transactional leadership models (Avolio, Sosik, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Bass, 1985; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

Despite the growing criticisms of trait leadership, the purported basis for the rejection of trait-leadership models began to encounter strong challenges (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983; Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986) in the 1980s. Interestingly, Zaccaro (2007) pointed out that even Stogdill's (1948) review, although cited as evidence against leader traits, contained conclusions supporting that individual differences could still be predictors of leader effectiveness. With an increasing number of empirical studies directly supporting trait leadership (Judge et al., 2002; Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004), traits have reemerged in the lexicon of the scientific research into leadership. In recent years, the research about leader traits has made some progress in identifying a list of per-

sonality traits that are highly predictive of leader effectiveness. Additionally, to account for the arguments for situational leadership, researchers have used the **round-robin design methodology** to test whether certain individuals emerge as leaders across multiple situations (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983). Scholars have also proposed new ways of studying the relationship of certain traits to leader effectiveness. For instance, many suggest the integration of trait and behavioral theories to understand how traits relate to leader effectiveness (Derue et al., 2011). Furthermore, scholars have expanded their focus and have proposed looking at more malleable traits (ones susceptible to development) in addition to the traditional dispositional traits as predictors of leader effectiveness (Hoffman, Woehr, Maldagen-Youngjohn, & Lyons, 2011). Context is only now beginning to be examined as a contributor to leaders' success and failure. **Productive narcissistic CEOs** like Steven Jobs of Apple and Jack Welch of GE have demonstrated a gift for creating innovation, whereas leaders with idealized traits prove more successful in more stable environments requiring less innovation and **creativity** (Maccoby, 2007).

## 41.2 Leader traits

The investigations of leader traits are always by no means exhaustive (Zaccaro, 2007). In recent years, several studies have made comprehensive reviews about leader traits which have been historically studied (Derue et al., 2011; Hoffman et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2009; Zaccaro, 2007). There are many ways that traits related to leadership can be categorized; however, the two most recent categorizations have organized traits into (1) demographic vs. task competence vs. interpersonal and (2) distal (trait-like) vs. proximal (state-like). Both these categorizations are described below.

### 41.2.1 Demographic, task competence and interpersonal leadership

Based on a recent review of the trait leadership literature, Derue and others (2011) stated that most leader traits can be organized into three categories: demographic, task competence, and interpersonal attributes. For the demographics category, gender has by far received the most attention in terms of leadership; however, most scholars have found that male and female leaders are both equally effective. Task competence relates to how individuals approach the execution and performance of tasks (Bass & Bass, 2008). Hoffman grouped intelligence, Conscientiousness, Openness to Experience, and Emotional Stability into this category. Lastly, interpersonal attributes are related to how a leader approaches social interactions. According to Hoffman and others (2011), Extraversion and Agreeableness should be grouped into this category.

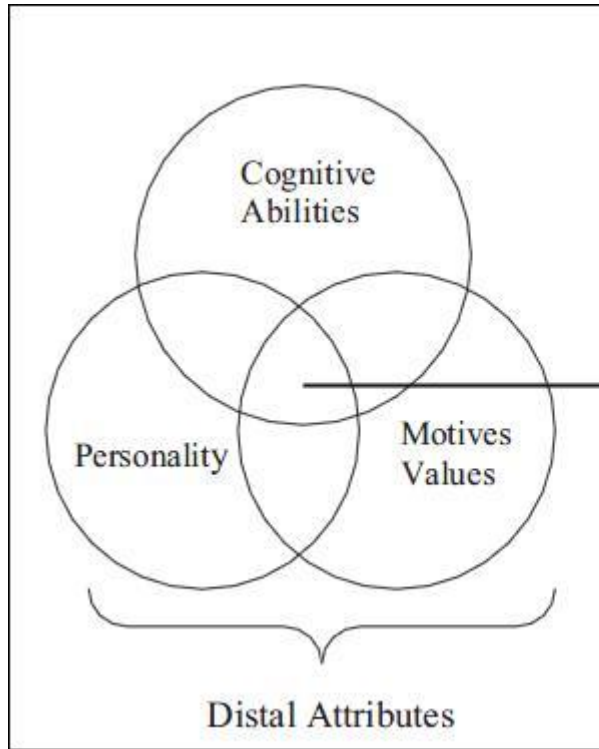
### 41.2.2 Distal (trait-like) vs. proximal (state-like)

Recent research has shifted from focusing solely on distal (dispositional/trait-like) characteristics of leaders to more proximal (malleable/state-like) individual differences often in the form of knowledge and skills (Hoffman et al., 2011). The emergence of proximal traits in trait leadership theory will help researchers answer the ancient question: Are leaders born or made? Proximal individual differences suggest that the characteristics that distinguish effective leaders from non-effective leaders are not necessarily stable through the life-span, implying that these traits may be able to be developed. Hoffman and others (2011) examined the effects of distal vs. proximal traits on leader effectiveness. He found that distal individual differences of achievement motivation, energy, dominance, honesty/integrity, self-confidence, creativity, and charisma were strongly correlated with leader effectiveness. Additionally, he found that the proximal individual differences of interpersonal skills, oral communication, written communication, management skills, problem solving skills, and decision making were also strongly correlated with leader effectiveness. His results suggested that on average, distal and proximal individual differences have a similar relationship with effective leadership (Hoffman et al., 2011).

### 41.2.3 Trait-leadership model

Zaccaro and colleagues (2004) created a model to understand leader traits and their influence on leader effectiveness/performance. This model, shown in the figure below, is based on other models of leader traits and leader effectiveness/performance (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Fleishman, & Reiter-Palmon, 1993; Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, et al., 2000) and rests on two basic premises about leader traits. The first premise is that leadership emerges from the combined influence of multiple traits as opposed to emerging from the independent assessment of traits. Zaccaro (2001) argued that effective leadership is derived from an integrated set of cognitive abilities, social capabilities, and dispositional tendencies, with each set of traits adding to the influence of the other. The second premise is that leader traits differ in their proximal influence on leadership. This model is a multistage one in which certain distal attributes (i.e., dispositional attributes, cognitive abilities, and motives/values) serve as precursors for the development of proximal personal characteristics (i.e., social skills, problem solving skills and expertise knowledge) (Ackerman & Humphreys, 1990; Barrick, Mitchell, & Stewart, 2003; Chen, Gully, Whiteman, & Kilcullen, 2000; Schneider, Hough, & Dunnette, 1996; Kanfer, 1990, 1992; Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, et al., 2000). Adopting this categorization approach and based on several comprehensive reviews/meta-analysis of trait leadership in recent years

(Derue et al., 2011; Hoffman et al., 2010; Judge et al., 2009; Zaccaro, 2007), we tried to make an inclusive list of leader traits (Table 1). However, the investigations of leader traits are always by no means exhaustive (Zaccaro, 2007), which means absolutely more leader traits should be added to this list by future researchers and readers of this article.



### 41.3 Other models of trait leadership

Multiple models have been proposed to explain the relationship of traits to leader effectiveness. Recently, integrated trait leadership models were put forward by summarizing the historical findings and reconciling the conflict between traits and other factors such as situations in determining effective leadership (Derue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2009; Zaccaro, 2007). In addition to Zaccaro's Model of Leader Attributes and Leader Performance described in the previous section, two other models have emerged in recent trait leadership literature. The Leader Trait Emergence Effectiveness (LTEE) Model, created by Judge and colleagues (2009), combines the behavioral genetics and evolutionary psychology theories of how personality traits are developed into a model that explains leader emergence and effectiveness. Additionally, this model separates objective and subjective leader effectiveness into different criterion. The authors created this model to be broad and flexible as to diverge from how the relationship between traits and leadership had been studied in past research. Another model that has emerged in the trait leadership literature is the Integrated Model

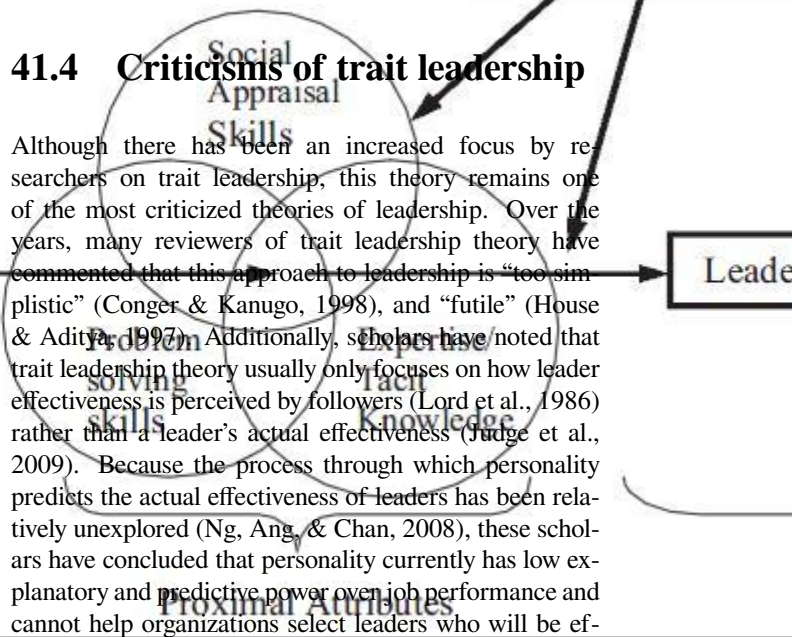
of Leader Traits, Behaviors, and Effectiveness (Derue et al., 2011). This model combines traits and behaviors in predicting leader effectiveness and tested the mediation effect of leader behaviors on the relationship between leader traits and effectiveness. The authors found that some types of leader behaviors mediated the effect between traits and leader effectiveness. The results of Derue and colleagues' (2011) study supported an integrated trait-behavioral model that can be used in future research.

### 41.4 Criticisms of trait leadership

Although there has been an increased focus by researchers on trait leadership, this theory remains one of the most criticized theories of leadership. Over the years, many reviewers of trait leadership theory have commented that this approach to leadership is "too simplistic" (Conger & Kanungo, 1998), and "futile" (House & Aditya, 1997). Additionally, scholars have noted that trait leadership theory usually only focuses on how leader effectiveness is perceived by followers (Lord et al., 1986) rather than a leader's actual effectiveness (Judge et al., 2009). Because the process through which personality predicts the actual effectiveness of leaders has been relatively unexplored (Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008), these scholars have concluded that personality currently has low explanatory and predictive power over job performance and cannot help organizations select leaders who will be effective (Morgeson & Ilies, 2007). Furthermore, Derue and colleagues (2011) found that leader behaviors are more predictive of leader effectiveness than are traits.

Another criticism of trait leadership is its silence on the influence of the situational context surrounding leaders (Ng et al., 2008). Stogdill (1948) found that persons who are leaders in one situation may not be leaders in another situation. Complimenting this situational theory of leadership, Murphy (1941) wrote that leadership does not reside in the person, and it usually requires examining the whole situation. In addition to situational leadership theory, there has been growing support for other leadership theories such as transformational, transactional, charismatic, and authentic leadership theories. These theories have gained popularity because they are more normative than the trait and behavioral leadership theories (Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007).

Further criticisms include the failure of studies to uncover a trait or group of traits that are consistently associated with leadership emergence or help differentiate leaders from followers (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983). Additionally, trait leadership's focus on a small set of personality traits and neglect of more malleable traits such as social skills and problem solving skills has received considerable criticism. Lastly, trait leadership often fails to consider the integration of multiple traits when studying the effects of traits on leader effectiveness (Zaccaro, 2007).



## 41.5 Implications for practice

Given the recent increase in evidence and support of trait leadership theory (Ng et al., 2008), scholars have suggested a variety of strategies for human resource departments within organizations. Companies should use personality traits as selection tools for identifying emerging leaders (Ng et al., 2008). These companies, however, should be aware of the individual traits that predict success in leader effectiveness as well as the traits that could be detrimental to leader effectiveness. For example, while Derue and colleagues (2011) found that individuals who are high in Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Agreeableness are predicted to be more likely to be perceived as successful in leadership positions, Judge, Woolf, Hurst, & Livingston (2006) wrote that individuals who are high in narcissism are more likely to be a liability in certain jobs. Narcissism is just one example of a personality trait that should be explored further by HR practitioners to ensure they are not placing individuals with certain traits in the wrong positions.

Complementing the suggestion that personality traits should be used as selection tools, Judge and colleagues (2002) found that the Big Five Personality traits were more strongly related to leadership than intelligence. This finding suggests that selecting leaders based on their personality is more important than selecting them based on intelligence. If organizations select leaders based on intelligence, it is recommended by Judge and colleagues (2002) that these individuals be placed in leadership positions when the stress level is low and the individual has the ability to be directive.

Another way in which HR practitioners can use the research on trait leadership is for leadership development programs. Although inherent personality traits (distal/trait-like) are relatively immune to leadership development, Zaccaro (2007) suggested that proximal traits (state-like) will be more malleable and susceptible to leadership development programs. Companies should use different types of development interventions to stretch the existing capabilities of their leaders (Zaccaro, 2007).

There is also evidence to suggest that Americans have an Extrovert Ideal, which dictates that people, most times unconsciously, favor the traits of extroverted individuals and suppress the qualities unique to introverts (Cain, 2012). Susan Cain's research points to a transition sometime around the turn of the century during which we stopped evaluating our leaders based on character and began judging them instead based on personality. While both extroverted and introverted leaders have been shown to be effective, we have a general proclivity towards extroverted traits, which when evaluating trait leadership, could skew our perception of what's important.

## 41.6 See also

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## Chapter 42

# Turnover (employment)

In human resources context, **turnover** or **staff turnover** or **labour turnover** is the rate at which an employer loses and gains employees. Simple ways to describe it are “how long employees tend to stay” or “the rate of traffic through the revolving door”. Turnover is measured for individual companies and for their industry as a whole. If an employer is said to have a high turnover relative to its competitors, it means that employees of that company have a shorter average tenure than those of other companies in the same industry. High turnover may be harmful to a company’s productivity if skilled workers are often leaving and the worker population contains a high percentage of novice workers. Companies also often track turnover internally across departments and divisions or other demographic groups such as turnover of women versus turnover of men.

In the United States, the average total non-farm seasonally adjusted monthly turnover rate was 3.3% for the period from December 2000 to November 2008.<sup>[1]</sup> However rates vary widely when compared over different periods of time or different job sectors. For example, during the period 2001-2006, the annual turnover rate for all industry sectors averaged 39.6% before seasonal adjustments,<sup>[2]</sup> during the same period the Leisure and Hospitality sector experienced an average annual rate of 74.6%.<sup>[3]</sup>

### 42.1 Costs

When accounting for the costs (both real costs, such as time taken to select and recruit a replacement, and also opportunity costs, such as lost productivity), the cost of employee turnover to for-profit organizations has been estimated to be between 30% (the figure used by the American Management Association) to upwards of 150% of the employees’ remuneration package.<sup>[4]</sup> There are both direct and indirect costs. Direct costs relate to the leaving costs, replacement costs and transitions costs, and indirect costs relate to the loss of production, reduced performance levels, unnecessary overtime and low morale. The true cost of turnover is going to depend on a number of variable including ease or difficulty in filling the position and the nature of the job itself.

In a healthcare context, staff turnover has been associated with worse patient outcomes.<sup>[5]</sup>

### 42.2 Internal versus external

Like recruitment, turnover can be classified as “internal” or “external”.<sup>[6]</sup> Internal turnover involves employees leaving their current positions and taking new positions within the same organization. Both positive (such as increased morale from the change of task and supervisor) and negative (such as project/relational disruption, or the Peter Principle) effects of internal turnover exist, and therefore, it may be equally important to monitor this form of turnover as it is to monitor its external counterpart. Internal turnover might be moderated and controlled by typical HR mechanisms, such as an internal recruitment policy or formal succession planning.

