



LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- 1 Describe the three key elements of motivation.
- 2 Identify early theories of motivation and evaluate their applicability today.
- 3 Apply the predictions of self-determination theory to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.
- 4 Understand the implications of employee engagement for management.
- 5 Compare and contrast goal-setting theory and management by objectives.
- 6 Contrast reinforcement theory and goal-setting theory.
- 7 Demonstrate how organizational justice is a refinement of equity theory.
- 8 Apply the key tenets of expectancy theory to motivating employees.
- 9 Compare contemporary theories of motivation.

MyManagementLab

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THE MOTIVATIONS OF THE 99ERS

While the economy shows signs of improving, the sluggish nature of the recovery has left behind more long-term unemployed than anyone has seen since the Great Depression.

Typically, unemployment insurance lasts 6 months. As the great recession continued, Congress extended these benefits—up to 99 weeks for those in 27 states hit hardest by the recession.

The 99ers are those who have been unemployed more than 99 weeks. They number about 2 million, and millions more are underemployed or have withdrawn from the labor market altogether. Among the hardest hit are older workers who struggle to convince employers to hire them.

St. Louis resident Peter Gordon, 53, has been unemployed more than a year. Once he becomes a 99er, his unemployment check will run out. “I will be OK for another 20 weeks,” Gordon said. “But I’m going crazy.” Akron’s Susan Harrell has been jobless more than 2 years and has exhausted her unemployment benefits. Laid off from her \$60,000/year telecommunications job, she finds employers unwilling to hire her because she is unemployed, 58, or both. “They look at me and say, ‘How long are you really going to work?’”

Should the government help those in need by extending unemployment benefits further? The question is complicated and divides Republicans and Democrats. But put aside ideology for a moment, and consider the motivational dynamics at play. Many have lost their jobs through no fault of their own. Not only are unemployment benefits compassionate, they provide an opportunity for people to retrain for a new occupation. Benefits thus motivate them to move into more viable occupations.

On the other hand, many economists argue that extending benefits provides disincentives for finding employment. One concludes, “Unemployment insurance is not free: It results in less employment and less output, not more.” Paying people not to work gives them incentives not to work, this argument goes.

Our nation will probably never agree on the motivational effects of unemployment insurance. However, with or without insurance, there is troubling evidence that some individuals like Peter Gordon and Susan Harrell will remain out of work for a very long time. “This is horrible,” says Harrell. “It’s embarrassing and humiliating.”

Sources: W. M. Welch, “Long-Term Unemployed See Benefits Rolled Back,” *USA Today* (May 17, 2011), p. A1; D. Hunsinger, Long-Term Unemployed Face Stigmas in Job Search,” *USA Today* (January 23, 2011), downloaded May 2, 2011, from www.usatoday.com/money/; M. Thornton, “99ers and the Long-term Unemployed Are the Elephants in the Economic Recovery Room,” *Huffington Post* (May 15, 2011), downloaded May 25, 2011, from www.huffingtonpost.com/; C. B. Mulligan, “Do Jobless Benefits Discourage People From Finding Jobs?” *New York Times* (March 17, 2010), downloaded May 2, 2011, from <http://economix.blogs.nytimes.com/>.

Motivation Concepts

7

*Luke: "I don't believe it."
Yoda: "That is why you fail."
—The Empire Strikes Back*



Photo: Anne Strauss speaks at a protest and rally by '99ers. Source: b09/ZUMA Press/Newscom

Debates about motivation can occupy a central role in important public policy debates, and as we will see, they also rank among the most important questions managers need to answer.

However, motivation is not simply about working hard—it also reflects your view of your own abilities. Try a self-assessment of your confidence in your ability to succeed.

Motivation is one of the most frequently researched topics in OB.¹ A recent Gallup poll revealed one reason—a majority of U.S. employees (54 percent) are not actively engaged in their work, and another portion (17 percent) are actively disengaged.² In another study, workers reported wasting roughly 2 hours per day, not counting lunch and scheduled breaks (usually Internet surfing and talking with co-workers).³ Clearly, motivation is an issue. The good news is that all this research provides useful insights into how to improve it.

In this chapter, we'll review the basics of motivation, assess motivation theories, and provide an integrative model that fits the best of these theories together.



How Confident Am I in My Abilities to Succeed?

In the Self-Assessment Library (available on CD or online), take assessment IV.A.3 (How Confident Am I in My Abilities to Succeed?) and answer the following questions.

1. How did you score relative to other class members? Does that surprise you?
2. Do you think self-confidence is critical to success? Can a person be too confident?

Defining Motivation

- 1 Describe the three key elements of motivation.

Some individuals seem driven to succeed. But the same student who struggles to read a textbook for more than 20 minutes may devour a *Harry Potter* book in a day. The difference is the situation. So as we analyze the concept of motivation, keep in mind that the level of motivation varies both between individuals and within individuals at different times.

We define **motivation** as the processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal.⁴ While general motivation is concerned with effort toward *any* goal, we'll narrow the focus to **organizational goals** in order to reflect our singular interest in work-related behavior.

The **three key elements** in our definition are intensity, direction, and persistence. **Intensity** describes how hard a person tries. This is the element most of us focus on when we talk about motivation. However, high intensity is unlikely to lead to favorable job-performance outcomes unless the effort is channeled in a **direction** that benefits the organization. Therefore, we consider the quality of effort as well as its intensity. **Effort directed toward, and consistent with, the organization's goals** is the kind of effort we should be seeking. Finally, motivation has a **persistence** dimension. This measures how long a person can maintain effort. Motivated individuals stay with a task long enough to achieve their goal.

Early Theories of Motivation

- 2 Identify early theories of motivation and evaluate their applicability today.

Four theories of employee motivation formulated during the 1950s, although now of questionable validity, are probably still the best known. We discuss more valid explanations later, but these four represent a foundation on which they have grown, and practicing managers still use them and their terminology.

Hierarchy of Needs Theory

The best-known theory of motivation is Abraham Maslow's **hierarchy of needs**.⁵ Maslow hypothesized that within every human being, there exists a hierarchy of five needs:

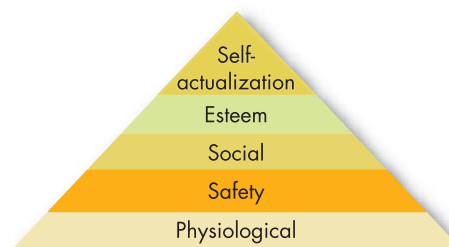
1. **Physiological.** Includes hunger, thirst, shelter, sex, and other bodily needs.
2. **Safety.** Security and protection from physical and emotional harm.
3. **Social.** Affection, belongingness, acceptance, and friendship.
4. **Esteem.** Internal factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement, and external factors such as status, recognition, and attention.
5. **Self-actualization.** Drive to become what we are capable of becoming; includes growth, achieving our potential, and self-fulfillment.

Although no need is ever fully gratified, a substantially satisfied need no longer motivates. Thus as each becomes substantially satisfied, the next one becomes dominant. So if you want to motivate someone, according to Maslow, you need to understand what level of the hierarchy that person is currently on and focus on satisfying needs at or above that level, moving up the steps in Exhibit 7-1.

Maslow separated the five needs into higher and lower orders. Physiological and safety needs, where the theory says people start, were **lower-order needs**,

Exhibit 7-1

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Source: A. H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality*, 3rd ed., R. D. Frager and J. Fadiman (eds.). © 1997. Adapted by permission of Pearson Education, Inc., Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.

motivation The processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal.

hierarchy of needs Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of five needs—physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization—in which, as each need is substantially satisfied, the next need becomes dominant.

lower-order needs Needs that are satisfied externally, such as physiological and safety needs.

“The Support of Others Improves Our Chances of Accomplishing Our Goals”

Surprisingly, this statement appears to be false.

There is some research on how team goals facilitate team performance. However, until recently, we knew very little about whether others help or hinder our individual chances of meeting a goal.

Generally, whether it's reaching a weight loss goal, successfully completing an undergraduate course, or completing a work task, help and support from others actually appears to hinder our chances and make us feel worse rather than better.

Why? First, research has found that help is often, well, unhelpful. Advice

and direction from others is seldom well suited for accomplishing our goal. If you're trying to meet a work deadline using your approach, it's not often useful for a co-worker to advise you to use his or her method instead. Second, such advice and assistance generally makes us feel less confident and positive about achieving the goal. The more help is offered, the more negative feelings and stress we have about the goal.

The upshot? Generally, you'll do a better job of meeting your individual work goals if you “just do it” by yourself. Of course, sometimes you do

need the help of others. But keep that help focused on specific questions and not on advice for attaining the general goal.