Internal turnover, called internal transfers, is generally considered an opportunity to help employees in their career growth while minimizing the more costly external turnover. A large amount of internal transfers leaving a particular department or division may signal problems in that area unless the position is a designated stepping stone position.

### 42.3 Skilled vs. unskilled employees

Unskilled positions often have high turnover, and employees can generally be replaced without the organization or business incurring any loss of performance. The ease of replacing these employees provides little incentive to employers to offer generous employment contracts; conversely, contracts may strongly favour the employer and lead to increased turnover as employees seek, and eventually find, more favorable employment.

## 42.4 Voluntary versus involuntary

Practitioners can differentiate between instances of voluntary turnover, initiated at the choice of the employee, and involuntary turnover initiated by the employer due to poor performance or reduction in force (RIF).

The US Bureau of Labor Statistics uses the term “Quits” to mean voluntary turnover and “Total Separations” for the combination of voluntary and involuntary turnover.

## 42.5 Causes of high or low turnover

High turnover often means that employees are dissatisfied with their jobs, especially when it is relatively easy to find a new one.<sup>[7]</sup> It can also indicate *unsafe or unhealthy* conditions, or that too few employees give satisfactory performance (due to unrealistic expectations, inappropriate processes or tools, or poor candidate screening). The lack of career opportunities and challenges, dissatisfaction with the job-scope or conflict with the management have been cited as predictors of high turnover.

Each company has its own unique turnover drivers so companies must continually work to identify the issues that cause turnover in their company. Further the causes of attrition vary within a company such that causes for turnover in one department might be very different from the causes of turnover in another department. Companies can use *exit interviews* to find out why employees are leaving and the problems they encountered in the workplace.

Low turnover indicates that none of the above is true: employees are satisfied, healthy and safe, and their performance is satisfactory to the employer. However, the predictors of low turnover may sometimes differ than those of high turnover. Aside from the fore-mentioned career opportunities, salary, corporate culture, management’s recognition, and a comfortable workplace seem to impact employees’ decision to stay with their employer.

Many psychological and management theories exist regarding the types of job content which is intrinsically satisfying to employees and which, in turn, should minimise external voluntary turnover. Examples include Hertzberg’s two factor theory, McClelland’s Theory of Needs, and Hackman and Oldham’s Job Characteristics Model.<sup>[8]</sup>

### 42.5.1 Bullying

Main article: *Workplace bullying*

A number of studies report a positive relationship between bullying, intention to leave and high turnover. In some cases, the number people who actually leave is a “tip of the iceberg”. Many more who remain have considered leaving. In O’Connell et al.’s (2007) Irish study,

60% of respondents considered leaving whilst 15% actually left the organisation.<sup>[9]</sup> In a study of public-sector union members, approximately one in five workers reported having considered leaving the workplace as a result of witnessing bullying taking place. Rayner explained these figures by pointing to the presence of a *climate of fear* in which employees considered reporting to be unsafe, where bullies had “got away with it” previously despite management knowing of the presence of bullying.<sup>[9]</sup>

### 42.5.2 Narcissism and psychopathy

Main articles: *Narcissism in the workplace* and *Psychopathy in the workplace*

Thomas suggests that there tends to be a higher level of stress with people who work or interact with a narcissist, which in turn increases *absenteeism* and staff turnover.<sup>[10]</sup> Boddy finds the same dynamic where there is corporate *psychopath* in the organisation.<sup>[11]</sup>

### 42.5.3 Investments

Low turnover may indicate the presence of employee “investments” (also known “side bets”)<sup>[12]</sup> in their position: certain benefits may be enjoyed while the employee remains employed with the organization, which would be lost upon resignation (e.g., health insurance, discounted home loans, redundancy packages). Such employees would be expected to demonstrate lower intent to leave than if such “side bets” were not present.

## 42.6 How to prevent turnover

Employees are important in any running of a business; without them the business would be unsuccessful. However, more and more employers today are finding that employees remain for approximately 23 to 24 months, according to the 2006 Bureau of Labor Statistics. The Employment Policy Foundation states that it costs a company an average of \$15,000 per employee, which includes separation costs, including paperwork, unemployment; vacancy costs, including overtime or *temporary employees*; and replacement costs including advertisement, interview time, relocation, training, and decreased productivity when colleagues depart. Providing a stimulating workplace environment, which fosters happy, motivated and empowered individuals, lowers employee turnover and absentee rates.<sup>[13]</sup> Promoting a work environment that fosters personal and professional growth promotes harmony and encouragement on all levels, so the effects are felt company wide.<sup>[13]</sup>

Continual training and reinforcement develops a work force that is competent, consistent, competitive, effec-

tive and efficient.<sup>[13]</sup> Beginning on the first day of work, providing the individual with the necessary skills to perform their job is important.<sup>[14]</sup> Before the first day, it is important the interview and hiring process expose new hires to an explanation of the company, so individuals know whether the job is their best choice.<sup>[15]</sup> Networking and strategizing within the company provides ongoing performance management and helps build relationships among co-workers.<sup>[15]</sup> It is also important to motivate employees to focus on customer success, profitable growth and the company well-being.<sup>[15]</sup> Employers can keep their employees informed and involved by including them in future plans, new purchases, policy changes, as well as introducing new employees to the employees who have gone above and beyond in meetings.<sup>[15]</sup> Early engagement and engagement along the way, shows employees they are valuable through information or recognition rewards, making them feel included.<sup>[15]</sup>

When companies hire the best people, new talent hired and veterans are enabled to reach company goals, maximizing the investment of each employee.<sup>[15]</sup> Taking the time to listen to employees and making them feel involved will create loyalty, in turn reducing turnover allowing for growth.<sup>[16]</sup>

## 42.7 Calculation

Labour turnover is equal to the number of employees leaving, divided by the average total number of employees, multiplied by 100 (in order to give a percentage value). The number of employees leaving and the total number of employees are measured over one calendar year.

$$\left( \frac{NELDY}{(NEBY + NEEY)/2} \right) \times 100$$

Where:

NELDY = Number of Employees who Left During the Year

NEBY = Number of Employees at the Beginning of the Year

NEEY = Number of Employees at the End of the Year

For example, at the start of the year a business had 40 employees, but during the year 9 staff resigned with 2 new hires, thus leaving 33 staff members at the end of the year. Hence this year's turnover is 25%. This is derived from,  $(9/((40+33)/2)) * 100 = 24.66\%$ .

## 42.8 Models

Over the years there have been thousands of research articles exploring the various aspects of turnover,<sup>[17]</sup> and in due course several models of employee turnover have been promulgated. The first model and by far the one attaining most attention from researcher, was put forward

in 1958 by March & Simon. After this model there have been several efforts to extend the concept. Since 1958 the following models of employee turnover have been published.

- March and Simon (1958) Process Model of Turnover
- Porter & Steers (1973) Met Expectations Model
- Price (1977) Causal Model of Turnover
- Mobley (1977) Intermediate Linkages Model
- Hom and Griffeth (1991) Alternative Linkages Model of Turnover
- Whitmore (1979) Inverse Gaussian Model for Labour Turnover
- Steers and Mowday (1981) Turnover Model
- Sheridan & Abelson (1983) Cusp Catastrophe Model of Employee Turnover
- Jackofsky (1984) Integrated Process Model
- Lee et al. (1991) Unfolding Model of Voluntary Employee Turnover<sup>[18]</sup>
- Aquino et al. (1997) Referent Cognitions Model
- Mitchell & Lee (2001) Job Embeddedness Model

## 42.9 See also

- Adaptive performance
- Employee retention
- Job satisfaction

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## Chapter 43

# Typical versus maximum performance

The distinction between **typical and maximum performance** is one way to classify job performance in industrial/organizational psychology. Typical performance is how an employee performs on a regular basis, while maximum performance is how one performs when exerting as much effort as possible.

Workers usually exhibit maximum performance when they are being observed. Therefore, some conditions that tend to foster maximum performance include work samples (often given to a potential employee during an interview), manager evaluations, and job knowledge tests. The results from these situations are the ones that are most accessible to supervisors; however, they are usually not reflected in an employee's typical, or day-to-day, performance. This dichotomy makes it harder for managers to have an accurate picture of how an employee will typically act on the job. Therefore, an example of the importance of this distinction can be seen when a manager hires an employee based on high performance during an interview; the manager is essentially hiring the employee based on viewing their maximum performance, which may not be representative of their typical performance. Additionally, this distinction has led some organizations to take measures to get their employees to perform at their maximum level more often.

### 43.1 Characteristics

Psychological tests are broadly divided by the British psychological society into following two types. 1:Test of typical performance. in this case individual,s performance is assessed on given situation. answers are not right or wrong, but identify choices, preferences and strengths of feeling 2:Test of maximum performance: These assess the individual,s ability to perform effeciely under standard conditions .Performance on these tests, which includes ability and aptitude tests, can be judged as right or wrong.Ability tests come in many different forms and may test a general intellectual functioning or a specific ability reference:Laurie.J Mullins, management and organisation behaviour, 8th ed, Prentice hall p140.

Both typical and maximum performances are characterized by different conditions. Managers and organizations should be aware of these so that they are able to identify whether an employee is performing at a typical or maximum level.

Sackett, Zedeck, and Fogli, the researchers who first studied the typical/maximum distinction in 1988, proposed that several conditions must be present for maximum performance to occur:

- a. the individual must be aware that they are being observed;
- b. the individual must be instructed to maximize their effort; and
- c. the measure of performance must occur over a short period of time so that the individual can remain focused on the appropriate goal.<sup>[1]</sup>

Alternatively, typical performance would occur in situations where the individual is not aware of evaluation, is not consciously attempting their best performance, and is monitored over a long period of time.

More recently, Sackett elaborated on the definition of maximum performance, saying that one can view it as the level of performance an employee can "produce on demand" if exerting maximum effort for a short period of time. This means that maximum performance cannot be due purely to luck or chance. As an example, he says that when concentrating, he could make 7 of 10 free throws. But, if he has a hot streak and makes 10 baskets in a row, this wouldn't be maximum performance because it was probably just due to luck.<sup>[2]</sup>

#### *Original findings*

The original research on typical and maximum performance studied supermarket employees scanning items at a cash register. Typical performance was determined by the average number of items scanned and the number of voids per shift. Maximum performance was calculated according to the speed and accuracy of several timed observation periods. The researchers found that those two measures were not statistically related, suggesting that typical and maximum performance are actually distinct

categorizations.<sup>[2]</sup>

## 43.2 Confirming research

Continued support has been found for the typical vs. maximum performance distinction since the initial super-market study. In one study looking at antecedents of the two types of performance, statistical analyses revealed that typical and maximum performance are conceptually different variables.<sup>[3]</sup> In addition, other studies have revealed that typical and maximum performances do not share the same antecedents, which suggests that these are two separate forms of performance.

## 43.3 Components

Job performance is viewed as an employee's results, determined by their combined intelligence and motivation.<sup>[4][5]</sup> Since motivation is dependent on an individual's choices, one can control the direction, level, and persistence they put into a task. Intelligence, however, is stable and not under personal control.

### *Motivation and intelligence*

All tasks require some form of ability and motivation,<sup>[6]</sup> however, Sackett and colleagues hypothesized that the difference between typical and maximum performance is determined by a combination of these two factors.<sup>[1]</sup> They expected that maximum performance is primarily determined by the intelligence of an individual. Since maximum performance occurs when the individual is highly motivated to perform well, the impact of intelligence is higher under these conditions. Everyone under this condition would be exerting the maximum amount, so the difference between individuals lies in their ability. In typical performance, both intelligence and motivation are thought to influence the quality of an employee's job performance. However, motivation is believed to be the more influential factor in this situation.

Research has investigated the strength of these original theories driving typical and maximum performance. A recent study confirmed Sackett and colleagues' ideas, finding that maximum performance was related to the employee's knowledge of the job (e.g., intelligence), while typical performance was related to persistence, self-efficacy, and other measures of motivation.<sup>[5]</sup>

## 43.4 Antecedents

Because maximum performance can be misleading, it is important for managers to be able to recognize the antecedents of both maximum and typical performances.

This can further allow them to recognize when they are most likely to observe either type of performance.

### *Intelligence*

Since all individuals in a maximum performance situation are expected to have similarly high levels of motivation, the differences in their performance should be primarily based on the differing ability of each person.<sup>[7]</sup> Following these thoughts, researchers have hypothesized that intelligence would be predictive of maximum performance. A few studies have supported this thought, finding that intelligence is more highly related with maximum performance than it is typical performance.<sup>[3][7]</sup>

### *Personality*

Researchers have hypothesized that typical performance would be predicted by personality factors, since much of the variability in this type of performance is controlled by an individual and their exertion of effort. Specifically, neuroticism and conscientiousness have been believed to be the personality factors that contribute to motivation, since neuroticism is related to self-esteem and confidence, and conscientiousness is related to perseverance and desire to achieve.<sup>[4]</sup> This idea has received mixed results in the research. A study by Ployhart and colleagues found that the personality factors of neuroticism and extroversion significantly predicted typical performance, and extroversion and openness significantly predicted maximum performance. This research appears to indicate that personality is predictive of both types of performance.<sup>[8]</sup> A separate study, however, found slightly different results, concluding that overall personality is more predictive of typical performance, while intelligence is still the best predictor of maximum performance.<sup>[3]</sup>

### *Honesty*

Many organizations give tests to potential employees during the interview process to determine their job knowledge, overall intelligence, or honesty, and use these to predict how the employee will perform if hired. Research has touched on how maximum performance can be predicted by these tests. For example, one tool is the *integrity test*, which is a test that attempts to assess whether potential employees will engage in deviant behavior on the job.<sup>[9]</sup> Examples of such behavior can range from gossiping about a co-worker to stealing money from the organization. Researchers have linked integrity testing to maximum performance because they hypothesize that integrity levels will determine differences in how individuals perform their job, differences which can affect maximum performance in particular.<sup>[10]</sup> Results obtained by Ones & Viswesvaran supported the use of integrity testing in predicting maximum performance, but also mentioned that job knowledge tests predicted maximum performance as well.<sup>[10]</sup> Interestingly, integrity tests are related to the personality factor of conscientiousness,<sup>[11]</sup> which, as mentioned previously, has not been shown to be related to maximum performance.<sup>[8]</sup>

**Race**

Research has also investigated racial differences in typical and maximum performance. Traditionally, studies have found that minority groups, specifically African Americans, score lower than Whites on intelligence tests,<sup>[12]</sup> but that personality tests are less biased when predicting performance.<sup>[13]</sup> As mentioned previously, typical performance has been linked to personality, and maximum performance has been linked to intelligence. Therefore, researchers expected African Americans to exhibit lower levels of maximum performance than Whites, with both ethnic groups showing similar levels of typical performance. However, a study by DuBois and colleagues found just the opposite. Whites outperformed African Americans when they observed typical performance; whereas, the difference was much less pronounced when they examined maximum performance.<sup>[7]</sup> While this should not impact selection of employees, managers should be aware of the trend when observing performance.

**43.5 Purpose of distinction**

Distinguishing between typical and maximum performance can have both theoretical implications for researchers and practical purposes for organizations.

**Academic implications**

Conceptually, the different types of performance could have different predictors, which will affect research in this domain. For example, many studies have found differences in performance ratings depending on whether the rater is a supervisor or a peer. The typical/maximum distinction could explain this difference if, for instance, supervisors observe more maximum performance while peers observe more typical performance.

**Practical implications**

On the practical side, the typical/maximum distinction can be important when organizations hire new employees. For instance, even though many companies intend to evaluate what an individual's typical performance would be when making a hiring decision, often organizations use measures that should be associated with maximum performance. These common evaluations include assessment centers, intelligence tests, and situational interviews.

Very little research has attempted to look at how various selection tools can predict an employee's behavior with regard to typical and maximum performance; however, one recent study did focus on behavior description interviews and situational interviews. Behavior description interviews ask applicants to describe past behavior related to specific aspects of the job, while situational interviews have applicants respond to hypothetical job-related dilemmas. Klehe and Latham found that both the behavior description interview and the situational interview pre-

dicted typical performance, and the situational interview also predicted maximum performance.<sup>[14]</sup> While many researchers have expressed concerns about using these tools to predict typical performance, this study suggests that they may actually be quite useful.

Another practical implication of this distinction is the effect it has on employee compensation. Managers may value typical and maximum performance differently, resulting in different rewards. Research suggests that both typical and maximum predict compensation levels, but organizations should ensure that this is the practice they wish to employ.<sup>[15]</sup>

**43.6 Unanswered questions**

While there have been advances in typical vs. maximum performance theory since Sackett and colleagues' seminal paper, studies on this topic have been limited and many questions are still unanswered. In focusing on the antecedents of both performance types, conflicting research has prohibited researchers from drawing concrete conclusions as to how to forecast employees' potential performances. Specifically, there has not been consistent support for either personality as an antecedent of typical performance or intelligence as an antecedent of maximum performance. In addition, very few other antecedents have been suggested as relating to either type of performance.

Another unanswered question is the time period that may elapse when studying maximum and typical performance. As mentioned, a requirement of maximum performance is that it must be observed over a "short period of time," whereas typical performance is observed over an extended period of time. However, Sackett and other researchers have left the exact duration requirements vague. Future research could examine where the cutoff point between typical and maximum performance lies.<sup>[2]</sup>

**43.7 Summary**

The distinction between typical and maximum performance has been evident for the past 20 years. Research shows that employees perform at a higher level when they are being temporarily observed compared to other times. The level of typical performance one will usually exhibit, and the level of maximum performance one can achieve, both seem to have particular antecedents. These may include intelligence, personality, honesty, and race. However, further research is needed to confirm and expand upon these findings.



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## Chapter 44

# Wonderlic test

Further information: Personnel selection

See also: Intelligence quotient

The **Wonderlic Cognitive Ability Test** (formerly known as the **Wonderlic Personnel Test**) is a popular group intelligence test used to assess the aptitude of prospective employees for learning and problem-solving in a range of occupations. The Wonderlic is available in 12 different languages and is often used in college, entry level jobs, and team making efforts. It consists of 50 multiple choice questions to be answered in 12 minutes.<sup>[1][2][3][4]</sup> The test was developed by Eldon F. Wonderlic.<sup>[3][5][6]</sup> The score is calculated as the number of correct answers given in the allotted time. A score of 20 is intended to indicate average intelligence (corresponding to an intelligence quotient of 100).<sup>[3]</sup> Wonderlic, Inc. claims a score of at least 10 points suggests a person is literate.<sup>[7]</sup> A new version was released in January 2007 called the Wonderlic Contemporary Cognitive Ability Test (formerly known as the Wonderlic Personnel Test – Revised), containing questions more appropriate to the 21st century; it is available both online and in printed form, whereas the original test is only available on paper. The Wonderlic test was based on another test called the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability.<sup>[1][4][8]</sup>

### 44.1 History

Created in 1936 by E. F. Wonderlic, the Wonderlic Personnel Test was the first short-form cognitive abilities test.<sup>[3][9]</sup> It was developed to measure general cognitive ability in the areas of math, vocabulary, and reasoning.<sup>[3][9]</sup> Wonderlic created and distributed it as a graduate student in the psychology department at Northwestern University from his home.<sup>[7][9]</sup> Regarding the time allotted to take the test, Eldon F. Wonderlic, in an article released in 1939, stated the following: “The length of the test was made such that only about two to five per cent of average groups complete the test in the twelve-minute time limit.”<sup>[4]</sup>

Originally designed to aid in employee selection, the Wonderlic Personnel Test has also been used by both the United States Armed Forces and the National Football

League for selection purposes. During World War II, the Navy began using the Wonderlic Personnel Test to select candidates for pilot training and navigation. In the 1970s Tom Landry, coach of the Dallas Cowboys, was the first to use the Wonderlic Personnel Test to predict player performance.<sup>[3]</sup> It is still used in the annual NFL Combine as a form of pre-draft assessment.<sup>[3][9]</sup> In short, it attempts to screen candidates for certain jobs within the shortest possible time. It may be termed as a quick IQ test.<sup>[10]</sup>

The Wonderlic test is continually being updated with repeated evaluations of questions.<sup>[5][11]</sup> Also, beginning in the 1970s, Wonderlic began to develop other forms of the Wonderlic Personnel some of which include: Wonderlic Perceptual Ability Tests, Wonderlic Scholastic Level Exam, or the Wonderlic Contemporary Cognitive Ability Test. There are currently 30 tests offered by Wonderlic, Inc.<sup>[12]</sup>

### 44.2 Application to industrial-organizational psychology

See also: Industrial and organizational psychology

The Wonderlic test, as a vocational and intelligence test, falls under the field of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. As a personnel test the Wonderlic is used to gauge an applicant's job potential, educational potential, and training potential.<sup>[13]</sup> Six forms of this test are made available (A, B,C, D, E, and F) in which Wonderlic suggests that when two of these versions are to be used, the best combinations are A and B or D and F.<sup>[14]</sup> However, a study conducted by psychologists Kazmier and Browne (1959) shows that neither of these forms can be regarded as directly equivalent.<sup>[14]</sup> While there is no lack of tests that could be used in place of the Wonderlic, such as the IQ or the Mechanical Aptitude Test, it is a quick and simple vocational test for personnel recruitment and selection.<sup>[11]</sup> The Wonderlic test has been peer reviewed by the American Psychological Association and has been deemed worthy of field applications to the industrial use of personnel testing.<sup>[15]</sup> Other sources can be found on

the database APA PsycNET.<sup>[16]</sup>

### 44.3 Sample questions

Similar to other **standardized tests**, the Wonderlic Cognitive Ability Test presents its questions in an open response format that becomes increasingly more difficult as one progresses through the test.<sup>[4]</sup> The types of questions that have appeared in the oldest versions of the Wonderlic test include: analogies, analysis of geometric figures, arithmetic, direction following, disarranged sentences, judgment, logic, proverb matching, similarities, and word definitions. However, the questions may take different angles depending upon the ‘intelligence’ of the question setters.<sup>[4][7][10]</sup> Practice questions will include:

- When a rope is selling 20 cents per 2 feet, how many feet can you buy for 30 dollars?
- Which of the numbers in this group represents the smallest amount? a) 0.3 b) 0.08 c) 1 d) 0.33

Abbreviated, unofficial versions of the test are available online.<sup>[17][18]</sup> While these tests are not nearly as complex as the original Wonderlic test, nor authorized by Wonderlic, they follow many of the same concepts.

A simplified and condensed version of the Wonderlic test appears in newer editions of the *Madden NFL* video game series.<sup>[3]</sup> The *Madden* version of the test is taken in “Superstar Mode” portion of the game, to make the game experience more realistic, although, it is now optional.<sup>[19][20]</sup> The questions usually consist of basic math and English questions. For example, “If Adrian Peterson rushes for 125 yards in a game, how many yards will he have at the end of the season if he keeps up with this pace?”. Players have four answers to choose from when taking this version of the test.<sup>[21]</sup>

### 44.4 Central tendency of Wonderlic scores

See also: Central tendency

Serving as a quantitative measure for employers, scores are collected by the employers and the applicant’s score may be compared to a professional standard, as is the case with security guards or, simply, compared to the scores of other applicants who happen to be applying for the same or similar positions at that time.<sup>[13]</sup> Each profession has its own, unique, average; therefore, different professions require different standards.<sup>[4][13]</sup>

#### 44.4.1 Median score by profession

Listed are a sample of median scores by profession on the Wonderlic test from 1983. The scores are listed in descending numerical order, and professions with the same score have been alphabetized.<sup>[13]</sup>

- Systems analyst – 32
- Chemist – 31
- Electrical engineer – 30
- Engineer – 29
- Programmer – 29
- Accountant – 28
- Executive – 28
- Reporter – 28
- Teacher – 28
- Copywriter – 27
- Investment analyst – 27
- Librarian – 27
- Electronics technician – 26
- Salesperson – 25
- Secretary – 24
- Dispatcher – 23
- Drafter – 23
- Electrician – 23
- Nurse – 23
- Bank teller – 22
- Cashier – 21
- Firefighter – 21
- Clerical worker – 21
- Machinist – 21
- Receptionist – 21
- Train conductor – 21
- Craftsman – 18
- Security guard – 17
- Welder – 17
- Warehouseman – 15
- Janitor - 14

#### 44.4.2 Average score in the NFL by position

Though used in a variety of settings, the Wonderlic test has become best known for its use in the NFL's Scouting Combine. According to Paul Zimmerman's *The New Thinking Man's Guide to Pro Football*, the average score of a NFL player according to position is the following:

- Offensive tackle – 26
- Center – 25
- Quarterback – 24 (Most teams want at least 21 for a quarterback.)<sup>[22]</sup>
- Guard – 23
- Tight end – 22
- Safety – 19
- Linebacker – 19
- Cornerback – 18
- Wide receiver – 17
- Fullback – 17
- Halfback – 16<sup>[23]</sup>

An average football player usually scores around 20 points.<sup>[7]</sup>

Some notable players who scored well below the average include:

- Morris Claiborne – 4 (first-round pick in the 2012 NFL Draft, lowest score ever known by an NFL player)<sup>[24]</sup>
- Frank Gore – 6 (3rd-round pick in the 2005 NFL Draft)<sup>[25]</sup>
- Tavon Austin – 7 (first-round pick in the 2013 NFL Draft)<sup>[26]</sup>
- Terrelle Pryor – 7 (third-round pick in the 2011 NFL Supplemental Draft)<sup>[27]</sup>
- Carlos Hyde - 9 (second round pick in the 2014 NFL Draft)<sup>[28]</sup>
- Travis Henry – 9 (second-round pick in the 2001 NFL Draft)<sup>[29]</sup>
- Charles Rogers – 10 (second overall pick in the 2003 NFL Draft)<sup>[26]</sup>
- Cordarrelle Patterson – 11 (first-round pick in the 2013 NFL Draft)<sup>[26]</sup>

Some notable players who scored well above the average include:

- Aaron Rodgers - 35 (first-round pick in the 2005 NFL Draft)<sup>[30]</sup>
- Tony Romo - 37 (undrafted in 2003)<sup>[31]</sup>
- Matthew Stafford – 38 (first overall pick in the 2009 NFL Draft)<sup>[32]</sup>
- Colin Kaepernick - 38 (second-round pick in the 2011 NFL Draft)
- Eli Manning - 39 (first overall pick in the 2004 NFL Draft)<sup>[33]</sup>
- Alex Smith – 40 (first overall pick in the 2005 NFL Draft)<sup>[34]</sup>
- Calvin Johnson - 41 (first-round pick in the 2007 NFL Draft)<sup>[35]</sup>
- Blaine Gabbert – 42 (first-round pick in the 2011 NFL Draft)<sup>[36]</sup>
- Eric Decker – 43 (third-round pick in the 2010 NFL Draft)<sup>[37]</sup>
- Greg McElroy – 43 (seventh-round pick in the 2011 NFL Draft)<sup>[38]</sup>
- Matt Birk – 46 (sixth-round pick in the 1998 NFL Draft)<sup>[39]</sup>
- Ryan Fitzpatrick – 48 (seventh-round pick in the 2005 NFL Draft; finished test in a record nine minutes)<sup>[40]</sup>
- Ben Watson - 48 (first-round pick in the 2004 NFL Draft)<sup>[41]</sup>
- Mike Mamula – 49 (first-round pick in the 1995 NFL Draft; second highest score ever reported)<sup>[42]</sup>
- Pat McNally – 50 (fifth-round pick in the 1975 NFL Draft; only player known to have gotten a perfect score)<sup>[43]</sup>

#### Predictor of success in the NFL

John P. Lopez of *Sports Illustrated* proposes a 26–27–60 rule to predict a quarterback's success in the NFL (at least a 26 on the Wonderlic, at least 27 college starts, and at least 60% pass completion) and lists several examples of successes and failures based on the rule.<sup>[44]</sup> A 2005 study by McDonald Mirabile found that there is no significant correlation between a quarterback's Wonderlic score and a quarterback's passer rating, and no significant correlation between a quarterback's Wonderlic score and a quarterback's salary.<sup>[45]</sup> Similarly, a 2009 study by Brian D. Lyons, Brian J. Hoffman, and John W.

Michel found that Wonderlic scores failed to positively and significantly predict future NFL performance for any position.<sup>[46]</sup> Donovan McNabb, whose 14 score<sup>[47]</sup> was the lowest of the five quarterbacks taken in the first round of the 1999 NFL Draft, was the only one with a lengthy and successful NFL career.<sup>[48]</sup>

The Lyons study also found that the relationship between Wonderlic test scores and future NFL performance was negative for a few positions, indicating the higher a player scores on the Wonderlic test, the worse the player will perform in the NFL.<sup>[46][49]</sup> According to McNally, who was selected by the Cincinnati Bengals in the fifth round of the 1975 NFL Draft, George Young told him that his perfect score caused him to be selected later than he would have otherwise.<sup>[50]</sup> McNally speculated that “coaches and front-office guys don’t like extremes one way or the other, but particularly not on the high side. I think they think guys who are intelligent will challenge authority too much.”<sup>[43]</sup> Mike Florio of Profootballtalk.com agreed with McNally:

Scoring too high can be as much of a problem as scoring too low. Football coaches want to command the locker room. Being smarter than the individual players makes that easier. Having a guy in the locker room who may be smarter than every member of the coaching staff can be viewed as a problem – or at a minimum as a threat to the egos of the men who hope to be able when necessary to outsmart the players, especially when trying in some way to manipulate them.<sup>[51]</sup>

## 44.5 Reliability

See also: Reliability (statistics)

In 1982, Carl Dodrill conducted a study in which 57 adults were administered the Wonderlic twice over a five-year period. In the *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, Dodrill reported that the test-retest reliability for the Wonderlic was .94.<sup>[52]</sup>

In 1956, Weaver and Boneau reported in the *Journal of Applied Psychology* that two of the five forms, A and B, that were published at the time were harder than the others which caused scores on those forms to be significantly lower than scores obtained on forms C-F.<sup>[2]</sup> Concerning these observed differences, Weaver and Boneau state: “This accords with the history of the development of the test. Forms D, E, and F are made up of items selected from the Otis Higher, while A and B were developed later and include types of items not found in the Otis.”<sup>[2]</sup> Those findings, seemingly, invalidate the claim that those forms were equivalent or consistent.<sup>[2]</sup> E. N. Hay made a similar observation as well. Hay found that

form F was significantly easier than Form D.<sup>[53]</sup> Furthermore, Kazmier found Form B to be the most difficult of the five forms and, thus, recommended that it “not be regarded as directly equivalent to any of the forms.”<sup>[8]</sup> Kazmier also found Forms D and F to be significantly different from each other and recommended that these forms be regarded as inequivalent.<sup>[8]</sup> In a study of the Wonderlic’s test-retest reliability, conducted in 1992, Stuart McKelvie “concluded that conscious repetition of specific responses did not seriously inflate the estimate of test-retest reliability.”<sup>[54]</sup> To put it simply, one’s memory of some of the answers does not significantly affect one’s score on the Wonderlic.<sup>[54]</sup>

More recently, according to a 1989 article in *Psychological Reports*, the Wonderlic scored a  $r=.87$  on the reliability scale compared along with the Pearson test score of  $r=.21$ .<sup>[55]</sup>

## 44.6 Validity

See also: Validity (statistics)

In an article written in *Psychological Reports* T. Matthews and Kerry Lassiter report that the Wonderlic test “was most strongly associated with overall intellectual functioning,” which is what it is purported to measure.<sup>[55]</sup> However, Matthews and Lassiter did not find the Wonderlic to be a successful measure of fluid and crystallized intelligence, and they stated that “the Wonderlic test scores did not clearly show convergent or divergent validity evidence across these two broad domains of cognitive ability.”<sup>[55]</sup> In academic testing, the Wonderlic test has shown high correlations with aptitude tests such as the General Aptitude Test Battery.<sup>[55]</sup>

## 44.7 Types

The tests are divided into four different sections: cognitive, skill, personality, and behavioral. The scores are predictors of the possible conformity that a potential employee has within the field for which they are applying. Each test has a different number of questions and time requirement, and either can or cannot be administered via computer.