Sources: H. B. Kappes and P. E. Shrout, “When Goal Sharing Produces Support That Is Not Caring,” *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 37, no. 5 (2011), pp. 662–673; P. E. Shrout, N. Bolger, M. Iida, C. Burke, M. E. Gleason, and S. P. Lane, “The Effects of Daily Support Transactions During Acute Stress: Results from a Diary Study of Bar Exam Preparation,” in K. Sullivan and J. Davila (Eds.), *Support Processes in Intimate Relationships* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2010), pp. 175–199.

and social, esteem, and **self-actualization** were **higher-order needs**. Higher-order needs are satisfied internally (within the person), whereas lower-order needs are predominantly satisfied externally (by things such as pay, union contracts, and tenure).

The hierarchy, if it applies at all, aligns with U.S. culture. In Japan, Greece, and Mexico, where uncertainty-avoidance characteristics are strong, security needs would be on top of the hierarchy. Countries that score high on nurturing characteristics—Denmark, Sweden, Norway, the Netherlands, and Finland—would have social needs on top.⁶ Group work will motivate employees more when the country's culture scores high on the nurturing criterion.

Maslow's theory has received wide recognition, particularly among practicing managers. It is intuitively logical and easy to understand. When introduced, it provided a compelling alternative to behaviorist theories that posited only physiological and safety needs as important. Unfortunately, however, research does not validate it. **Maslow provided no empirical substantiation, and several studies that sought to validate it found no support for it.**⁷ There is little evidence that need structures are organized as Maslow proposed, that unsatisfied needs motivate, or that a satisfied need activates movement to a new need level.⁸ But old theories, especially intuitively logical ones, apparently die hard.

Some researchers have attempted to revive components of the need hierarchy concept, using principles from evolutionary psychology.⁹ They propose that lower-level needs are the chief concern of immature animals or those with primitive nervous systems, whereas higher needs are more frequently observed in mature animals with more developed nervous systems. They also note distinct underlying biological systems for different types of needs. Time will tell whether these revisions to Maslow's hierarchy will be useful to practicing managers.

Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor proposed two distinct views of human beings: one basically negative, labeled Theory X, and the other basically positive, labeled Theory Y.¹⁰ After studying managers' dealings with employees, McGregor concluded that their views of the nature of human beings are based on certain assumptions that mold their behavior.

Under **Theory X**, managers believe employees inherently dislike work and must therefore be directed or even coerced into performing it. Under **Theory Y**, in contrast, managers assume employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play, and therefore the average person can learn to accept, and even seek, responsibility.

To understand more fully, think in terms of Maslow's hierarchy. Theory Y assumes higher-order needs dominate individuals. McGregor himself believed Theory Y assumptions were more valid than Theory X. Therefore, he proposed such ideas as participative decision making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations to maximize an employee's job motivation.

Unfortunately, no evidence confirms that *either* set of assumptions is valid or that acting on Theory Y assumptions will lead to more motivated workers. OB theories need empirical support before we can accept them. Theory X and Theory Y lack such support as much as the hierarchy of needs.

Two-Factor Theory

Believing an individual's relationship to work is basic, and that attitude toward work can determine success or failure, psychologist Frederick Herzberg wondered, "What do people want from their jobs?" He asked people to describe, in detail, situations in which they felt exceptionally *good* or *bad* about their jobs. The responses differed significantly and led Herzberg to his **two-factor theory**—also called *motivation-hygiene theory*.¹¹

As shown in Exhibit 7-2, intrinsic factors such as advancement, recognition, responsibility, and achievement seem related to job satisfaction. Respondents who felt good about their work tended to attribute these factors to themselves, while dissatisfied respondents tended to cite extrinsic factors, such as supervision, pay, company policies, and working conditions.

To Herzberg, the data suggest that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, as was traditionally believed. Removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying. As illustrated in Exhibit 7-3, Herzberg proposed a dual continuum: The opposite of "satisfaction" is "no satisfaction," and the opposite of "dissatisfaction" is "no dissatisfaction."

According to Herzberg, the factors that lead to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. Therefore, managers who seek to eliminate factors that can create job dissatisfaction may bring about peace, but not necessarily motivation. They will be placating rather than motivating their workers. As a result, Herzberg characterized conditions such as quality of supervision, pay, company policies, physical working conditions, relationships with others, and job security as **hygiene factors**. When they're

self-actualization The drive to become what a person is capable of becoming.

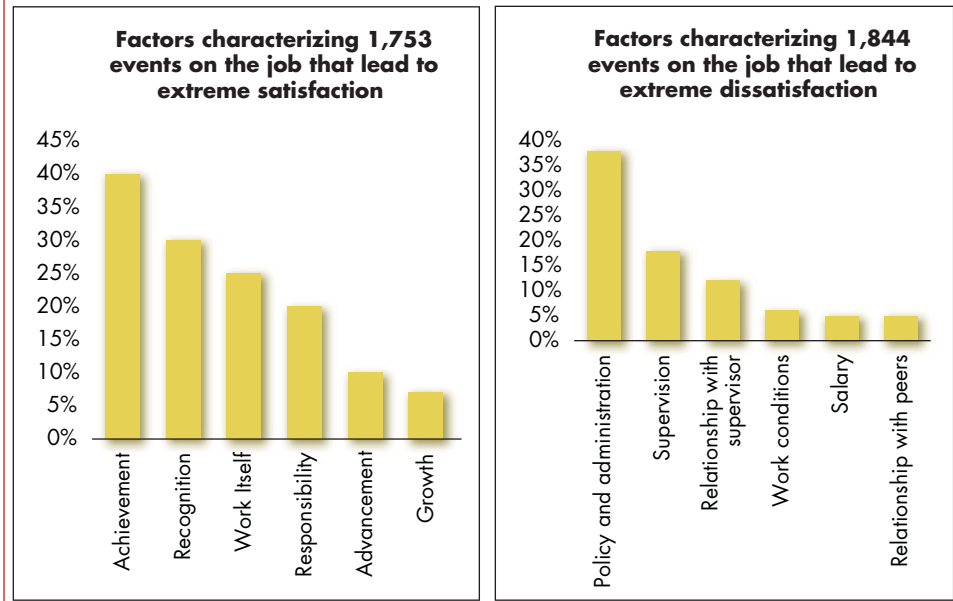
higher-order needs Needs that are satisfied internally, such as social, esteem, and self-actualization needs.

Theory X The assumption that employees dislike work, are lazy, dislike responsibility, and must be coerced to perform.

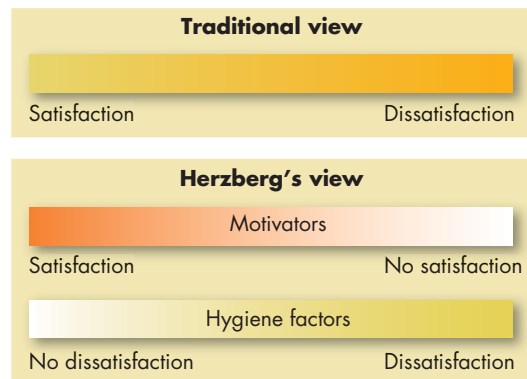
Theory Y The assumption that employees like work, are creative, seek responsibility, and can exercise self-direction.

two-factor theory A theory that relates intrinsic factors to job satisfaction and associates extrinsic factors with dissatisfaction. Also called *motivation-hygiene theory*.

hygiene factors Factors—such as company policy and administration, supervision, and salary—that, when adequate in a job, placate workers. When these factors are adequate, people will not be dissatisfied.

Exhibit 7-2**Comparison of Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers**

Source: Based on Harvard Business Review, "Comparison of Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers." An exhibit from *One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?* by Frederick Herzberg, January 2003. Copyright © 2003 by the Harvard Business School Publishing Corporation. All rights reserved.

Exhibit 7-3**Contrasting View of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction**

adequate, people will not be dissatisfied; neither will they be satisfied. If we want to *motivate* people on their jobs, Herzberg suggested emphasizing factors associated with the work itself or with outcomes directly derived from it, such as promotional opportunities, personal growth opportunities, recognition, responsibility, and achievement. These are the characteristics people find intrinsically rewarding.

The two-factor theory has not been well supported in the literature, and it has many detractors.¹² Criticisms include the following:

1. Herzberg's methodology is limited because it relies on self-reports. When things are going well, people tend to take credit. Contrarily, they blame failure on the extrinsic environment.
2. The reliability of Herzberg's methodology is questionable. Raters have to make interpretations, so they may contaminate the findings by interpreting one response in one manner while treating a similar response differently.
3. No overall measure of satisfaction was utilized. A person may dislike part of a job yet still think the job is acceptable overall.
4. Herzberg assumed a relationship between satisfaction and productivity, but he looked only at satisfaction. To make his research relevant, we must assume a strong relationship between satisfaction and productivity.