### 44.7.1 Skill

First created in the 1950s by Wonderlic’s son, Charles F Wonderlic Sr., the skills test measures an individual’s skill in areas such as math or English.<sup>[56]</sup> There are three types of skill tests: Perceptual Ability Test, Wonderlic Basic Skills Test, and Wonderlic Office and Software Skills Tests. The Wonderlic Perceptual Ability Tests measures

an individual's ability to answer numerical and alphabetical details with accuracy. The Wonderlic Basic Skills Test measures one's mathematical and verbal capabilities. Wonderlic Office and Software Skills Tests test a person's computer proficiency and use of basic software.<sup>[57]</sup>

### 44.7.2 Cognitive Ability

Released in the 1990s, the Cognitive Ability test measures an individual's capability of solving problems and learning. The Cognitive Ability test is divided into two different forms of test: the Wonderlic Cognitive Ability Pretest and the Wonderlic Contemporary Cognitive Ability Test. The Wonderlic Cognitive Ability Pretest differ from the Wonderlic Contemporary Cognitive Ability Test in that it is not proctored giving employers a general idea of the potential applicant's cognitive ability. The Wonderlic Contemporary Cognitive Ability Test is a much more comprehensive test.<sup>[57][58]</sup>

### 44.7.3 Behavioral liability

Behavioral Liability is a test assessment for individuals to gauge that individual's potential in engaging in counterproductive or unethical behaviors within a community.<sup>[59]</sup> Divided into two sections: the Wonderlic Behavioral Risk Profile and the Wonderlic Behavioral Risk Profile Plus.<sup>[60]</sup> Each test measures an individual's liability within the group, e.g., theft. The Wonderlic Behavioral Risk Profile test an individual's three behavior traits: neuroticism, agreeability, and conscientiousness. The Wonderlic Behavioral Risk Profile Plus is similar to the Wonderlic Behavioral Risk Profile, however the Wonderlic Behavioral Risk Profile Plus contains additional questioning including background disclosures and productivity results.<sup>[57]</sup>

### 44.7.4 Personality

The Wonderlic Personality tests measure personal characteristics that are widely accepted as being predictive of a candidate's expected job performance. Wonderlic claims that using the Wonderlic Personality Test to select individuals whose traits are aligned with the demands of the position, employers can improve employee productivity, employee satisfaction and customer service while reducing recruitment costs and employee turnover.<sup>[61]</sup>

Added during the 1990s, the Wonderlic Personality Test contains two sections. The Wonderlic Five-Factor Personality Profile and the Wonderlic Seven-Factor Personality Profile. Using five primary dimensions of an individual's personality, the Wonderlic Five-Factor Personality Profile using five primary dimensions of tests an individual's personality: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability/neuroticism, and

openness to experience.<sup>[62]</sup> These are essentially the same constructs as the Big Five personality traits, also known as the Five Factor Model.

The Wonderlic Seven-Factor Personality Profile tests individuals on seven dimensions different from the Wonderlic Five-Factor Personality Profile: emotional intensity, intuition, recognition motivation, sensitivity, assertiveness, trust, and good impression. The Wonderlic Seven-Factor Personality Profile test is oriented more for customer service employees.<sup>[57]</sup>

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## 44.9 External links

- Official site
- New Test in 2007 Press Release
- ESPN article with sample questions
- *Sports Illustrated* article
- Sample questions at WalterFootball.com
- Sample questions at TestPrep-Online.com



# Chapter 45

## Work engagement

Organizations need energetic and dedicated employees: people who are engaged with their work. These organizations expect proactivity, initiative and responsibility for personal development from their employees.<sup>[1]</sup>

Kahn <sup>[2]</sup> was the first scholar to define “personal engagement” as the “...harnessing of organization member’s selves to their work roles: in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, emotionally and mentally during role performances” (p. 694). Based on this definition a questionnaire was developed that assesses three dimensions: cognitive, emotional and physical engagement.<sup>[3]</sup>

There are two schools of thought with regard to the definition of **work engagement**. On the one hand Maslach and Leiter <sup>(<sup>[4]</sup>)</sup> assume that a continuum exists with **burnout** and engagement as two opposite poles. The second school of thought operationalizes engagement in its own right as the positive **antithesis** of burnout.<sup>[5]</sup> According to this approach, work engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption.<sup>[6]</sup> Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties; dedication by being strongly involved in one’s work, and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge; and absorption by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work.<sup>[7]</sup>

### 45.1 As a unique concept

Work engagement as measured by the UWES is positively related with, but can nevertheless be differentiated from, similar constructs such as job involvement and organizational commitment,<sup>[8]</sup> in-role and extra-role behavior,<sup>[9]</sup> personal initiative,<sup>[10]</sup> Type A,<sup>[11]</sup> and workaholism.<sup>[12]</sup> Moreover, engaged workers are characterized by low levels of burnout,<sup>[13]</sup> as well as by low levels of neuroticism and high levels of extraversion.<sup>[14]</sup> Also they enjoy good mental and physical health.<sup>[12]</sup>

### 45.2 Trait versus state

Generally, work engagement is conceptualized as a relatively stable phenomenon. This can be explained by the presence of specific job and organizational characteristics.<sup>[15]</sup> However, engagement is not a fixed state: the level of engagement can even fluctuate on a weekly <sup>[16]</sup> or day-to-day basis.<sup>[17][18][19]</sup> Increasingly, attention is being paid to these short-term fluctuations by conducting experience sampling studies and diary studies.<sup>[20]</sup> Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) meta-analyzed over 90 engagement research studies. They found that engagement is distinct from job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement.<sup>[15]</sup>

### 45.3 Measurement

The three aspects of work engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption) are assessed by the **Utrecht Work Engagement Scale** (UWES <sup>[7]</sup>), which is currently available in 20 languages and can be used freely for non-commercial purposes. In addition a short form <sup>[21]</sup> and a student version <sup>[22]</sup> are available. The reliability and validity of the UWES is documented in various studies (for an overview see <sup>[23]</sup>).

The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) <sup>[24][25]</sup> is an alternative instrument for the assessment of work engagement. It consists of two dimensions: exhaustion-vigor and cynicism-dedication.

### 45.4 Main drivers

Research has identified two key sets of variables that drive work engagement:

- **Job resources:** Work engagement is found to be positively associated with job resources such as social support from co-workers and from one’s superior, performance feedback, coaching, job control, task variety, opportunities for learning and development, and training facilities. These resources

are helpful in reducing the impact of job demands on strain, but they are also useful in the achievement of work goals, and they stimulate learning, personal growth and development. One consistent finding is that the motivational potential of job resources is particularly salient in the face of high job demands.<sup>[26]</sup>

**Example:** In a longitudinal study among 2555 Finnish dentists, researchers found that job resources lead to work engagement, which in turn had an influence on the level of personal initiative and consequently on work-unit innovativeness.<sup>[27]</sup>

- **Personal resources:** personal resources, such as optimism, self-efficacy and resilience are functional in controlling the environment and exerting impact on it in a successful way. Furthermore, engaged employees have several personal characteristics that differentiate them from less engaged employees. Examples are extraversion, conscientiousness and emotional stability. Psychological capital<sup>[1]</sup> also seems to be related to work engagement.

**Example:** Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2007)<sup>[28]</sup> studied Dutch technicians' work engagement in relation to three personal resources (self-efficacy, organizational-based self-esteem, and optimism). Results indicated that these resources were related to work engagement.

For an overall model of work engagement, see Bakker & Demerouti (2008).<sup>[26]</sup>

## 45.5 Performance

Engagement is related to better performance. For instance, engaged contact workers from hotels and restaurants produce better service quality as perceived by their customers;<sup>[29]</sup> the more engaged university students feel the higher their next year's Grade Point Average;<sup>[30]</sup> the higher the level of engagement of flight attendants, the better their in- and extra-role performance on the flight;<sup>[31]</sup> and the more engaged restaurant workers, the higher the financial turnover of the shift.<sup>[32]</sup> Other research has shown links between supervisor-ratings of performance and the work engagement of teachers (Bakker and Bal, 2010<sup>[33]</sup>) and administrative workers in financial services (Yalabik et al., 2013<sup>[34]</sup>). Salanova, Agut and Peiró (2005)<sup>[35]</sup> found a positive relationship between organization resources, work engagement and performance among employees, working in Spanish restaurants and hotels.

There are several possible reasons why engaged employees show higher performance than non-engaged employees:<sup>[36]</sup>

- They often experience positive emotions;
- They experience better health;
- They create their own job and personal resources;
- They transfer their engagement to others (cross-over).

## 45.6 Downside

There is also a possibility of becoming 'over-engaged'. For example, it can distort the work-life balance when employees take work home.<sup>[37]</sup> Over-engagement may also lead to workaholism.<sup>[38]</sup>

## 45.7 See also

- Adaptive performance
- Employee engagement
- Positive psychology in the workplace

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# Chapter 46

## Work motivation

For general motivation, see [Motivation](#).

**Work motivation** “is a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual’s being, to initiate work-related behavior, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration”<sup>[1]</sup> Understanding what motivates an organization’s employees is central to the study of I–O psychology. Motivation is a person’s internal disposition to be concerned with and approach positive incentives and avoid negative incentives. To further this, an *incentive* is the anticipated reward or aversive event available in the environment.<sup>[2]</sup> While motivation can often be used as a tool to help predict behavior, it varies greatly among individuals and must often be combined with ability and environmental factors to actually influence behavior and performance. Results from a recent 2012 study, which examined age-related differences in work motivation, suggest a “shift in people’s motives” rather than a general decline in motivation with age. That is, it seemed that older employees were less motivated by extrinsically related features of a job, but more by intrinsically rewarding job features.<sup>[3]</sup>

It is important for organizations to understand and to structure the work environment to encourage productive behaviors and discourage those that are unproductive given work motivation’s role in influencing workplace behavior and performance.<sup>[4][5]</sup> There is general consensus that motivation involves three psychological processes: arousal, direction, and intensity. Arousal is what initiates action. It is fueled by a person’s need or desire for something that is missing from their lives at a given moment, either totally or partially. Direction refers to the path employees take in accomplishing the goals they set for themselves. Finally, intensity is the vigor and amount of energy employees put into this goal-directed work performance. The level of intensity is based on the importance and difficulty of the goal. These psychological processes result in four outcomes. First, motivation serves to direct attention, focusing on particular issues, people, tasks, etc. It also serves to stimulate an employee to put forth effort. Next, motivation results in persistence, preventing one from deviating from the goal-seeking behavior. Finally, motivation results in task strategies, which as defined by Mitchell & Daniels, are “patterns of behavior

produced to reach a particular goal.”<sup>[5]</sup>

### 46.1 Theories

A number of various theories attempt to describe employee motivation within the discipline of I–O psychology. Most of these theories can be divided into the four broad categories of need-based, cognitive process, behavioral, and job-based.<sup>[4]</sup>

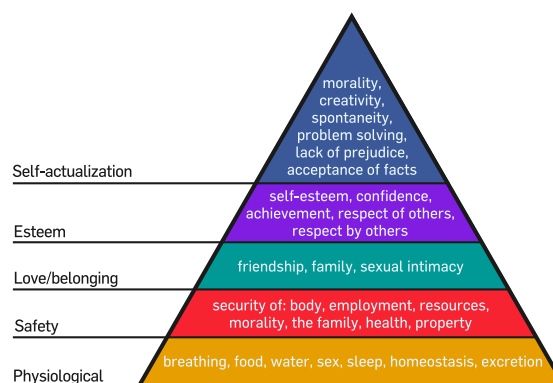
#### 46.1.1 Need-based theories

Need-based theories of motivation focus on an employee’s drive to satisfy a variety of needs through their work. These needs range from basic physiological needs for survival to higher psychoemotional needs like belonging and self-actualization.

#### Maslow’s hierarchy of needs

See also: [Maslow’s hierarchy of needs](#)

Abraham Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (1943) was ap-



*An interpretation of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, represented as a pyramid with the more basic needs at the bottom.*

plied to offer an explanation of how the work environment motivates employees. In accordance with Maslow’s theory, which was not specifically developed to explain

behavior in the workplace, employees strive to satisfy their needs in a hierarchical order.<sup>[4]</sup>

At the most basic level, an employee is motivated to work in order to satisfy basic physiological needs for survival, such as having enough money to purchase food. The next level of need in the hierarchy is safety, which could be interpreted to mean adequate housing or living in a safe neighborhood. The next three levels in Maslow's theory relate to intellectual and psycho-emotional needs: love and belonging, esteem (which refers to competence and mastery), and finally the highest order need, self-actualization.

Although Maslow's theory is widely known, in the workplace it has proven to be a poor predictor of employee behavior.<sup>[4]</sup> Maslow theorized that people will not seek to satisfy a higher level need until their lower level needs are met. There has been little empirical support for the idea that employees in the workplace strive to meet their needs only in the hierarchical order prescribed by Maslow.

Building on Maslow's theory, Clayton Alderfer (1959) collapsed the levels in Maslow's theory from five to three: existence, relatedness and growth. This theory, called the ERG theory, does not propose that employees attempt to satisfy these needs in a strictly hierarchical manner. Empirical support for this theory has been mixed.<sup>[4]</sup>

### Need for achievement

Atkinson & McClelland's Need for Achievement Theory is the most relevant and applicable need-based theory in the I-O psychologist's arsenal. Unlike other need-based theories, which try to interpret every need, Need for Achievement allows the I-O psychologist to concentrate research into a tighter focus. Studies show those who have a high need for achievement prefer moderate levels of risk, seek feedback, and are likely to immerse themselves in their work. Achievement motivation can be broken down into three types:

- Achievement – seeks position advancement, feedback, and sense of accomplishment
- Authority – need to lead, make an impact and be heard by others
- Affiliation – need for friendly social interactions and to be liked.

Because most individuals have a combination of these three types (in various proportions), an understanding of these achievement motivation characteristics can be a useful assistance to management in job placement, recruitment, etc.<sup>[6]</sup>

The theory is referred to as Need for Achievement because these individuals are theorized to be the most effective employees and leaders in the workplace. These

individuals strive to achieve their goals and advance in the organization. They tend to be dedicated to their work and strive hard to succeed. Such individuals also demonstrate a strong desire for increasing their knowledge and for feedback on their performance, often in the form of performance appraisal.<sup>[4]</sup>

The Need for Achievement is in many ways similar to the need for mastery and self-actualization in Maslow's hierarchy of needs and growth in the ERG theory. The achievement orientation has garnered more research interest as compared to the need for affiliation or power.

## 46.1.2 Cognitive process theories

### Equity theory

See also: Equity theory

Equity Theory is derived from social exchange theory. It explains motivation in the workplace as a cognitive process of evaluation, whereby the employee seeks to achieve a balance between inputs or efforts in the workplace and the outcomes or rewards received or anticipated.

In particular, Equity Theory research has tested employee sentiments regarding equitable compensation. Employee inputs take the form of work volume and quality, performance, knowledge, skills, attributes and behaviors. The company-generated outcomes include rewards such as compensation, praise and advancement opportunities. The employee compares his inputs relative to outcomes; and, then, extrapolating to the social context, the employee compares his input/outcome ratio with the perceived ratios of others. If the employee perceives an inequity, the theory posits that the employee will adjust his behavior to bring things into balance.

Equity Theory has proven relevance in situations where an employee is under-compensated. If an employee perceives that he is undercompensated, he can adjust his behavior to achieve equilibrium in several different ways:

- reduce input to a level he believes better matches his level of compensation
- change or adjust the comparative standard to which he is comparing his situation
- cognitively adjust his perception of his inputs or the outcomes received
- withdraw
- address the situation with his employer by asking for a raise

If the employee is able to achieve a ratio of inputs to outputs that he perceives to be equitable, then the employee

will be satisfied. The employee's evaluation of input-to-output ratios and subsequent striving to achieve equilibrium is an ongoing process.

While it has been established that Equity Theory provides insight into scenarios of under-compensation, the theory has generally failed to demonstrate its usefulness in understanding scenarios of overcompensation.<sup>[7]</sup> In this way, it could be said Equity Theory is more useful in describing factors that contribute to a lack of motivation rather than increasing motivation in the workplace. Concepts of organizational justice later expanded upon the fundamentals of Equity Theory and pointed to the importance of fairness perceptions in the workplace.

There are three fairness perceptions applied to organizational settings:

1. Distributive justice, or the perception of equality of an individual's outcomes
2. Procedural justice, or the fairness of the procedures used to determine one's outcomes
3. Interactional justice, or the perception that one has been treated fairly with dignity and respect<sup>[5]</sup>
4. Informational Justice, or the perception that one has been given all the information he/she needs in order to best perform their jobs.

When workplace processes are perceived as fair, the benefits to an organization can be high. In such environments, employees are more likely to comply with policies even if their personal outcome is less than optimal. When workplace policies are perceived as unfair, risks for retaliation and related behaviors such as sabotage and workplace violence can increase.<sup>[5]</sup>

Leventhal (1980) described six criteria for creating fair procedures in an organization. He proposed that procedures and policies should be:<sup>[5]</sup>

1. consistently applied to everyone in the organization
2. free from bias
3. accurate
4. correctable
5. representative of all concerns
6. based on prevailing ethics

### Expectancy theory

See also: Expectancy theory

According to Vroom's Expectancy Theory, an employee will work smarter and/or harder if he believes his additional efforts will lead to valued rewards. Expectancy theory explains this increased output of effort by means of the equation

$$F = E (\Sigma I \times V)$$

whereas:  $F$  (Effort or Motivational Force) = Effort the employee will expend to achieve the desired performance;

$E$  (Expectancy) = Belief that effort will result in desired level of performance;

$I$  (Instrumentality) = Belief that desired level of performance will result in desired outcome;

$V$  (Valence) = Value of the outcome to the employee<sup>[4]</sup>

Expectancy theory has been shown to have useful applications in designing a reward system. If policies are consistently, clearly and fairly implemented, then the instrumentality would be high. If the rewards are substantial enough to be meaningful to an employee, then the valence would be also considered high. A precursor to motivation is that the employee finds the reward(s) attractive. In some instances, the reward or outcome might inadvertently be unattractive, such as increased workload or demanding travel that may come with a promotion. In such an instance, the valence might be lower for individuals who feel work-life balance is important, for example.

Expectancy theory posits employee satisfaction to be an outcome of performance rather than the cause of performance. However, if a pattern is established whereas an employee understands his performance will lead to certain desired rewards, an employee's motivation can be strengthened based on anticipation.<sup>[8]</sup> If the employees foresee a high probability that they can successfully carry out a desired behavior, and that their behavior will lead to a valued outcome, then they will direct their efforts toward that end.

Expectancy theory has been shown to have greater validity in research in within-subject designs rather than between-subjects designs. That is, it is more useful in predicting how an employee might choose among competing choices for their time and energy, rather than predicting the choices two different employees might make.<sup>[4]</sup>

### Goal-setting Theory

See also: Goal setting

An I-O psychologist can assist an employer in designing task-related goals for their employees that are

- attainable
- specific
- appropriately difficult,

- feedback providing

in hopes of rousing tunnel vision focus in the employees.<sup>[9]</sup> Following **S.M.A.R.T** criteria is also suggested.

Studies have shown both feedback from the employer and **self-efficacy** (belief in one's capabilities to achieve a goal) within the employee must be present for goal-setting to be effective.<sup>[10]</sup> However, because of the tunnel vision focus created by goal-setting theory, several studies have shown this motivational theory may not be applicable in all situations. In fact, in tasks that require creative on-the-spot improvising, goal-setting can even be counterproductive.<sup>[11]</sup> Furthermore, because clear goal specificity is essential to a properly designed goal-setting task, multiple goals can create confusion for the employee and the end result is a muted overall drive.<sup>[12]</sup> Despite its flaws, Goal-setting Theory is arguably the most dominant theory in the field of I-O psychology; over one thousand articles and reviews published in just over thirty years.<sup>[5][13]</sup>

Locke suggested several reasons why goals are motivating: they direct attention, lead to task persistence and the development of task strategies for accomplishing the goal. In order for a goal to be motivating, the employee or work group must first accept the goal. While difficult goals can be more motivating, a goal still needs to appear achievable, which in turn will lead to greater goal acceptance. The person or group should have the necessary skills and resources to achieve the goal, or goal acceptance could be negatively impacted. Specific goals that set a performance expectation are more motivating than those that are vague. Similarly, more proximal goals have greater motivation impact than those that are very long range or distal goals.<sup>[4]</sup>

There are three types of factors that influence goal commitment:

- External- The external factors that affect it are authority, peer influence and external rewards. Complying with the dictates of an authority figure such as boss has been shown to be an inducement to high goal commitment. Goal commitment increases when the authority figure is physically present, supportive, pay increases, peer pressure and external rewards.
- Interactive- The factors that influence commitment here are competition and the opportunity to participate in setting goals. It has been shown to be an inducement to setting higher goals and working harder to reach them.
- Internal- these come from self-administered rewards and the expectation of success. The commitment decreases when the expectation to achieve is decreased.

From: Psychology and Work Today by Schultz and Schultz.<sup>[14]</sup>

Feedback while the employee or group is striving for the goal is seen as crucial. Feedback keeps employees on track and reinforces the importance of the goal as well as supporting the employees in adjusting their task strategies.

Goal-setting Theory has strong empirical support dating back thirty years. However, there are some boundary conditions that indicate in some situations, goal-setting can be detrimental to performance on certain types of tasks. Goals require a narrowing of one's focus, so for more complex or **creative** tasks, goals can actually inhibit performance because they demand cognitive resources. Similarly, when someone is learning a new task, performance-related goals can distract from the learning process. During the **learning process**, it may be better to focus on mastering the task than achieving a particular result.<sup>[5]</sup> Finally, too many goals can become distracting and counterproductive, especially if they conflict with one another.

### Social cognitive theory

See also: **Social cognitive theory**

Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory is another cognitive process theory that offers the important concept of self-efficacy for explaining employee's level of motivation relative to workplace tasks or goals. Self-efficacy is an individual's belief in his or her ability to achieve results in a given scenario. Empirically, studies have shown a strong correlation between self-efficacy and performance. The concept has been extended to group efficacy, which is a group's belief that it can achieve success with a given task or project.<sup>[5]</sup>

Self-efficacy is seen to mediate important aspects of how an employee undertakes a given task, such as the level of effort and persistence.<sup>[4]</sup> An employee with high self-efficacy is confident that effort he or she puts forth has a high likelihood of resulting in success. In anticipation of success, an employee is willing to put forth more effort, persist longer, remain focused on the task, seek feedback and choose more effective task strategies.

The antecedents of self-efficacy may be influenced by expectations, training or past experience and requires further research. It has been shown that setting high expectations can lead to improved performance, known as the **Pygmalion effect**. Low expectations can lower self-efficacy and is referred to as the **golem effect**.<sup>[5]</sup>

Relative to training, a mastery-oriented approach has been shown to be an effective way to bolster self-efficacy. In such an approach, the goal of training is to focus on mastering skills or tasks rather than focusing on an immediate performance-related outcome. Individuals who



believe that mastery can be achieved through training and practice are more likely to develop greater self-efficacy than those who see mastery as a product of inherent talent than is largely immutable.<sup>[5]</sup>

### 46.1.3 Behavioral approach to motivation

The behavioral approach to workplace motivation is known as Organizational Behavioral Modification. This approach applies the tenets of behaviorism developed by B.F. Skinner to promote employee behaviors that an employer deems beneficial and discourage those that are not.

Any stimulus that increases the likelihood of a behavior increasing is a reinforcer. An effective use of positive reinforcement would be frequent praise while an employee is learning a new task. An employee's behavior can also be shaped during the learning process if approximations of the ideal behavior are praised or rewarded. The frequency of reinforcement is an important consideration. While frequent praise during the learning process can be beneficial, it can be hard to sustain indefinitely.<sup>[4]</sup>

A variable-ratio schedule of reinforcement, where the frequency of reinforcement varies unpredictably, can be also be highly effective if used in instances where it is ethical to do so. Providing praise on a variable-ratio schedule would be appropriate, whereas paying an employee on an unpredictable variable-ratio schedule would not be.

Compensation and other reward programs provide behavioral reinforcement, and if carefully crafted, can provide powerful incentives to employees. Behavioral principles can also be used to address undesirable behaviors in the workplace, but punishment should be used judiciously. If overused, punishment can negatively impact employee's perception of fairness in the workplace.<sup>[4]</sup>

In general, the less time that elapses between a behavior and its consequence, the more impactful a consequence is likely to be.

### 46.1.4 Job-based theories

The job-based theories hold that the key to motivation is within an employee's job itself. Generally, these theories say that jobs can be motivating by their very design. This is a particularly useful view for organizations, because the practices set out in the theories can be implemented more practically in an organization. Ultimately, according to the job-based theories, the key to finding motivation through one's job is being able to derive satisfaction from the job content.<sup>[4]</sup>

#### Motivation–hygiene theory

See also: Two-factor theory

It is impossible to discuss motivation and job attributes in I–O psychology without crediting Frederick Herzberg's Motivator–Hygiene Theory (also referred to as Herzberg's Two-factor theory). Published in 1968, Herzberg's Motivator–Hygiene Theory holds that the content of a person's job is the primary source of motivation. In other words, he argued against the commonly held belief that money and other compensation is the most effective form of motivation to an employee. Instead, Herzberg posed that high levels of what he dubbed hygiene factors (pay, job security, status, working conditions, fringe benefits, job policies, and relations with co-workers) could only reduce employee dissatisfaction (not create satisfaction). Motivation factors (level of challenge, the work itself, responsibility, recognition, advancement, intrinsic interest, autonomy, and opportunities for creativity) however, could stimulate satisfaction within the employee, provided that minimum levels of the hygiene factors were reached. For an organization to take full advantage of Herzberg's theory, they must design jobs in such a way that motivators are built in, and thus are intrinsically rewarding. While the Motivation–Hygiene Theory was the first to focus on job content, it has not been strongly supported through empirical studies.<sup>[4]</sup> Frederick Herzberg also came up with the concept of **job enrichment**, which expands jobs to give employees a greater role in planning, performing, and evaluating their work, thus providing the chance to satisfy their motivators needs. Some suggested ways would be to remove some management control, provide regular and continuously feedback. Proper job enrichment, therefore, involves more than simply giving the workers extra tasks to perform. It means expanding the level of knowledge and skills needed to perform the job.<sup>[15]</sup>

#### Job characteristics theory

Shortly after Herzberg's Two-factor theory, Hackman and Oldham contributed their own, more refined, job-based theory; Job characteristic theory (JCT). JCT attempts to define the association between core job dimensions, the critical psychological states that occur as a result of these dimensions, the personal and work outcomes, and growth-need strength. Core job dimensions are the characteristics of a person's job. The core job dimensions are linked directly to the critical psychological states. The Job Characteristics Model (JCM), as designed by Hackman and Oldham attempts to use job design to improve employee intrinsic motivation. They show that any job can be described in terms of five key job characteristics:<sup>[16][17]</sup>

According to the JCT, an organization that provides workers with sufficient levels of *skill variety* (using different skills and talents in performing work), *task identity* (contributing to a clearly identifiable larger project), and *task significance* (impacting the lives or work of other people) is likely to have workers who feel their work has

meaning and value. Sufficiently high levels of *autonomy* (independence, freedom and discretion in carrying out the job) will inspire the worker to feel responsibility for the work; and sufficiently high levels of *Task Feedback* (receiving timely, clear, specific, detailed, *actionable* information about the effectiveness of his or her job performance) will inspire the worker to feel the organization is authentically interested in helping to foster his/her professional development and growth. The combined effect of these psychological states results in desired personal and work outcomes: intrinsic motivation, *job satisfaction*, performance quality, low absenteeism, and low turnover rate.<sup>[4][16][17]</sup>

Lastly, the glue of this theory is the “growth-need strength” factor which ultimately determines the effectiveness of the core job dimensions on the psychological states, and likewise the effectiveness of the critical psychological states on the affective outcomes.<sup>[10]</sup> Further analysis of Job Characteristics Theory can be found in the Work Design section below.

Hackman and Oldman created the **Job Diagnostic Survey** (JDS) which measures three parts of their theory.

1. Employees views of the job characteristics
2. The level of growth needed by each employee
3. Employees overall *job satisfaction*

JDS is the most frequently and commonly used tool to measure job and *work design*. JDS is a self-report which has small detailed phrases for the different job characteristics. An employee will be asked to fill out the JDS and rate how precise each statement describes their job.<sup>[18]</sup>

### 46.1.5 Self-regulation theory

A theory based in self-efficacy, Self Regulation is “A theory of motivation based on the setting of goals and the receipt of accurate feedback that is monitored to enhance the likelihood of goal attainment”<sup>[19]</sup> It is presumed that people consciously set goals for themselves that guide and direct their behavior toward the attainment of these goals. These people also engage in self-monitoring or self-evaluation. Self-evaluation can be helped along if feedback is given when a person is working on their goals because it can align how a person feels about how they are doing to achieve a goal and what they are actually doing to achieve their goals. In short, feedback provides an “error” message that a person who is off-track can reevaluate their goal.<sup>[19]</sup>

This theory has been linked to Goal setting and Goal Setting Theory, which has been mentioned above.