Regardless of the criticisms, Herzberg's theory has been widely read, and few managers are unfamiliar with its recommendations.

McClelland's Theory of Needs

You have one beanbag and five targets set up in front of you, each farther away than the last. Target A sits almost within arm's reach. If you hit it, you get \$2. Target B is a bit farther out, but about 80 percent of the people who try can hit it. It pays \$4. Target C pays \$8, and about half the people who try can hit it. Very few people can hit Target D, but the payoff is \$16 for those who do. Finally, Target E pays \$32, but it's almost impossible to achieve. Which would you try for? If you selected C, you're likely to be a high achiever. Why? Read on.

McClelland's theory of needs was developed by David McClelland and his associates.¹³ It looks at three needs:

- **Need for achievement (nAch)** is the drive to excel, to achieve in relationship to a set of standards.
- **Need for power (nPow)** is the need to make others behave in a way they would not have otherwise.
- **Need for affiliation (nAff)** is the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

McClelland and subsequent researchers focused most of their attention on nAch. **High achievers perform** best when they perceive their probability of success as 0.5—that is, a 50–50 chance. They dislike gambling with high odds because they get no achievement satisfaction from success that comes by pure chance. Similarly, they dislike low odds (high probability of success) because then there is no challenge to their skills. **They like to set goals that require stretching themselves a little.**

Relying on an extensive amount of research, we can predict some relationships between achievement need and job performance. First, when jobs have a high degree of personal responsibility and feedback and an intermediate degree of risk, high achievers are strongly motivated. They are successful in

Source: Seth Wenig/AP Images



As a high achiever, Patricia Woertz is motivated by work that demands a high degree of personal responsibility. Today, she is the CEO, president, and chair of Archer Daniels Midland, an agricultural food processing business. She started her career as a certified public accountant but was attracted to the complexity and opportunity of global energy. For the next 30 years she worked for Gulf Oil and Chevron in refining, marketing, strategic planning, and finance positions. Since joining ADM, Woertz continues to shift company resources toward fuel production in a drive to accelerate ADM's global leadership in bioenergy and has led the company to record financial results.

McClelland's theory of needs A theory that states achievement, power, and affiliation are three important needs that help explain motivation.

need for achievement (nAch) The drive to excel, to achieve in relationship to a set of standards, and to strive to succeed.

need for power (nPow) The need to make others behave in a way in which they would not have behaved otherwise.

need for affiliation (nAff) The desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

entrepreneurial activities such as running their own businesses, for example, and managing self-contained units within large organizations.¹⁴ Second, a high need to achieve does not necessarily make someone a good manager, especially in large organizations. People with a high achievement need are interested in how well they do personally, and not in influencing others to do well. High-nAch salespeople do not necessarily make good sales managers, and the good general manager in a large organization does not typically have a high need to achieve.¹⁵ Third, needs for affiliation and power tend to be closely related to managerial success. The best managers are high in their need for power and low in their need for affiliation.¹⁶ In fact, a high power motive may be a requirement for managerial effectiveness.¹⁷

The view that a high achievement need acts as an internal motivator presupposes two U.S. cultural characteristics—willingness to accept a moderate degree of risk (which excludes countries with strong uncertainty-avoidance characteristics) and concern with performance (which applies to countries with strong achievement characteristics). This combination is found in Anglo-American countries such as the United States, Canada, and Great Britain¹⁸ and much less in Chile and Portugal.

Among the early theories of motivation, McClelland's has had the best research support. Unfortunately, it has less practical effect than the others. Because McClelland argued that the three needs are subconscious—we may rank high on them but not know it—measuring them is not easy. In the most common approach, a trained expert presents pictures to individuals, asks them to tell a story about each, and then scores their responses in terms of the three needs. However, the process is time consuming and expensive, and few organizations have been willing to invest in measuring McClelland's concept.

Contemporary Theories of Motivation

Early theories of motivation either have not held up under close examination or have fallen out of favor. In contrast, contemporary theories have one thing in common: each has a reasonable degree of valid supporting documentation. This doesn't mean they are unquestionably right. We call them "contemporary theories" because they represent the current state of thinking in explaining employee motivation.

Self-Determination Theory

- 3 Apply the predictions of self-determination theory to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

"It's strange," said Marcia. "I started work at the Humane Society as a volunteer. I put in 15 hours a week helping people adopt pets. And I loved coming to work. Then, 3 months ago, they hired me full-time at \$11 an hour. I'm doing the same work I did before. But I'm not finding it nearly as much fun."

Does Marcia's reaction seem counterintuitive? There's an explanation for it. It's called **self-determination theory**, which proposes that people prefer to feel they have control over their actions, so anything that makes a previously enjoyed task feel more like an obligation than a freely chosen activity will undermine motivation.¹⁹ Much research on self-determination theory in OB has focused on **cognitive evaluation theory**, which hypothesizes that extrinsic rewards will reduce intrinsic interest in a task. When people are paid for work, it feels less like something they *want* to do and more like something they *have* to do. Self-determination theory also proposes that in addition to being driven

An Ethical Choice

Motivated to Behave Unethically

The popular press often reports about ethical lapses in business by focusing on employees and managers who are “loose cannons,” deviating from organizational rules and norms to produce bad consequences for society and business. However, sometimes unethical behavior is not just ignored by organizational leaders but actively encouraged by the company’s motivational structures. In fact, one survey found that 56 percent of U.S. workers experience pressure from their superiors to behave in an unethical manner. Craig E. Johnson sums up the problem, noting, “Examine nearly any corporate scandal—AIG Insurance, Arthur Andersen, Enron, Health South, Sotheby’s Auction House, Fannie Mae, Hollinger International, Marsh & McLennan, Quest—and you’ll find leaders who engaged in immoral

behavior and encouraged their followers to do the same.”

How do managers create pressure to behave unethically? Management scholar Ben Tepper notes that structures in place in organizations often encourage unethical behavior. Incentives might go to individuals who maximize sales without regard to whether they achieved these ends honestly. Lawyers often are paid in such a way that tacitly encourages them to overbill their clients. Or perhaps rewards might be offered for producing products at low cost without considering the social and environmental impacts of production decisions. In all these cases, the reward systems in place in organizations can serve to motivate unethical behavior.

So what can you do as a manager or employee to confront these

powerful motivations to behave unethically? First and foremost, decision makers should consider the unintended consequences of reward systems. Second, top management should foster an organizational culture of honesty and fair dealing and disseminate it through all levels of the organizational hierarchy. Finally, organizations might even consider finding ways to explicitly reward those employees who engage in “above and beyond” instances of ethical behavior.

Sources: B. J. Tepper, “When Managers Pressure Employees to Behave Badly: Toward a Comprehensive Response,” *Business Horizons* 53, no. 6 (2010), pp. 591–598; C. E. Johnson, *Meeting the Ethical Challenges of Leadership: Casting Light or Shadow*, 3rd ed. (San Francisco: Sage, 2009).

by a need for autonomy, people seek ways to achieve competence and positive connections to others. A large number of studies support self-determination theory.²⁰ As we’ll show, its major implications relate to work rewards.

When organizations use extrinsic rewards as payoffs for superior performance, employees feel they are doing a good job less because of their own intrinsic desire to excel than because that’s what the organization wants. Eliminating extrinsic rewards can also shift an individual’s perception of why she works on a task from an external to an internal explanation. If you’re reading a novel a week because your English literature instructor requires you to, you can attribute your reading behavior to an external source. However, if you find yourself continuing to read a novel a week after the course is over, your natural inclination is to say, “I must enjoy reading novels because I’m still reading one a week.”

Studies examining how extrinsic rewards increased motivation for some creative tasks suggest we might need to place cognitive evaluation theory’s predictions in a broader context.²¹ Goal-setting is more effective in improving

self-determination theory A theory of motivation that is concerned with the beneficial effects of intrinsic motivation and the harmful effects of extrinsic motivation.

cognitive evaluation theory A version of self-determination theory which holds that allocating extrinsic rewards for behavior that had been previously intrinsically rewarding tends to decrease the overall level of motivation if the rewards are seen as controlling.

Autonomy Needs Around the Globe

Much of the research we have presented on needs for autonomy and self-determination has been conducted in the United States and Canada, two countries that place a high value on personal independence and freedom of choice. But some researchers question whether a need for autonomy is universal or whether some cultures foster a greater need for relatedness.

Some research does suggest universal needs for autonomy, while other studies find that different cultures

see autonomy differently. In a survey of 40 nations, collectivistic countries valued social order, obedience, and respect for tradition more, and within cultures, individuals who value autonomy tend to put less value on social connectedness and vice versa.