### 46.1.6 Work engagement

See also: [Work engagement](#)

A new approach to work motivation is the idea of Work Engagement or “A conception of motivation whereby individuals are physically immersed in emotionally and intellectually fulfilling work.”<sup>[19]</sup> This theory draws on many aspects of I/O Psychology. This theory proposes that motivation taps into *energy* where it allows a person to focus on a task. According to Schaufeli and Bakker<sup>[20]</sup> there are three dimensions to work engagement.

- Vigor- a sense of personal energy for work
- Dedication- experiencing a sense of pride in one’s work and challenge from it
- Absorption- The Capacity to be engrossed in work and experiencing a sense of flow.

Work Engagement forwards the notion that individuals have the ability to contribute more to their own productivity than organizations typically allow. An example would be to allow workers to take some risks and not punish them if the risks leads to unsuccessful outcomes. “In short, work engagement can be thought of as an interaction of individuals and work. Engagement can occur when both facilitate each other, and engagement will not occur when either (or both) thwarts each other.”<sup>[19]</sup> Some critics of work engagement say that this is nothing new, just “old wine in a new bottle.”

## 46.2 Applications of motivation

### 46.2.1 Organizational reward systems

Organizational reward systems have a significant impact on employees’ level of motivation. Rewards can be either *tangible* or *intangible*. Various forms of pay, such as *salary*, commissions, bonuses, employee ownership programs and various types of profit or gain sharing programs, are all important tangible rewards. While fringe benefits have a positive impact on attraction and retention, their direct impact on motivation and performance is not well-defined.<sup>[4]</sup>

Salaries play a crucial role in the tangible reward system. They are an important factor in attracting new talent to an organization as well as retaining talent. Compensating employees well is one way for an organization to reinforce an employee’s value to the organization. If an organization is known for paying their employees top dollar, then they may develop a positive reputation in the job market as a result.

Through incentive compensation structures, employees can be guided to focus their attention and efforts on certain organizational goals. The goals that are reinforced

through incentive pay should be carefully considered to make sure they are in alignment with the organizational objectives. If there are multiple rewards programs, it is important to consider if there might be any conflicting goals. For example, individual and team-based rewards can sometime work at cross-purposes.

Important forms of intangible rewards include praise, recognition and rewards. Intangible rewards are ones from which an employee does not derive any material gain.<sup>[4]</sup> Such rewards have the greatest impact when they soon follow the desired behavior and are closely tied to the performance. If an organization wants to use praise or other intangible rewards effectively, praise should be offered for a high level of performance and for things that they employee has control over. Some studies have shown that praise can be as effective as tangible rewards.<sup>[4]</sup>

Other forms of intangible performance include status symbols, such as a corner office, and increased autonomy and freedom. Increased autonomy demonstrates trust in an employee, may decrease occupational stress and improve job satisfaction. A 2010 study found positive relationships between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, happiness, positive affect, and the absence of negative affect which may also be interrelated with work motivation.<sup>[21]</sup> Since it may be hard for an employee to achieve a similar level of trust in a new organization, increased autonomy may also help improve retention.<sup>[4]</sup>

### 46.2.2 Motivation through design of work

Reward-based systems are certainly the more common practice for attempting to influence motivation within an organization, but some employers strive to design the work itself to be more conducive. There are multiple ways an organization can leverage job design principles to increase motivation. Three of the predominant approaches will be discussed here: the Humanistic Approach, the Job Characteristics Approach, and the Interdisciplinary Approach.<sup>[4]</sup>

#### Humanistic Approach

The Humanistic Approach to job design was a reaction to “worker dissatisfaction over Scientific Management” and focused on providing employees with more input and an opportunity to maximize their personal achievement as referenced by Jex and Britt. Jobs should also provide intellectual stimulation, opportunities for creativity, and greater discretion over work-related activities. Two approaches used in the Humanistic Approach to job design are job rotation and job enrichment. Job rotation allows employees to switch to different jobs which allows them to learn new skills and provides them with greater variety. According to Jex and Britt, this would be most effective for simple jobs that can become mundane and boring over time. Job enrichment is focused on leveraging those aspects of jobs that are labeled motivators, such as control,

intellectual challenge, and creativity. The most common form of job enrichment is vertical loading where additional tasks or discretion enhances the initial job design. While there is some evidence to support that job enrichment improves motivation, it is important to note that it is not effective for all people. Some employees are not more motivated by enriched jobs.<sup>[4]</sup>

#### Job Characteristics Approach

The Job Characteristics Approach to job design is based on how core dimensions affect motivation. These dimensions include autonomy, variety, significance, feedback, and identity. The goal of JCT job design is to utilize specific interventions in an effort to enhance these core dimensions.

1. Vertical Loading – Like the tactic used in the Humanistic Job Enrichment approach, this intervention is designed to enhance autonomy, task identity, task significance, and skill variety by increasing the number of tasks and providing greater levels of control over how those tasks are completed.
2. Task Combination – By combining tasks into larger units of work and responsibility, task identity may be improved.
3. Natural Work Units – A form of task combination that represents a logical body of work and responsibility that may enhance both task significance and task identity.
4. Establishing Client Relationships – Designs interactions between employees and customers, both internal and external, to enhance task identity, feedback, and task significance. This is accomplished by improving the visibility of beneficial effects on customers.
5. Feedback – By designing open feedback channels, this intervention attempts to increase the amount and value of feedback received.

The process of designing work so as to enhance individual motivation to perform the work is called **Job enrichment**<sup>[19]</sup>

While the JCT approach to job design has a significant impact on **job satisfaction**, the effects on performance are more mixed. Much of the success of implementation of JCT practices is dependent on the organization carefully planning interventions and changes to ensure impact throughout the organization is anticipated. Many companies may have difficulty implementing JCT changes throughout the organization due to its high cost and complexity.<sup>[4]</sup>

#### Interdisciplinary Approach

One of the most recent approaches to work design, the Interdisciplinary Approach is based on the use of careful assessment of current job design, followed by a cost/benefit analysis, and finally changes based on the area in which a job is lacking. The assessment is conducted using the Multi-method Job Design Questionnaire, which is used to determine if the job is deficient in the areas of motivational, mechanistic, biological, or perceptual motor support. Motivational improvements are aligned with the Job Characteristics theory dimensions. Mechanistic improvements are focused on improving the efficiency of the job design. Biological improvements focus on improvements to ergonomics, health conditions, and employee comfort. Finally, perceptual motor improvements focus on the nature and presentation of the information an employee must work with. If improvements are identified using the questionnaire, the company then evaluates the cost of making the improvements and determines if the potential gains in motivation and performance justify those costs. Because of the analysis and cost/benefit components of the Interdisciplinary Approach, it is often less costly for organizations and implementations can be more effective. Only changes deemed to be appropriate investments are made, thus improving motivation, productivity, and job satisfaction while controlling costs.<sup>[4]</sup>

## 46.3 Other factors affecting motivation

### 46.3.1 Creativity

On the cutting edge of research pertaining to motivation in the workplace is the integration of motivation and creativity. Essentially, according to Ambrose and Kulik,<sup>[7]</sup> the same variables that predict intrinsic motivation are associated with creativity. This is a helpful conclusion in that organizations can measure and influence both creativity and motivation simultaneously. Further, allowing employees to choose creative and challenging jobs/tasks has been shown to improve motivation.<sup>[13]</sup> In order to increase creativity, setting “creativity goals” can positively influence the process, along with allowing more autonomy (i.e., giving employees freedom to feel/be creative). Other studies have found that team support may enable more creativity in a group setting,<sup>[22]</sup> also increasing motivation.

### 46.3.2 Groups and teams

As the workplace is changing to include more group-based systems, researching motivation within these groups is of growing importance. To date, a great amount of research has focused on the Job characteristic theory and the Goal-setting Theory. While more research is needed that draws on a broader range of motivation

theories, research thus far has concluded several things: (a) semi-autonomous groups report higher levels of job scope (related to intrinsic job satisfaction), extrinsic satisfaction, and organizational commitment; and (b) developmentally mature teams have higher job motivation and innovation. Further, voluntarily formed work teams report high work motivation.<sup>[7]</sup> Though research shows that appropriate goal-setting influences group motivation and performance, more research is needed in this area (group goals, individual goals, cohesiveness, etc.). There are inseparable mediating variables consisting of group cohesiveness, commitment, and performance. As the workplace environment calls for more and more teams to be formed, research into motivation of teams is ever-pressing. Thus far, overarching research merely suggests that individual-level and team-level sources of motivation are congruent with each other.<sup>[23]</sup> Consequently, research should be expanded to apply more theories of motivation; look at group dynamics; and essentially conclude how groups can be most impacted to increase motivation and, consequently, performance.

### 46.3.3 Culture

Organizational cultures can be broken down into three groups: Strong, Strategically Appropriate, and Adaptive.<sup>[24]</sup> Each has been identified with high performing organizations and has particular implications on motivation in the workplace.

#### Strength

The most widely reported effect of culture on performance is that strong cultures result in high performance.<sup>[24]</sup> The three reasons for this are goal alignment, motivation, and the resulting structure provided. Goal alignment is driven by the proposed unified voice that drives employees in the same direction. Motivation comes from the strength of values and principles in such a culture. And structure is provided by these same attributes which obviate the need for formal controls that could stifle employees. There are questions that concern researchers about causality and the veracity of the driving voice of a strong culture.

#### Strategic Appropriateness

A strategically appropriate culture motivates due to the direct support for performance in the market and industry: “The better the fit, the better the performance; the poorer the fit, the poorer the performance,” state Kotter & Heskett.<sup>[24]</sup> There is an appeal to the idea that cultures are designed around the operations conditions a firm encounters although an outstanding issue is the question of adapting culture to changes in the environment.

#### Adaptability

Another perspective in culture literature asserts that in order for an organization to perform at a high level over a long period of time, it must be able to adapt to changes in the environment. According to Ralph Kilmann, in such a culture “there is a shared feeling of confidence: the members believe, without a doubt, that they can effectively manage whatever new problems and opportunities will come their way.” In effect, the culture is infused with a high degree of self-efficacy and confidence. As with the strong culture, critics point to the fact that the theory provides nothing in the way of appropriate direction of adaptation that leads to high performance.

### Competing Values Framework

Another perspective on culture and motivation comes from the work of Cameron & Quinn<sup>[25]</sup> and the Competing Values Framework. They divide cultures into four quadrants: Clan, Adhocracy, Market, Hierarchy, with particular characteristics that directly affect employee motivation.

- *Clan* cultures are collaborative and driven by values such as commitment, communication, and individual development. Motivation results from human development, employee engagement, and a high degree of open communication.
- *Adhocracy* cultures are creative and innovative. Motivation in such cultures arises from finding creative solutions to problems, continually improving, and empowering agility.
- *Market* cultures focus on value to the customer and are typically competitive and aggressive. Motivation in the market culture results from winning in the marketplace and creating external partnerships.
- And finally, *Hierarchy* cultures value control, efficiency, and predictability. Motivation in such a culture relies on effectiveness, capability, and consistency. Effective hierarchy cultures have developed mature and capable processes which support smooth operations.

Culture has been shown to directly affect organizational performance. When viewed through the lens of accepted behaviors and ingrained values, culture also profoundly affects motivation. Whether one looks at the type of culture—strong, strategically appropriate, or adaptive—as Kotter & Heskett do,<sup>[24]</sup> or at the style of culture—Clan, Adhocracy, Market, or Hierarchy—as Cameron & Quinn do,<sup>[25]</sup> the connection between culture and motivation becomes clear and provides insights into how to hire, task, and motivate employees.

## 46.4 See also

- Public service motivation

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# Chapter 47

## Work Research Institute

The **Work Research Institute** (WRI) (Norwegian: *Arbeidsforskningsinstituttet*, AFI) is a social science research institute based in Oslo, Norway. It was an independent state-owned research institute from 1964 to 2014, when it merged with Oslo and Akershus University College. Its purpose is to “produce systematic knowledge on working life”.

### 47.1 History

The institute was founded in 1964, originally named the **Institute of Work Psychology** (*Arbeidspsykologisk institutt*), as one of several institutes which together made up the *Work Research Institutes*. In 1986, the Institute of Work Psychology became a fully independent institute and renamed the Work Research Institute, and the other institutes shortly after became the National Institute of Occupational Health.<sup>[1]</sup>

The institute was organized as a government agency under the Ministry of Labour and Government Administration until 2002, when it became a wholly owned governmental limited company, since 2005 administered by the Ministry of Education and Research. In 2014, it merged with Oslo and Akershus University College. It is currently part of the Centre for Welfare and Labour Research at Oslo and Akershus University College, together with the sister institute Norwegian Social Research.

The current director of WRI is sociologist Arild H. Steen. In addition, there are three research directors. The board of directors is chaired by Steinar Stjernø. The institute publishes series of reports, occasional papers and monographs.<sup>[2]</sup>

The institute’s history is linked to the action research tradition where partaking in development work is central.

### 47.2 Academics

- Jorun Solheim
- Bjørg Aase Sørensen
- Bjørn Gustavsen

- Olav Eikeland
- Einar Thorsrud
- Øystein Gullvåg Holter
- Margunn Bjørnholt
- I. H. Monrad Aas
- Torild Skard
- Jon Frode Blichfeldt

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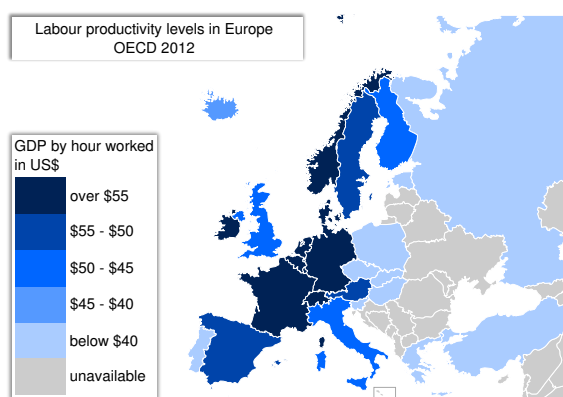
- [1] [http://www.afi-wri.no/modules/module\\_123/proxy.asp?D=2&C=412&I=3108&pId=0&mids=a347a](http://www.afi-wri.no/modules/module_123/proxy.asp?D=2&C=412&I=3108&pId=0&mids=a347a)
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### 47.4 External links

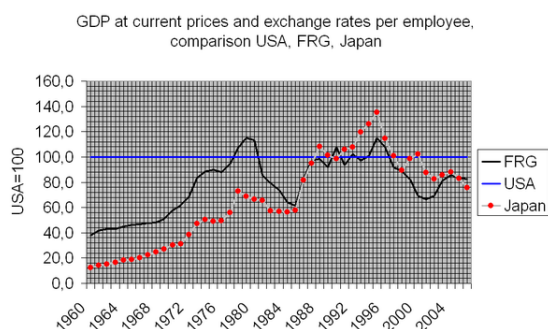
- Official website

## Chapter 48

# Workforce productivity



Labour productivity levels in Europe. OECD, 2012



Labour productivity US, Japan, Germany

**Workforce productivity** is the amount of goods and services that a worker produces in a given amount of time. It is one of several types of productivity that economists measure. Workforce productivity can be measured for a firm, a process, an industry, or a country. It is often referred to as **labor productivity**.

The OECD defines it as “the ratio of a volume measure of output to a volume measure of input”.<sup>[1]</sup> Volume measures of output are normally gross domestic product (GDP) or gross value added (GVA), expressed at constant prices i.e. adjusted for inflation. The three most commonly used measures of input are:

1. hours worked;
2. workforce jobs; and

3. number of people in employment.

### 48.1 Measurement

Workforce productivity can be measured in 2 ways, in physical terms or in price terms.

- the intensity of labour-effort, and the quality of labour effort generally.
- the creative activity involved in producing technical innovations.
- the relative efficiency gains resulting from different systems of management, organization, co-ordination or engineering.
- the productive effects of some forms of labour on other forms of labour.

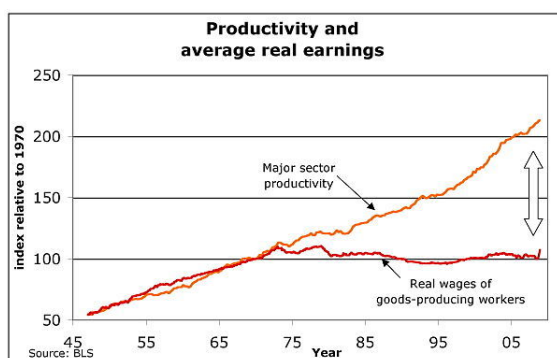
These aspects of productivity refer to the *qualitative* dimensions of labour input. If an organization is using labour much more intensely, one can assume it's due to greater labour productivity, since the output per labour-effort may be the same. This insight becomes particularly important when a large part of what is produced in an economy consists of services. Management may be very preoccupied with the productivity of employees, but the productivity gains of management itself is very difficult to prove. While labor productivity growth has been seen as a useful barometer of the U.S. economy's performance, recent research has examined why U.S. labor productivity rose during the recent downturn of 2008–2009, when U.S. gross domestic product plummeted.<sup>[2]</sup>

The validity of international comparisons of labour productivity can be limited by a number of measurement issues. The comparability of output measures can be negatively affected by the use of different valuations, which define the inclusion of taxes, margins, and costs, or different deflation indexes, which turn current output into constant output.<sup>[3]</sup> Labor input can be biased by different methods used to estimate average hours<sup>[4]</sup> or different methodologies used to estimate employed persons.<sup>[5]</sup> In addition, for level comparisons of labor productivity,



output needs to be converted into a common currency. The preferred conversion factors are **Purchasing Power Parities**, but their accuracy can be negatively influenced by the limited representativeness of the goods and services compared and different aggregation methods.<sup>[6]</sup> To facilitate international comparisons of labor productivity, a number of organizations, such as the **OECD**, the **Groningen Growth Centre**, **International Labor Comparisons Program**, and **The Conference Board**, prepare productivity data adjusted specifically to enhance the data's international comparability.

## 48.2 3 things that can affect the quality of labour



U.S. productivity and average real earnings, 1947–2008

In a survey of manufacturing growth and performance in Britain and Mauritius, it was found that:

“The factors affecting labour productivity or the performance of individual work roles are of broadly the same type as those that affect the performance of manufacturing firms as a whole. They include: (1) physical-organic, location, and technological factors; (2) cultural belief-value and individual attitudinal, motivational and behavioural factors; (3) international influences – e.g. levels of innovativeness and efficiency on the part of the owners and managers of inward investing foreign companies; (4) managerial-organizational and wider economic and political-legal environments; (5) levels of flexibility in internal labour markets and the organization of work activities – e.g. the presence or absence of traditional craft demarcation lines and barriers to occupational entry; and (6) individual rewards and payment systems, and the effectiveness of personnel managers and others in recruiting, training, communicating with, and performance-motivating employees on the basis of pay and other incentives.

The 6th factor of motivating performance can further be explored under **Psychological Aspects of Work Productivity**.

The emergence of computers has been noted as a significant factor in increasing labor productivity in the late 1990s, by some, and as an insignificant factor by others, such as R.J. Gordon. Although computers have existed for most of the 20th century, some economic researchers have noted a lag in productivity growth caused by computers that didn't come until the late 1990s.<sup>[7]</sup>

## 48.3 Psychological factors of feedback on performance

Feedback in the workplace can be received in two different types of ways. Positive feedback is when an employee is praised and told what he or she is doing right and negative feedback is when an employee is corrected and told what he or she is doing wrong.<sup>[8]</sup> Positive and negative feedback in terms of work productivity are very important in the field of **Industrial-organizational psychology**. Feedback in the workplace can be both formal and informal.

### 48.3.1 Positive feedback

Positive feedback has the most impact on creating higher quality work and more work productivity overall. Positive feedback will also lead to a higher **Job satisfaction** level. When receiving positive feedback an employee may be told that his or her work is being done correctly and that he or she should keep up the good work. Positive feedback is used to reinforce good behavior and encourage the worker to keep working hard and creating high quality work.

[9]

### 48.3.2 Negative feedback

Negative feedback has the ability to slow work production and create less quality work.<sup>[10]</sup> However, when negative feedback is given in terms of corrective criticism then high quality work can be produced because it allows for errors to be known and made available to correct. This type of feedback is called **Corrective feedback**.

### 48.3.3 General Feedback

Both formal and informal feedback is used in the workplace. When formal feedback is given in the workplace it is usually called a **Performance appraisal**. This type of

feedback can be very useful when informing an employee what they do well and what they need to improve on. <sup>[11]</sup> Informal feedback does not have specific name but may be demonstrated in terms of a pat on the back or suggestion that comes from another employee or supervisor.

## 48.4 See also

- Overall Labor Effectiveness

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- Lebergott, Stanley (2002). "Wages and Working Conditions". In David R. Henderson (ed.). *Concise Encyclopedia of Economics* (1st ed.). Library of Economics and Liberty. OCLC 317650570, 50016270 and 163149563
- Figures for the US from BLS
- Works management
- Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology
- Performance feedback: its effectiveness in the management of job performance
- Providing Formal Feedback on Job Performance

# Chapter 49

## Workload

The term **workload** can refer to a number of different yet related entities.

### 49.1 An amount of labor

Workload is the amount of work an individual has to do.<sup>[1]</sup> There is a distinction between the actual amount of work and the individual's perception of the workload.<sup>[1]</sup> Workload can also be classified as quantitative (the amount of work to be done) or qualitative (the difficulty of the work).<sup>[1]</sup>

The assessment of operator workload has a vital impact on the **design** of new human-machine systems. By evaluating operator workload during the design of a new system, or **iteration** of an existing system, problems such as workload **bottlenecks** and **overload** can be identified. As the human operator is a central part of a human-machine system, the correction of these problems is necessary for the operation of safe and efficient systems.

An **operating budget** may include estimates of the expected workload for a specific activity. Work loads can vary in many different situations, but the average workload is average.

### 49.2 Quantified effort

Workload can also refer to the total energy output of a system, particularly of a person or animal performing a strenuous task over time. One particular application of this is **weight lifting/weights training**, where both anecdotal evidence and scientific research has shown that it is the total "workload" that is important to muscle growth, as opposed to just the load, just the volume, or "time under tension". In these and related uses of the word, "workload" can be broken up into "work+load", referring to the work done with a given load. In terms of weights training, the "load" refers to the heaviness of the weight being lifted (20 kg is a greater load than 10 kg), and "work" refers to the volume, or total number of reps and sets done with that weight (20 reps is more work than 10 reps, but 2 sets of 10 reps is the same work as 1 set of 20 reps,

its just that the human body cannot do 20reps of a heavy weight without a rest, so its best to think of 2x10 as being 20 reps, with a rest in the middle).

This theory was also used to determine **horse power** (hp), which was defined as the amount of work a horse could do with a given load over time. The wheel that the horse turned in Watt's original experiment put a certain load on the horse's muscles, and the horse could do a certain amount of work with this load in a minute. Provided the horse was a perfect machine, it would be capable of a constant maximum workload, so increasing the load by a given percentage would result in the possible work done decreasing by the same percentage, so that it would still equal "1 hp". Horses are, obviously, not perfect machines and over short time periods are capable of as much as 14 hp, and over long periods of exertion output an average of less than 1 hp.

The theory can also be applied to **automobiles** or other machines, which are slightly more "perfect" than animals making a car heavier for instance, increases the load that the engine must pull, likewise making it more aerodynamic decreases drag, which acts as a load on the car as well. Torque can be thought of as the ability to move load, and the revs are how much work it can do with that load in a given amount of time. Therefore torque and revs together create kilowatts, or total power output, which can be related to the "workload" of the engine/car, or how much work it can do with a given amount of load. As engines are more mechanically perfect than animals' muscles, and do not fatigue in the same way, they will conform much more closely to the formula that if you apply more load, they will do less work, and vice versa.

### 49.3 Occupational stress

Main article: [Occupational stress](#)

In an occupational setting, dealing with workload can be stressful and serve as a **stressor** for employees. There are three aspects of workload that can be stressful.

Quantitative workload or overload: Having more work to do than can be accomplished

comfortably.

Qualitative workload: Having work that is too difficult.

Underload: Having work that fails to use a worker's skills and abilities.<sup>[2]</sup>

Workload has been linked to a number of strains, including anxiety, physiological reactions such as cortisol, fatigue,<sup>[3]</sup> backache, headache, and gastrointestinal problems.<sup>[4]</sup>

Workload as a work demand is a major component of the demand-control model of stress.<sup>[5]</sup> This model suggests that jobs with high demands can be stressful, especially when the individual has low control over the job. In other words control serves as a buffer or protective factor when demands or workload is high. This model was expanded into the demand-control-support model that suggests that the combination of high control and high social support at work buffers the effects of high demands.<sup>[6]</sup>

As a work demand, workload is also relevant to the job demands-resources model of stress that suggests that jobs are stressful when demands (e.g., workload) exceed the individual's resources to deal with them.<sup>[7]</sup>

## 49.4 Theory and modelling

Another aspect to workload is the mathematical predictive models used in human factors analysis; generally to support the design and assessment of safety-critical systems.

There is no one agreed definition of workload and consequently not one agreed method of assessing or modelling it. One example definition by Hart and Staveland (1988) describes workload as "the perceived relationship between the amount of mental processing capability or resources and the amount required by the task". Workload modelling is the analytical technique used to measure and predict workload. The main objective of assessing and predicting workload is to achieve evenly distributed, manageable workload and to avoid overload or underload.

### 49.4.1 Theories

Wickens' (1984) multiple resource theory (MRT) model<sup>[8]</sup> is illustrated in figure 1:

Wickens' MRT proposes that the human operator does not have one single information processing source that can be tapped, but several different pools of resources that can be tapped simultaneously. Each box in figure 1 indicates one cognitive resource. Depending on the nature of the task, these resources may have to process information sequentially if the different tasks require the

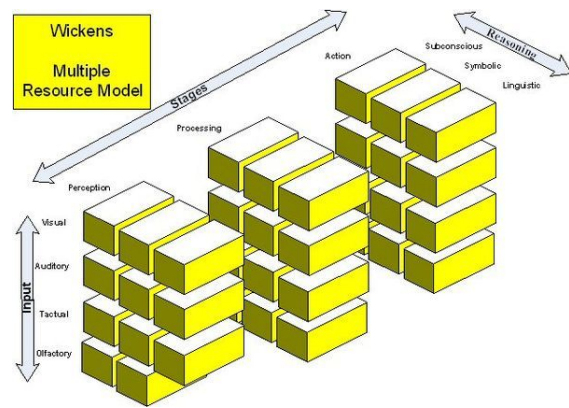


Figure 1: Wickens' Multiple Resource Theory (MRT) Model

same pool of resources, or can be processed in parallel if the task requires different resources.

Wickens' theory views performance decrement as a shortage of these different resources and describes humans as having limited capability for processing information. Cognitive resources are limited and a supply and demand problem occurs when the individual performs two or more tasks that require a single resource (as indicated by one box on the diagram). Excess workload caused by a task using the same resource can cause problems and result in errors or slower task performance. For example, if the task is to dial the phone then no excess demands are being placed on any one component. However, if another task is being performed at the same time that makes demands on the same component(s), the result may be excess workload.

The relationship between workload and performance is complex. It is not always the case that as workload increases performance decreases. Performance can be affected by workload being too high or too low (Nachreiner, 1995). Sustained low workload (underload) can lead to boredom, loss of situation awareness and reduced alertness. Also as workload increases performance may not decrease as the operator may have a strategy for handling task demands.

Wickens' theory allows system designers to predict when:

- Tasks can be performed concurrently.
- Tasks will interfere with each other.
- Increases in the difficulty of one task will result in a loss of performance of another task.

McCracken and Aldrich (1984), like Wickens, describe processing not as one central resource but several processing resources: visual, cognitive, auditory, and psychomotor (VCAP). All tasks can be decomposed into these components.

- The visual and auditory components are external stimuli that are attended to.

- The cognitive component describes the level of information processing required.
- The psychomotor component describes the physical actions required.

They developed rating scales for each of the VCAP components, which provide a relative rating of the degree to which each resource component is used.

Joseph Hopkins (unpublished) developed a training methodology, where the background to his training theory is that complex skills are, in essence, resource conflicts where training has removed or reduced the conflicting workload demands, either by higher level processing or by predictive time sequencing. His work is in effect based on Gallwey (1974) and Morehouse (1977). The theory postulates that the training allows the different task functions to be integrated into one new skill. An example of this is learning to drive a car. Changing gear and steering are two conflicting tasks (i.e. both require the same resources) before they are integrated into the new skill of “driving”. An experienced driver will not need to think about what to do when turning a corner (higher level processing) or alternatively may change gear earlier than required to give sufficient resources for steering round the corner (predictive time sequencing).

#### 49.4.2 Creating a model

With any attempt at creating a workload model the process begins with understanding the tasks to be modelled. This is done by creating a task analysis that defines:

- The sequence of tasks performed by individuals and team members.
- The timing and workload information associated with each task.
- Background scenario information.

Each task must be defined to a sufficient level to allow realistic physical and mental workload values to be estimated and to determine which resources (or combination of resources) are required for each task – visual, auditory, cognitive and psychomotor. A numerical value can be assigned to each based on the scales developed by McCracken and Aldrich.

These numerical values against each type of resource are then entered into the workload model. The model sums the workload ratings within each resource and across concurrent tasks. The critical points within the task are therefore identified. When proposals are made for introducing new devices onto the current baseline activities the impact of this can then be compared to the baseline. Possibly one of the most advanced workload models was developed by K Tara Smith (2007): this model integrated the

theories of Wickens, McCracken and Aldrich and Hopkins to produce a model that not only predicts workload for an individual task but also indicates how that workload may change given the experience and training level of the individuals carrying out that task. Workload assessment techniques are typically used to answer the following types of questions: Eisen, P.S and Hendy, K.C. (1987):

- Does the operator have capability to perform the required tasks?
- Does the operator have enough spare capacity to take on additional tasks?
- Does the operator have enough spare capacity to cope with emergency situations?
- Can the task or equipment be altered to increase the amount of spare capacity?
- Can the task or equipment be altered to increase/decrease the amount of mental workload?
- How does the workload of a new system compare to the old system?