In a study with Chinese Canadian and European Canadian participants, those from Chinese culture expressed lower levels of autonomy, but autonomy was related to well-being for both Chinese and European respondents. Although different cultures view their

autonomy differently, it appears people across cultures are higher in well-being when they perceive they have freedom of choice.

Sources: C. Vaclair, K. Hanke, R. Fischer, and J. Fontaine, "The Structure of Human Values at the Culture Level: A Meta-Analytical Replication of Schwartz's Value Orientations Using the Rokeach Value Survey," *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* 42, no. 2 (2011), pp. 186–205; and D. Rudy, K. M. Sheldon, T. Awong, and H. H. Tan, "Autonomy, Culture, and Well-Being: The Benefits of Inclusive Autonomy," *Journal of Research in Personality* 41, no. 5 (2007), pp. 983–1007.

motivation, for instance, when we provide rewards for achieving the goals. The original authors of self-determination theory acknowledge that extrinsic rewards such as verbal praise and feedback about competence can improve even intrinsic motivation under specific circumstances. Deadlines and specific work standards do, too, if people believe they are in control of their behavior.²² This is consistent with the central theme of self-determination theory: rewards and deadlines diminish motivation if people see them as coercive.

What does self-determination theory suggest for providing rewards? If a senior sales representative really enjoys selling and making the deal, a commission indicates she's been doing a good job and increases her sense of competence by providing feedback that could improve intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, if a computer programmer values writing code because she likes to solve problems, a reward for working to an externally imposed standard she does not accept, such as writing a certain number of lines of code every day, could feel coercive, and her intrinsic motivation would suffer. She would be less interested in the task and might reduce her effort.

A recent outgrowth of self-determination theory is **self-concordance**, which considers how strongly people's reasons for pursuing goals are consistent with their interests and core values. If individuals pursue goals because of an intrinsic interest, they are more likely to attain their goals and are happy even if they do not. Why? Because the process of striving toward them is fun. In contrast, people who pursue goals for extrinsic reasons (money, status, or other benefits) are less likely to attain their goals and less happy even when they do. Why? Because the goals are less meaningful to them.²³ OB research suggests that people who pursue work goals for intrinsic reasons are more satisfied with their jobs, feel they fit into their organizations better, and may perform better.²⁴

What does all this mean? For individuals, it means choose your job for reasons other than extrinsic rewards. For organizations, it means managers should provide intrinsic as well as extrinsic incentives. They need to make the work

interesting, provide recognition, and support employee growth and development. Employees who feel what they do is within their control and a result of free choice are likely to be more motivated by their work and committed to their employers.²⁵

Job Engagement

When nurse Melissa Jones comes to work, it seems that everything else in her life goes away, and she becomes completely absorbed in what she is doing. Her emotions, her thoughts, and her behavior are all directed toward patient care. In fact, she can get so caught up in her work that she isn't even aware of how long she's been there. As a result of this total commitment, she is more effective in providing patient care and feels uplifted by her time at work.

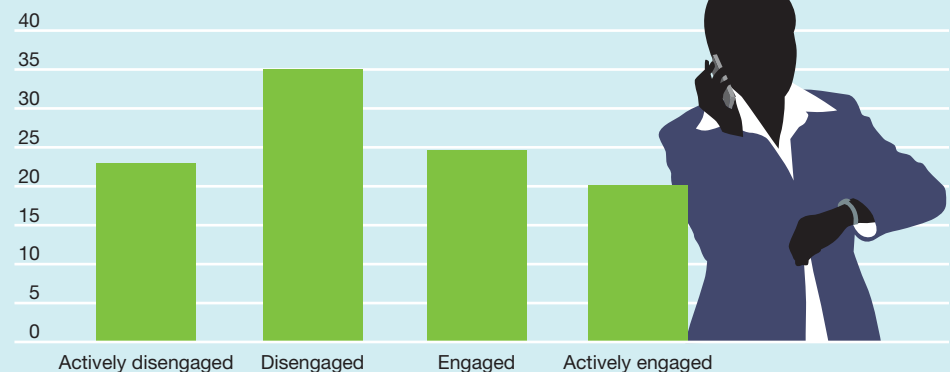
Melissa has a high level of **job engagement**, the investment of an employee's physical, cognitive, and emotional energies into job performance.²⁶ Practicing managers and scholars alike have lately become interested in facilitating job engagement, believing something deeper than liking a job or finding it interesting drives performance. Many studies attempt to measure this deeper level of commitment.

The Gallup organization has been using 12 questions to assess the extent to which employee engagement is linked to positive work outcomes for millions of employees over the past 30 years.²⁷ There are far more engaged employees in highly successful than in average organizations, and groups with more engaged employees have higher levels of productivity, fewer safety incidents, and lower turnover. Academic studies have also found positive outcomes. One examined multiple business units for their level of engagement and found a

OB Poll

More Employees Are Disengaged Than Engaged by Their Jobs

Degree to which employee is engaged by his/her job



Source: A. Fox, "Raising Engagement," *HR Magazine* (May 2010), pp. 35–40; "Gallup's Customer Engagement Index" (March 11, 2010), www.smartKPIs.com.

self-concordance The degree to which peoples' reasons for pursuing goals are consistent with their interests and core values.

job engagement The investment of an employee's physical, cognitive, and emotional energies into job performance.

positive relationship with a variety of practical outcomes.²⁸ Another reviewed 91 distinct investigations and found higher levels of engagement associated with task performance and citizenship behavior.²⁹

What makes people more likely to be engaged in their jobs? One key is the degree to which an employee believes it is meaningful to engage in work. This is partially determined by job characteristics and access to sufficient resources to work effectively.³⁰ Another factor is a match between the individual's values and those of the organization.³¹ Leadership behaviors that inspire workers to a greater sense of mission also increase employee engagement.³²

One of the critiques of engagement is that the construct is partially redundant with job attitudes like satisfaction or stress.³³ However, engagement questionnaires usually assess motivation and absorption in a task, quite unlike job satisfaction questionnaires. Engagement may also predict important work outcomes better than traditional job attitudes.³⁴ Other critics note there may be a “dark side” to engagement, as evidenced by positive relationships between engagement and work–family conflict.³⁵ Individuals might grow so engaged in their work roles that family responsibilities become an unwelcome intrusion. Further research exploring how engagement relates to these negative outcomes may help clarify whether some highly engaged employees might be getting “too much of a good thing.”

Goal-Setting Theory

4 Understand the implications of employee engagement for management.

Gene Broadwater, coach of the Hamilton High School cross-country team, gave his squad these last words before they approached the starting line for the league championship race: “Each one of you is physically ready. Now, get out there and do your best. No one can ever ask more of you than that.”

You’ve heard the sentiment a number of times yourself: “Just do your best. That’s all anyone can ask.” But what does “do your best” mean? Do we ever know whether we’ve achieved that vague goal? Would the cross-country runners have recorded faster times if Coach Broadwater had given each a specific goal? Research on **goal-setting theory** in fact reveals impressive effects of goal specificity, challenge, and feedback on performance.

In the late 1960s, Edwin Locke proposed that intentions to work toward a goal are a major source of work motivation.³⁶ That is, goals tell an employee what needs to be done and how much effort is needed.³⁷ Evidence strongly suggests that specific goals increase performance; that difficult goals, when accepted, result in higher performance than do easy goals; and that feedback leads to higher performance than does nonfeedback.³⁸

Specific goals produce a higher level of output than the generalized goal “do your best.” Why? Specificity itself seems to act as an internal stimulus. When a trucker commits to making 12 round-trip hauls between Toronto and Buffalo, New York, each week, this intention gives him a specific objective to attain. All things being equal, he will outperform a counterpart with no goals or the generalized goal “do your best.”

If factors such as acceptance of the goals are held constant, the more difficult the goal, the higher the level of performance. Of course, it’s logical to assume easier goals are more likely to be accepted. But once a hard task is accepted, we can expect the employee to exert a high level of effort to try to achieve it.

But why are people motivated by difficult goals?³⁹ First, challenging goals get our attention and thus tend to help us focus. Second, difficult goals energize us because we have to work harder to attain them. Do you study as hard for an easy exam as you do for a difficult one? Probably not. Third, when goals are difficult, people persist in trying to attain them. Finally, difficult goals lead us to discover strategies that help us perform the job or task more effectively. If we

Chung Mong-koo, chairman of Hyundai Motor Company, is well known for articulating difficult and specific goals as a potent motivating force. For example, although Hyundai was a latecomer in the development of a hybrid vehicle, the South Korean automaker launched its first U.S. hybrid in 2010, with annual sales set at 50,000 units. By 2018, the company expects hybrid sales to balloon to 500,000 units worldwide. Challenging employees to reach high goals has helped Hyundai experience tremendous growth in recent years.