#### 49.4.3 Cognitive workload in time critical decision-making processes

It is well accepted that there is a relationship between the media by which information is transferred and presented to a **decision maker** and their cognitive workload. During times of concentrated activity, single-mode information exchange is a limiting factor. Therefore the balance between the different information channels (most commonly considered to be visual processing and auditory, but could also include haptic, etc.) has a direct effect on cognitive workload (Wickens 1984). In a time-critical decision situation, this workload can lead to **human error** or delayed decisions to accommodate the processing of the relevant information. (Smith, K.T. & Mistry, B. 2009).<sup>[9]</sup> Work conducted by K Tara Smith has defined some terms relating to the workload in this area. The two main concepts relating to workload are:

- **workload debt** - which is when an individual’s cognitive workload is too high to complete all relevant tasks in the time available and they decide (either consciously or subconsciously) to postpone one or more tasks (usually low priority tasks) to enable them to make the decision in the required time-frame.
- **workload debt cascade** - which is when, because of the high workload, the postponed tasks mount up so that the individual cannot catch up with the tasks that they are required to do, causing failure in subsequent activities.

## 49.5 See also

- Cognitive load
- Manpower
- Situation Awareness

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- **Individual psychological assessment** *Source:* <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Individual%20psychological%20assessment?oldid=621707602> *Contributors:* Andrewman327, Bearcat, Rjwilmsi, Malcolm, CmdrObot, Penbat, Magioladitis, R'n'B, Gbawden, JL-Bot, Martarius, Mild Bill Hiccup, TutterMouse, Yobot, AnomieBOT, FrescoBot, BG19bot, Lahodnyc, Zzaffuto118, BattyBot, Tentinator, Xyzbb1253, Aellithy, Ramzanr2r, Trixie05, Monkbob, KierraA., Oplmqq3, Devika Singh and Anonymous: 1
- **Personnel selection** *Source:* <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Personnel%20selection?oldid=609475039> *Contributors:* Damian Yerrick, Bearcat, Amead, Ex ottoyuhr, Neutrality, Cswrye, SpuriousQ, Fabricationary, Deckiller, SmackBot, Nzd, RHB, Amirbaraka, Careerjoy, Frank1470, R'n'B, Aaronbern, STBotD, Ravanacker, Tmol42, Eustress, Addbot, Gbradt, MrOllie, Yobot, AnomieBOT, Winterst, RjwilmsiBot, John of Reading, Josve05a, Procrastinus, Babank, BG19bot, Danyeol, Th314nt3rn716, Yoyobyeybye44, Sae Harshberger, Xyzbb1253, Star767, Juhuyuta, Piratedave96 and Anonymous: 26
- **Job analysis** *Source:* <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Job%20analysis?oldid=615341361> *Contributors:* Ahoerstemeier, Kaihsu, Amead, Evelyking, Michael Devore, Dvasasour, Shanes, RoyBoy, Alansohn, Micah gideon, Arthana, Bsadowski1, Redvers, Bobrayner, Mandarax, FlaBot, Bgwhite, Gwernol, Cswrye, Grafen, Malcolm, Katieh5584, SmackBot, DCDuring, Gilliam, Nzd, JoeBot, Dgw, Argon233, Penbat, Mortus Est, Shirt58, Avicennasis, Allstarecho, Flaming Ferrari, Leyo, Mrborat, E. James Brennan, ABF, Wcrosbie, MenasimBot, Revent, Flyer22, The Evil Spartan, Jojalozzo, Karl2620, Martarius, Rhododendrites, FantajiFan, Eustress, Pichpich, Addbot, Yoenit, Ben Ben, Yobot, Senator Palpatine, AnomieBOT, Tasma3197, DisturbedNerd999, Materialscientist, Ekuo87, Xqbot, TheInsideTrack, FrescoBot, Skkuumar, Pinethicket, Callanec, Suffusion of Yellow, John of Reading, TuHan-Bot, Neilthebest08, ClueBot NG, Gareth Griffith-Jones, BG19bot, Frze, Mark8Mark, Kd614, Mnshumate, Discojon89, ChrisGualtieri, EagerToddler39, Asolaks, Mrm7171, Psyc12, Piratedave96, Devika Singh, Plaaesun and Anonymous: 111
- **Employment** *Source:* <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Employment?oldid=632398542> *Contributors:* Bryan Derksen, Ap, SimonP, Daniel C. 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Milch, Yobot, TaBOT-zerem, Heisenbergthechemist, THEN WHO WAS PHONE?, AnakngAraw, MassimoAr, Alquma25, AnomieBOT, PonileExpress, Preetvipul, RanEagle, Samipml, Jim1138, 90, Kingpin13, Hibael, Materialscientist, LilHelpa, Spikeysparrow, Capricorn42, Dazatbarnsley, Kutenanda, Future-Time-Past, Omnipaedista, Wikieditor1988, Shasho1, Jerry4rd, Ardg08, Vantine84, SD5, FrescoBot, Allstar18, Crash12190, Ladwiki, PigFlu Oink, Biker Biker, Pinethicket, Spider2009, Nigtv, Kelseypedia, FoxBot, ConcernedVancouverite, Lotje, RoadTrain, Vrenator, LilyKitty, Reaper Eternal, Nickgreenwiki, Jubair1985, DARTH SIDIOUS 2, IssuesRUs, RjwilmsiBot, DexDor, Logwea299, Bazyboy22, Idea101, EmausBot, Immunize, Collumella, GoingBatty, RA0808, Yukiseaside, Segguilherme, Onced boath, NGPriest, Ocaasi, Tolly4bolly, L Kensington, Benvevikilerim, Danner60, Emperyan, Financesstudent, Hazard-Bot, Careerhelp, Hallel, Sophbish, Sven Manguard, 28bot, Kyle ismail, ClueBot NG, Sandipchanda, ClaretAsh, Gareth Griffith-Jones, Somedifferentstuff, Jr1301997, CocuBot, Chester Markel, Snotbot, Mesoderm, Abortman, Exurbis67, Tommike125, Helpful Pixie Bot, Ioparty, Legaldocuments, BG19bot, Grayfoxevery, Minsar, MusikAnimal, Writingwitwords, Poephoofd, Roff+Copter=RoffCopter, Victorex2, Oleg-ch, Piero Testa, Anbu121, Googol30, Msrscrilla, Perterson1542, Rukroea4, Sahgal, Clinkkz1129,

Lugia2453, Tommy Pinball, SassyLilNugget, Tanaphar, Abluher, Melonkelon, JamesMoose, Tentinator, LGTan, WyeatesODI, Tkangsayua, No1inparticularhere, Stilgar27, Waqar337, Sam Sailor, Soranoch, Sativen Kuni, Andy Xucha, Juhuyuta, Sharif uddin, G n dic, Monkbot, Oplmnnq3, Eramit1, Nazia08, Etherington1993 and Anonymous: 578

- **Job design** *Source:* <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Job%20design?oldid=617361245> *Contributors:* Edward, Thseamon, Skagedal, Kaszeta, Mdd, Sardanaphalus, Will Beback, Vanisaac, Penbat, Kozuch, EdJohnston, Enviroboy, Eustress, Yobot, Omnipaedista, FrescoBot, ClueBot NG, Xxjjjxx, Lroets, M.Caban, Xyzbb1253, Mrm7171, Psyc12, Monkbot and Anonymous: 17
- **Job performance** *Source:* <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Job%20performance?oldid=623985505> *Contributors:* Edward, Amead, Ukexpat, Woohookitty, Tabletop, Rjwilmsi, Bhny, CWenger, Mais oui!, Penbat, Missvain, R'n'B, Adavidb, Iulus Ascanius, Bonadea, Martarius, Excirial, Eustress, Alex Rio Brazil, Yobot, AnomieBOT, PerfEffect, Aaron Kauppi, FrescoBot, John of Reading, Bamyers99, Volleystar323, Babank, BG19bot, Firoz Meethal, Gmukskr, MasonNation, IjonTichyIjonTichy, Star767, Mrm7171, Behug, Monkbot and Anonymous: 17
- **Job satisfaction** *Source:* <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Job%20satisfaction?oldid=628754904> *Contributors:* Ronz, Angela, InanimateCarbonRod, Kainaw, SWAdair, HistoryBA, Xezbeth, Bender235, Bobo192, Espoo, Gary, KristianATJ22, Bobrayner, Firsfron, Patman, BD2412, Rjwilmsi, Koavf, Stardust8212, Windchaser, Wavelength, Borgx, Sceptre, RussBot, Hede2000, Gaius Cornelius, TheMandarin, Welsh, Avalon, Thanlis, A bit iffy, SmackBot, Timeshifter, Bluebot, Deli nk, Uthbrian, Sct72, Sheaver, Ck lostsword, Waggars, Hu12, Rnb, AbsolutDan, CmdrObot, Dtalbert, Requestion, WeggeBot, Penbat, Jaycangel, Torc2, Alaibot, Thisisramji, ChrisTW, Skittled, Frank, X96lee15, Kennard2, Magioladitis, Bongwarrior, VoABot II, Sarahj2107, Steven Walling, JPG-GR, GhostofSuperslum, S3000, NBRII, Anaxial, Yonidebot, Yanks-rule, Gregory S. Waddell, Jarry1250, Useight, Gerber83, TanyaMorose, VolkovBot, Vipinhari, Broadbot, Pjoef, Legoktm, Chimin 07, WereSpielChequers, Faradayplank, Ncsu tom, Fratrep, Wikiwayman, Smashville, ClueBot, DragonBot, Mactuary, Alexbot, Eustress, Autodesigner, Addbot, DOI bot, Jncraton, Favonian, West.andrew.g, Legobot, Yobot, Backslash Forward-slash, MaterialsScientist, Ilija139, Quebec99, Xqbot, Capricorn42, Omnipaedista, Touchatou, Mguido6, Afromayun, Spindocter123, Citation bot 1, Pinethicket, Psdbn0130, NarSakSasLee, Orenburg1, NameIsRon, EmausBot, John of Reading, WikitanvirBot, Wikipelli, Mbarocks, Z roBot, Jumbo1234567, Akerans, Portrino, Erianna, Orange Suede Sofa, 28bot, ClueBot NG, ClaretAsh, Jack Greenmaven, Volleystar323, HMSSolent, MusikAnimal, Frze, Eusenius, Lxtech, Gmukskr, Meclee, Tbalbertson, Valric, Aestu0333, Cahyd, Ajsgom1, Gom2, Ydong2, Ant N York, MsPsychology, DJames5, Aaleksanian, Mrm7171, Psyc12, Jdemke10, Piratedave96, JCTWiki2013, Behug, Mkburton and Anonymous: 177
- **Leadership** *Source:* <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Leadership?oldid=634108407> *Contributors:* Eloquence, The Anome, Ap, Ed Poor, Amillar, Deb, SimonP, Hephaestos, Patrick, Michael Hardy, Nixdorf, Kku, Ellywa, Ahoerstemeier, Ronz, Jebba, Kingturtle, BigFatBuddha, Darkwind, Glenn, RI, Ruhrjung, Thseamon, Mydogategodshat, Rednblu, Zoicon5, DJ Clayworth, Pedant17, Freechild, Robbot, Sander123, Chrism, Sam Spade, Jfire, Sekicho, Bbx, GreatWhiteNortherner, Alan Liefing, Curps, Jfdwolff, Edcolins, Nuzu, Greyfedora, Utcursch, Andycjp, CryptoDerk, Slowking Man, Subsailor, Beland, J3ff, DragonflySixtyseven, One Salient Oversight, Sam Hocevar, FashionNugget, Tslack2000, Gary D, Ukexpat, Trevor MacInnis, SimonEast, Freakofnuture, CALR, Discospinster, Rich Farnbrough, Rhobite, Vsmith, Notinasnoid, Pavel Vozenilek, ESKog, Brian0918, Zscout370, El C, Lycurgus, Ados, Aude, Shanes, Sietse Snel, RoyBoy, Causa sui, Alxndr, Bobo192, Smalljim, Enric Naval, Cmdrjameson, Dtremenak, Lungodung, NickSchweitzer, Pharos, Pearle, Stephen Bain, Mdd, Alansohn, Foant, Qwe, Arthena, Riana, Wdfarmer, Cjnm, Snowwolf, Hyperlink, Wtmitchell, Velella, Helixblue, Yuckfoo, Scieurinae, Versageek, Alai, Blaxthos, HenryLi, Starblind, Woohookitty, Nebcorp, Camw, WadeSimMiser, Jeff3000, MONGO, Striver, RicJac, Zzyzx11, Mandarax, Obersachse, Jwoodger, Raguks, Deltabaignet, BD2412, Quantum bird, Ketiltrout, Sj , Rjwilmsi, Linuxbeak, Chsf, Dmccreary, Hermione1980, Nicolas1981, Manesh, Yamamoto Ichiro, Winhunter, RexNL, Gurch, Mordicai, DVdm, Random user 39849958, Bg-white, YurikBot, Borgx, Whoisjohngalt, JlitteL, RussBot, Grbefumo, DanMS, Miltonpat, Acpemc, Stephenb, Gaius Cornelius, Speermeister, Rsrikanth05, Wimt, Anomalocaris, NawlinWiki, Gordie, Grafen, Welsh, Aaron Brenneman, Randolph Richardson, Brandon, Larry laptop, Farmanesh, RUL3R, Emersoni, ThirteenthGreg, Wknight94, Boogachamp, Zzuuzz, Open2universe, Closedmouth, Pb30, Reyk, GraemeL, Tiffanicita, CWenger, Croat Canuck, MagneticFlux, Bob Hu, Allens, GrinBot, DVD R W, CIREland, Luk, SaveTheWhales, C mon, Bruce78, SmackBot, Gdolan, Samuel Summer, Thaagenson, Kth, CyclePat, Jtneill, Scott Paeth, Psjalltheway, Commander Keane bot, Gilliam, Ohnoitsjamie, Skizzik, Chris the speller, Bluebot, Jprg1966, Tree Biting Conspiracy, RayAYang, Akanemoto, Hongooi, Oatmeal batman, A. 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- **Michigan Studies of Leadership** *Source:* <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Michigan%20Studies%20of%20Leadership?oldid=609711789> *Contributors:* Whispering and Ufk itk
- **Multiteam system** *Source:* <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Multiteam%20system?oldid=601839857> *Contributors:* Giraffedata, JorisvS, Magioladitis, Katharineamy, Molly-in-md, Wilhelmina Will, Yobot, FrescoBot, RjwilmsiBot, AvicAWB, Rcsprinter123, Mtel2010, Stmullin, Dorothyrc, Piratedave96 and Anonymous: 1
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- **Occupational stress** *Source:* <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Occupational%20stress?oldid=632427963> *Contributors:* DanielCD, Bender235, Woohookitty, DL5MDA, Rjwilmsi, Bgwhite, Wavelength, Malcolm, Kkmurray, SmackBot, JHunterJ, CmdrObot, Penbat, Iss246, Barek, Nyttend, DGG, Anaxial, M-le-mot-dit, Squids and Chips, Funandtrvl, Bearian, Lova Falk, JL-Bot, Niceguyedc, Addbot, Yobot, AnomieBOT, Rubinbot, Omnipaedista, Yumolives, Erik9bot, Bigweebob, Biker Biker, Pinethicket, MrX, RjwilmsiBot, EmausBot, Philafrenzy, Donner60, Wipenade, Mikeburek, Kimberly wymer, KD888, BG19bot, Mogism, Mxheil, Zayem Khan, Leejas21, Yuanmabel, DocElisa, S8226369, Lidaijin, Aaleksanian, DL Yang, Pinemelon, Ashleyleia, Slimfaiz, Nataliexhochoy, Alikhaider, Freshrice424, Mrm7171, Psc12, Piratedave96, Behug, Sam.Leach, Alensmitz, Monkbot, Oplmnq3, KateSteele, Spss3000 and Anonymous: 18
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