Source: Ahn Young-joon/AP Images

have to struggle to solve a difficult problem, we often think of a better way to go about it.

People do better when they get feedback on how well they are progressing toward their goals, because it helps identify discrepancies between what they have done and what they want to do—that is, feedback guides behavior. But all feedback is not equally potent. Self-generated feedback—with which employees are able to monitor their own progress—is more powerful than externally generated feedback.⁴⁰

If employees can participate in the setting of their own goals, will they try harder? The evidence is mixed.⁴¹ In some cases, participatively set goals yielded superior performance; in others, individuals performed best when assigned goals by their boss. But a major advantage of participation may be that it increases acceptance of the goal as a desirable one toward which to work.⁴² Commitment is important. Without participation, the individual assigning the goal needs to clearly explain its purpose and importance.⁴³

In addition to feedback, three other factors influence the goals–performance relationship: goal commitment, task characteristics, and national culture.

Goal-setting theory assumes an individual is committed to the goal and determined not to lower or abandon it. The individual (1) believes he or she can achieve the goal and (2) wants to achieve it.⁴⁴ Goal commitment is most likely to occur when goals are made public, when the individual has an internal locus of control (see Chapter 4), and when the goals are self-set rather than assigned.⁴⁵ Goals themselves seem to affect performance more strongly when tasks are simple rather than complex, well learned rather than novel, and independent rather than interdependent.⁴⁶ On interdependent tasks, group goals are preferable.

Finally, setting specific, difficult, individual goals may have different effects in different cultures. Most goal-setting research has been done in the United States and Canada, where individual achievement and performance are most highly valued. To date, research has not shown that group-based

goal-setting theory A theory that says that specific and difficult goals, with feedback, lead to higher performance.

goals are more effective in collectivists than in individualist cultures. In collectivistic and high-power-distance cultures, achievable moderate goals can be more highly motivating than difficult ones.⁴⁷ Finally, assigned goals appear to generate greater goal commitment in high than in low power-distance cultures.⁴⁸ More research is needed to assess how goal constructs might differ across cultures.

Although goal-setting has positive outcomes, some goals may be *too effective*.⁴⁹ When *learning something is important*, goals related to performance undermine adaptation and creativity because people become too focused on outcomes and ignore changing conditions. In this case, a goal to learn and generate alternative solutions will be more effective than a goal to perform. Some authors argue that goals can lead employees to focus on a single standard and exclude all others. Consider the narrow focus on boosting short-term stock prices in many businesses—it may have led organizations to ignore long-term success and even to engage in such unethical behavior as accounting fraud or excessively risky investments. (Of course, organizations can establish goals for ethical performance.) Other studies show that employees low in conscientiousness and emotional stability experience greater emotional exhaustion when their leaders set goals.⁵⁰ Despite differences of opinion, most researchers do agree that goals are powerful in shaping behavior. Managers should make sure they are actually aligned with the company's objectives.

Research has begun to examine subconscious goals—that is, goals we are not even aware of setting.⁵¹ One study primed people to think about goals by having them assemble scrambled words into sentences with achievement themes, while other people assembled sentences without achievement themes. The people who made the achievement sentences were subconsciously primed. That might not sound like a very strong manipulation, but this group performed more effectively in a brainstorming task than those given easier goals. Another study found similar results when a picture of a woman winning a race was the subconscious prime rather than assembling sentences. Interestingly, these studies do not find that conscious and subconscious goal-setting are related.



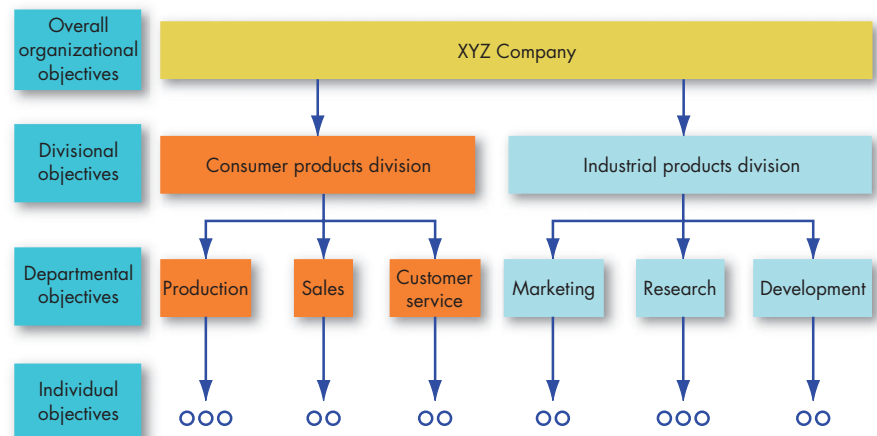
SELF-ASSESSMENT LIBRARY

What Are My Course Performance Goals?

In the Self-Assessment Library (available on CD or online), take assessment I.C.5 (What Are My Course Performance Goals?).

Implementing Goal-Setting As a manager, how do you make goal-setting theory operational? That's often left up to the individual. Some managers set aggressive performance targets—what General Electric called “stretch goals.” Some CEOs, such as Procter & Gamble's A. G. Lafley and SAP AG's Hasso Plattner, are known for the demanding performance goals they set. But many managers don't set goals. When asked whether their job had clearly defined goals, only a minority of employees in a recent survey said yes.⁵²

A more systematic way to utilize goal-setting is with **management by objectives (MBO)**, which emphasizes participatively set goals that are **tangible, verifiable, and measurable**. As in Exhibit 7-4, the organization's overall objectives are translated into specific objectives for each level (divisional,

Exhibit 7-4**Cascading of Objectives**

departmental, individual). But because lower-unit managers jointly participate in setting their own goals, MBO works from the bottom up as well as from the top down. The result is a hierarchy that links objectives at one level to those at the next. And for the individual employee, MBO provides specific personal performance objectives.

Four ingredients are common to MBO programs: goal specificity, participation in decision making (including the setting of goals or objectives), an explicit time period, and performance feedback.⁵³ Many elements in MBO programs match propositions of goal-setting theory. For example, having an explicit time period to accomplish objectives matches goal-setting theory's emphasis on goal specificity. Similarly, we noted earlier that feedback about goal progress is a critical element of goal-setting theory. The only area of possible disagreement between MBO and goal-setting theory is participation: MBO strongly advocates it, whereas goal-setting theory demonstrates that managers' assigned goals are usually just as effective.

You'll find MBO programs in many business, health care, educational, government, and nonprofit organizations.⁵⁴ Their popularity does not mean they always work.⁵⁵ When MBO fails, the culprits tend to be unrealistic expectations, lack of commitment by top management, and inability or unwillingness to allocate rewards based on goal accomplishment.

Self-Efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy (also known as *social cognitive theory* or *social learning theory*) refers to an individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing a task.⁵⁶ The higher your self-efficacy, the more confidence you have in your ability to succeed. So, in difficult situations, people with low self-efficacy are more likely to lessen their effort or give up altogether, while those with high self-efficacy will

management by objectives (MBO) A program that encompasses specific goals, participatively set, for an explicit time period, with feedback on goal progress.

self-efficacy An individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing a task.

try harder to master the challenge.⁵⁷ Self-efficacy can create a positive spiral in which those with high efficacy become more engaged in their tasks and then, in turn, increase performance, which increases efficacy further.⁵⁸ Changes in self-efficacy over time are related to changes in creative performance as well.⁵⁹ Individuals high in self-efficacy also seem to respond to negative feedback with increased effort and motivation, while those low in self-efficacy are likely to lessen their effort after negative feedback.⁶⁰ How can managers help their employees achieve high levels of self-efficacy? By bringing goal-setting theory and self-efficacy theory together.

Goal-setting theory and self-efficacy theory don't compete; they complement each other. As Exhibit 7-5 shows, employees whose manager sets difficult goals for them will have a higher level of self-efficacy and set higher goals for their own performance. Why? Setting difficult goals for people communicates your confidence in them. Imagine you learn your boss sets a higher goal for you than for your co-workers. How would you interpret this? As long as you didn't feel you were being picked on, you would probably think, "Well, I guess my boss thinks I'm capable of performing better than others." This sets in motion a psychological process in which you're more confident in yourself (higher self-efficacy) and you set higher personal goals, performing better both inside and outside the workplace.

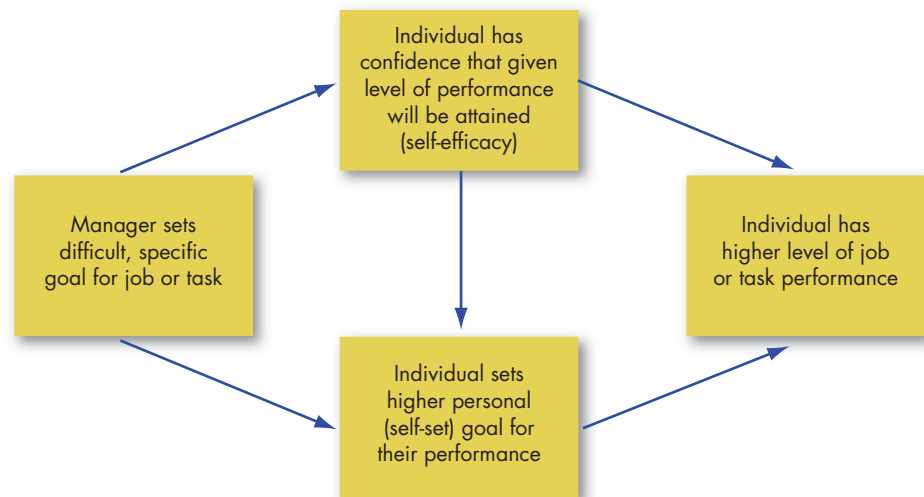
The researcher who developed self-efficacy theory, Albert Bandura, proposes four ways self-efficacy can be increased:⁶¹

1. Enactive mastery.
2. Vicarious modeling.
3. Verbal persuasion.
4. Arousal.

According to Bandura, the most important source of increasing self-efficacy is *enactive mastery*—that is, gaining relevant experience with the task or job. If you've been able to do the job successfully in the past, you're more confident you'll be able to do it in the future.

Exhibit 7-5

Joint Effects of Goals and Self-Efficacy on Performance



Source: Based on E. A. Locke and G. P. Latham, "Building a Practically Useful Theory of Goal Setting and Task Motivation: A 35-Year Odyssey," *American Psychologist* (September 2002), pp. 705–717.

The second source is *vicarious modeling*—becoming more confident because you see someone else doing the task. If your friend slims down, it increases your confidence that you can lose weight, too. Vicarious modeling is most effective when you see yourself as similar to the person you are observing. Watching Tiger Woods play a difficult golf shot might not increase your confidence in being able to play the shot yourself, but if you watch a golfer with a handicap similar to yours, it's persuasive.

The third source is *verbal persuasion*: becoming more confident because someone convinces you that you have the skills necessary to be successful. Motivational speakers use this tactic.

Finally, Bandura argues that *arousal* increases self-efficacy. Arousal leads to an energized state, so the person gets “psyched up” and performs better. But if the task requires a steady, lower-key perspective (say, carefully editing a manuscript), arousal may in fact hurt performance.

What are the OB implications of self-efficacy theory? Well, it's a matter of applying Bandura's sources of self-efficacy to the work setting. Training programs often make use of enactive mastery by having people practice and build their skills. In fact, one reason training works is that it increases self-efficacy.⁶² Individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy also appear to reap more benefits from training programs and are more likely to use their training on the job.⁶³

The best way for a manager to use verbal persuasion is through the *Pygmalion effect* or the *Galatea effect*. As discussed in Chapter 5, the Pygmalion effect is a form of *self-fulfilling prophecy* in which believing something can make it true. In some studies, teachers were told their students had very high IQ scores when, in fact, they spanned a range from high to low. Consistent with the Pygmalion effect, the teachers spent more time with the students they *thought* were smart, gave them more challenging assignments, and expected more of them—all of which led to *higher student self-efficacy and better grades*.⁶⁴ This strategy also has been used in the workplace.⁶⁵ Sailors who were told convincingly that they would not get seasick were in fact much less likely to do so.⁶⁶

Intelligence and personality are absent from Bandura's list, but they can increase self-efficacy.⁶⁷ People who are intelligent, conscientiousness, and

Toyota Motor Corporation applies social learning theory in teaching employees skills they need to meet the company's high standards of quality and efficiency. At its Global Production Center training facilities in Japan, England, and the United States, workers and managers from factories around the world learn production techniques through observation and direct experience.

Trainees first watch computerized visual manuals to learn basic skills. Then, under the tutelage of an experienced production master, they practice the skills. In this photo, a trainee practices the skill of bolt tightening at Toyota's training center in Toyota City, Japan.



emotionally stable are so much more likely to have high self-efficacy that some researchers argue self-efficacy is less important than prior research would suggest.⁶⁸ They believe it is partially a by-product in a smart person with a confident personality. Although Bandura strongly disagrees with this conclusion, more research is needed.

- 5 Compare and contrast goal-setting theory and management by objectives.

Reinforcement Theory

Goal-setting is a cognitive approach, proposing that an individual's purposes direct his action. **Reinforcement theory**, in contrast, takes a behavioristic view, arguing that reinforcement conditions behavior. The two theories are clearly at odds philosophically. **Reinforcement theorists see behavior as environmentally caused.** You need not be concerned, they would argue, with internal cognitive events; what controls behavior is **reinforcers—any consequences that, when immediately following responses, increase the probability that the behavior will be repeated.**

Reinforcement theory ignores the inner state of the individual and concentrates solely on what happens when he or she takes some action. Because it does not concern itself with what initiates behavior, it is not, strictly speaking, a theory of motivation. But it does provide a powerful means of analyzing what controls behavior, and this is why we typically consider it in discussions of motivation.⁶⁹

Operant conditioning theory, probably the most relevant component of reinforcement theory for management, argues that people learn to behave to get something they want or to avoid something they don't want. Unlike reflexive or unlearned behavior, operant behavior is influenced by the reinforcement or lack of reinforcement brought about by its consequences. Therefore, reinforcement strengthens a behavior and increases the likelihood it will be repeated.⁷⁰ B. F. Skinner, one of the most prominent advocates of operant conditioning, argued that creating pleasing consequences to follow specific forms of behavior would increase the frequency of that behavior. He demonstrated that people will most likely engage in desired behaviors if they are positively reinforced for doing so; that rewards are most effective if they immediately follow the desired response; and that behavior that is not rewarded, or is punished, is less likely to be repeated. We know a professor who places a mark by a student's name each time the student makes a contribution to class discussions. Operant conditioning would argue this practice is motivating because it conditions a student to expect a reward (earning class credit) each time she demonstrates a specific behavior (speaking up in class). The concept of operant conditioning was part of Skinner's broader concept of **behaviorism**, which argues that behavior follows stimuli in a relatively unthinking manner. Skinner's form of radical behaviorism rejects feelings, thoughts, and other states of mind as causes of behavior. In short, people learn to associate stimulus and response, but their conscious awareness of this association is irrelevant.⁷¹

You can see illustrations of operant conditioning everywhere that reinforcements are contingent on some action on your part. Your instructor says if you want a high grade in the course, you must supply correct answers on the test. A commissioned salesperson wanting to earn a sizable income finds doing so is contingent on generating high sales in her territory. Of course, the linkage can also teach individuals to engage in behaviors that work against the best interests of the organization. Assume your boss says if you work overtime during the next 3-week busy season you'll be compensated for it at your next performance appraisal. However, when performance-appraisal time comes, you are given no positive reinforcement for your overtime work. The next time your boss asks

you to work overtime, what will you do? You'll probably decline! Your behavior can be explained by operant conditioning: if a behavior fails to be positively reinforced, the probability it will be repeated declines.

Although reinforcers such as pay can motivate people, the process is much more complicated than stimulus–response. In its pure form, reinforcement theory ignores feelings, attitudes, expectations, and other cognitive variables known to affect behavior. In fact, some researchers look at the same experiments reinforcement theorists use to support their position and interpret the findings in a *cognitive* framework.⁷²

Reinforcement is undoubtedly an important influence on behavior, but few scholars are prepared to argue it is the only one. The behaviors you engage in at work and the amount of effort you allocate to each task are affected by the consequences that follow. If you're consistently reprimanded for outproducing your colleagues, you'll likely reduce your productivity. But we might also explain your lower productivity in terms of goals, inequity, or expectancies.

Individuals can learn by being told or by observing what happens to other people, as well as through direct experiences. Much of what we have learned comes from watching models—parents, teachers, peers, film and television performers, bosses, and so forth. This view that we can learn through both observation and direct experience is called **social-learning theory**.⁷³

Although social-learning theory is an extension of operant conditioning—that is, it assumes behavior is a function of consequences—it also acknowledges the effects of observational learning and perception. People respond to the way they perceive and define consequences, not to the objective consequences themselves.

Models are central to the social-learning viewpoint. **Four processes determine their influence on an individual:**

1. **Attentional processes.** People learn from a model only when they recognize and pay attention to its critical features. We tend to be most influenced by models that are attractive, repeatedly available, important to us, or similar to us in our estimation.
2. **Retention processes.** A model's influence depends on how well the individual remembers the model's action after the model is no longer readily available.
3. **Motor reproduction processes.** After a person has seen a new behavior by observing the model, watching must be converted to doing. This process demonstrates that the individual can perform the modeled activities.
4. **Reinforcement processes.** **Individuals are motivated to exhibit the modeled behavior if positive incentives or rewards are provided.** Positively reinforced behaviors are given more attention, learned better, and performed more often.

Equity Theory/Organizational Justice

Jane Pearson graduated from State University last year with a degree in accounting. After interviews with a number of organizations on campus, she accepted a position with a top public accounting firm and was assigned to its Boston office. Jane was very pleased with the offer she received: challenging work with a prestigious firm, an excellent opportunity to gain valuable experience, and

6 Contrast reinforcement theory and goal-setting theory.

reinforcement theory A theory that says that behavior is a function of its consequences.

behaviorism A theory that argues that behavior follows stimuli in a relatively unthinking manner.

social-learning theory The view that we can learn through both observation and direct experience.

the highest salary any accounting major at State was offered last year—\$4,550 per month—but Jane was the top student in her class; she was articulate and mature, and she fully expected to receive a commensurate salary.

Twelve months have passed. The work has proved to be as challenging and satisfying as Jane had hoped. Her employer is extremely pleased with her performance; in fact, Jane recently received a \$200-per-month raise. However, her motivational level has dropped dramatically in the past few weeks. Why? Jane's employer has just hired a fresh graduate out of State University who lacks the year of experience Jane has gained, for \$4,600 per month—\$50 more than Jane now makes! Jane is irate. She is even talking about looking for another job.

Jane's situation illustrates the role that equity plays in motivation. Employees perceive what they get from a job situation (salary levels, raises, recognition) in relationship to what they put into it (effort, experience, education, competence), and then they compare their outcome-input ratio with that of relevant others. This is shown in Exhibit 7-6. If we perceive our ratio to be equal to that of the relevant others with whom we compare ourselves, a state of equity exists; we perceive that our situation is fair and justice prevails. When we see the ratio as unequal and we feel underrewarded, we experience equity tension that creates anger. When we see ourselves as overrewarded, tension creates guilt. J. Stacy Adams proposed that this negative state of tension provides the motivation to do something to correct it.⁷⁴

The referent an employee selects adds to the complexity of **equity theory**.⁷⁵ There are four referent comparisons:

1. **Self-inside.** An employee's experiences in a different position inside the employee's current organization.
2. **Self-outside.** An employee's experiences in a situation or position outside the employee's current organization.
3. **Other-inside.** Another individual or group of individuals inside the employee's organization.
4. **Other-outside.** Another individual or group of individuals outside the employee's organization.

Employees might compare themselves to friends, neighbors, co-workers, or colleagues in other organizations or compare their present job with past jobs. Which referent an employee chooses will be influenced by the information the employee holds about referents as well as by the attractiveness of the referent. Four moderating variables are gender, length of tenure, level in the organization, and amount of education or professionalism.⁷⁶

Exhibit 7-6 Equity Theory

Ratio Comparisons*	Perception
$\frac{O}{I_A} < \frac{O}{I_B}$	Inequity due to being underrewarded
$\frac{O}{I_A} = \frac{O}{I_B}$	Equity
$\frac{O}{I_A} > \frac{O}{I_B}$	Inequity due to being overrewarded

*Where $\frac{O}{I_A}$ represents the employee; and $\frac{O}{I_B}$ represents relevant others

Women are typically paid less than men in comparable jobs and have lower pay expectations than men for the same work.⁷⁷ So a woman who uses another woman as a referent tends to calculate a lower comparative standard. Of course, employers' stereotypes about women (for example, the belief that women are less committed to the organization or that "women's work" is less valuable) also may contribute to the pay gap.⁷⁸ While both men and women prefer same-sex comparisons, employees in jobs that are not sex segregated will likely make more cross-sex comparisons than those in jobs that are male or female dominated.

Employees with short tenure in their current organizations tend to have little information about others inside the organization, so they rely on their personal experiences. Employees with long tenure rely more heavily on co-workers for comparison. Upper-level employees, those in the professional ranks, and those with higher amounts of education tend to have better information about people in other organizations and will make more other-outside comparisons.

Based on equity theory, employees who perceive inequity will make one of six choices:⁷⁹

1. Change inputs (exert less effort if underpaid or more if overpaid).
2. Change outcomes (individuals paid on a piece-rate basis can increase their pay by producing a higher quantity of units of lower quality).
3. Distort perceptions of self ("I used to think I worked at a moderate pace, but now I realize I work a lot harder than everyone else.").
4. Distort perceptions of others ("Mike's job isn't as desirable as I thought.").
5. Choose a different referent ("I may not make as much as my brother-in-law, but I'm doing a lot better than my Dad did when he was my age.").
6. Leave the field (quit the job).

In perceiving inequity in pay, these

American Airline pilots used an "other-inside" referent comparison when comparing their pay to that of the airline's managers. The pilots agreed to accept wage and benefit cuts after the airline reported an \$8 billion loss. When they returned to profitability, the CEO and other top managers received stock bonuses. Marching in protest, the pilots argued that their sacrifices in pay and benefits helped save the airline from bankruptcy and that they deserved to be rewarded with pay increases.



Source: LM Otero/AP Images

equity theory A theory that says that individuals compare their job inputs and outcomes with those of others and then respond to eliminate any inequities.

Some of these propositions have been supported, but others haven't.⁸⁰ First, inequities created by overpayment do not seem to significantly affect behavior in most work situations. Apparently, people have more tolerance of overpayment inequities than of underpayment inequities or are better able to rationalize them. It's pretty damaging to a theory when half the equation falls apart. Second, not all people are equity sensitive.⁸¹ A few actually prefer outcome–input ratios lower than the referent comparisons. Predictions from equity theory are not likely to be very accurate about these “benevolent types.”

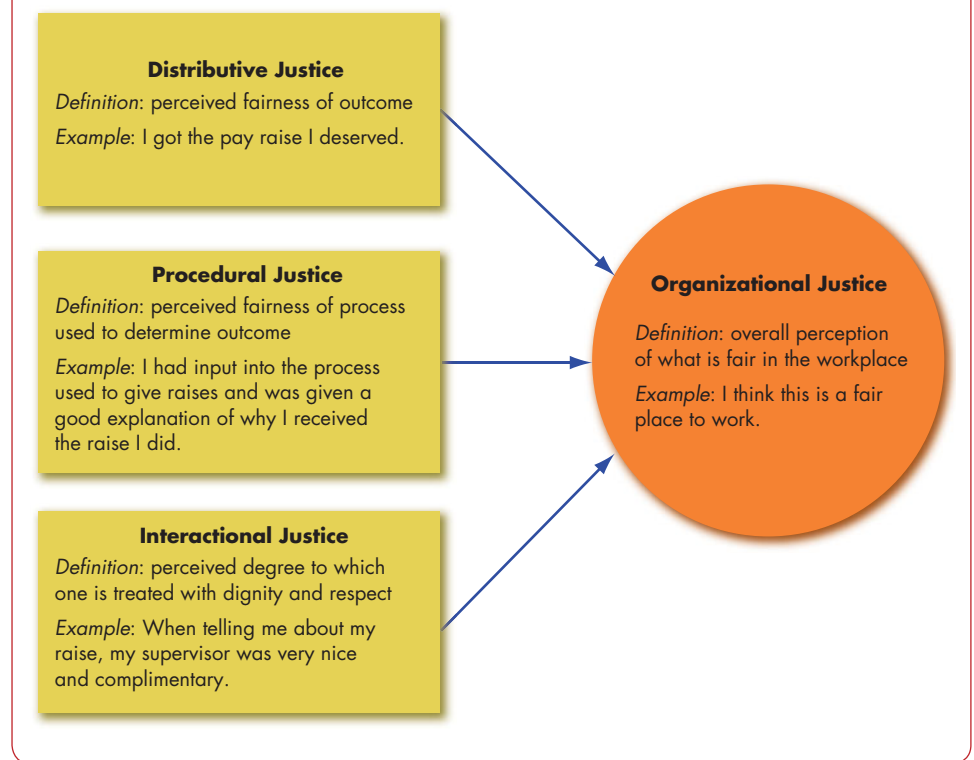
While most research on equity theory has focused on pay, some employees also look for equity in the distribution of other organizational rewards like high-status job titles and large and lavishly furnished offices.⁸²

Finally, recent research has expanded the meaning of *equity*, or *fairness*.⁸³ Historically, equity theory focused on **distributive justice**, the employee's perceived fairness of the *amount* rewards among individuals and who received them. But **organizational justice** draws a bigger picture. Employees perceive their organizations as just when they believe rewards and the *way* they are distributed are fair. In other words, fairness or equity can be subjective; what one person sees as unfair, another may see as perfectly appropriate. In general, people see allocations or procedure favoring themselves as fair.⁸⁴ In a recent poll, 61 percent of respondents said they pay their fair share of taxes, but an almost equal number (54 percent) felt the system as a whole is unfair, saying some people skirt it.⁸⁵

Most of the equity theory research we've described proposes a fairly rational, calculative way of estimating what is fair and unfair. But few people really make mathematical calculations of their inputs relative to the outcomes of others. Instead, they base distributive judgments on a feeling or an emotional reaction to how they think they are treated relative to others, and their reactions are often emotional as well.⁸⁶ Our discussion has also focused on reactions to personal mistreatment. However, people also react emotionally to injustices committed against others, prompting them to take retributive actions.⁸⁷

Beyond perceptions of fairness, the other key element of organizational justice is the view that justice is multidimensional. How much we get paid relative to what we think we should be paid (distributive justice) is obviously important. But, according to researchers, *how* we get paid is just as important. Thus, the model of organizational justice in Exhibit 7-7 includes **procedural justice**—the perceived fairness of the *process* used to determine the distribution of rewards. Two key elements of procedural justice are process control and explanations. *Process control* is the opportunity to present your point of view about desired outcomes to decision makers. *Explanations* are clear reasons management gives for the outcome. Thus, for employees to see a process as fair, they need to feel they have some control over the outcome and that they were given an adequate explanation about why the outcome occurred. It's also important that a manager is *consistent* (across people and over time), is *unbiased*, makes decisions based on *accurate information*, and is *open to appeals*.⁸⁸

The effects of procedural justice become more important when distributive justice is lacking. This makes sense. If we don't get what we want, we tend to focus on *why*. If your supervisor gives a cushy office to a co-worker instead of to you, you're much more focused on your supervisor's treatment of you than if you had gotten the office. Explanations are beneficial when they take the form of post hoc excuses (“I know this is bad, and I wanted to give you the office, but it wasn't my decision”) rather than justifications (“I decided to give the office to Sam, but having it isn't a big deal.”).⁸⁹

Exhibit 7-7**Model of Organizational Justice**

Interactional justice describes an individual's perception of the degree to which she is treated with dignity, concern, and respect. When people are treated in an unjust manner (at least in their own eyes), they retaliate (for example, badmouthing a supervisor).⁹⁰ Because people intimately connect interactional justice or injustice to the conveyor of the information, we would expect perceptions of injustice to be more closely related to the supervisor. Generally, that's what the evidence suggests.⁹¹

Of these three forms of justice, distributive justice is most strongly related to organizational commitment and satisfaction with outcomes such as pay. Procedural justice relates most strongly to job satisfaction, employee trust, withdrawal from the organization, job performance, and citizenship behaviors. There is less evidence about interactional justice.⁹²

Equity theory has gained a strong following in the United States because U.S.-style reward systems assume workers are highly sensitive to equity in reward allocations. And in the United States, equity is meant to closely tie pay to performance. However, in collectivist cultures employees expect rewards to reflect their individual needs as well as their performance.⁹³ Other research suggests that inputs and outcomes are valued differently in various

distributive justice Perceived fairness of the amount and allocation of rewards among individuals.

organizational justice An overall perception of what is fair in the workplace, composed of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice.

procedural justice The perceived fairness of the process used to determine the distribution of rewards.

interactional justice The perceived degree to which an individual is treated with dignity, concern, and respect.

cultures.⁹⁴ Some cultures emphasize status over individual achievement as a basis for allocating resources. Materialistic cultures are more likely to see cash compensation and rewards as the most relevant outcomes of work, whereas relational cultures will see social rewards and status as important outcomes. International managers must consider the cultural preferences of each group of employees when determining what is “fair” in different contexts.

Studies suggest that managers are indeed motivated to foster employees’ perceptions of justice because they wish to ensure compliance, maintain a positive identity, and establish fairness at work.⁹⁵ To enhance perceptions of justice, they should realize that employees are especially sensitive to unfairness in procedures when bad news has to be communicated (that is, when distributive justice is low). Thus, it’s especially important to openly share information about how allocation decisions are made, follow consistent and unbiased procedures, and engage in similar practices to increase the perception of procedural justice. Second, when addressing perceived injustices, managers need to focus their actions on the source of the problem.

If employees feel they have been treated unjustly, having opportunities to express their frustration has been shown to reduce their desire for retribution.⁹⁶

Meta-analytic evidence shows individuals in both individualistic and collectivistic cultures prefer an equitable distribution of rewards (the most effective workers get paid the most) over an equal division (everyone gets paid the same regardless of performance).⁹⁷ Across nations, the same basic principles of procedural justice are respected, and workers around the world prefer rewards based on performance and skills over rewards based on seniority.⁹⁸

Expectancy Theory

One of the most widely accepted explanations of motivation is Victor Vroom’s **expectancy theory**.⁹⁹ Although it has its critics, most of the evidence supports it.¹⁰⁰

Expectancy theory argues that the strength of our tendency to act a certain way depends on the strength of our expectation of a given outcome and its attractiveness. In more practical terms, employees will be motivated to exert a high level of effort when they believe it will lead to a good performance appraisal; that a good appraisal will lead to organizational rewards such as bonuses, salary increases, or promotions; and that the rewards will satisfy the employees’ personal goals. The theory, therefore, focuses on three relationships (see Exhibit 7-8):

1. **Effort–performance relationship.** The probability perceived by the individual that exerting a given amount of effort will lead to performance.
2. **Performance–reward relationship.** The degree to which the individual believes performing at a particular level will lead to the attainment of a desired outcome.

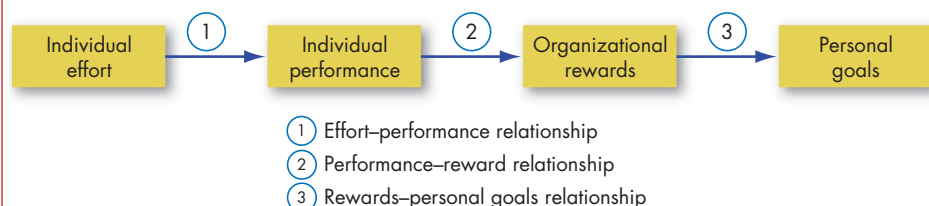
7 Demonstrate how organizational justice is a refinement of equity theory.

MyManagementLab

For an interactive application of this topic, check out this chapter’s simulation activity at www.mymanagementlab.com.

Exhibit 7-8

Expectancy Theory



3. Rewards–personal goals relationship. The degree to which organizational rewards satisfy an individual’s personal goals or needs and the attractiveness of those potential rewards for the individual.¹⁰¹

Expectancy theory helps explain why a lot of workers aren’t motivated on their jobs and do only the minimum necessary to get by. Let’s frame the theory’s three relationships as questions employees need to answer in the affirmative if their motivation is to be maximized.

First, *if I give a maximum effort, will it be recognized in my performance appraisal?* For many employees, the answer is “no.” Why? Their skill level may be deficient, which means no matter how hard they try, they’re not likely to be high performers. The organization’s performance appraisal system may be designed to assess nonperformance factors such as loyalty, initiative, or courage, which means more effort won’t necessarily result in a higher evaluation. Another possibility is that employees, rightly or wrongly, perceive the boss doesn’t like them. As a result, they expect a poor appraisal, regardless of effort. These examples suggest one possible source of low motivation is employees’ belief that, no matter how hard they work, the likelihood of getting a good performance appraisal is low.

Second, *if I get a good performance appraisal, will it lead to organizational rewards?* Many organizations reward things besides performance. When pay is based on factors such as having seniority, being cooperative, or “kissing up” to the boss, employees are likely to see the performance–reward relationship as weak and demotivating.

Finally, *if I’m rewarded, are the rewards attractive to me?* The employee works hard in the hope of getting a promotion but gets a pay raise instead. Or the employee wants a more interesting and challenging job but receives only a few words of praise. Unfortunately, many managers are limited in the rewards they can distribute, which makes it difficult to tailor rewards to individual employee needs. Some incorrectly assume all employees want the same thing, thus overlooking the motivational effects of differentiating rewards. In either case, employee motivation is submaximized.

As a vivid example of how expectancy theory can work, consider stock analysts. They make their living trying to forecast a stock’s future price; the accuracy of their buy, sell, or hold recommendations is what keeps them in work or gets them fired. But it’s not quite that simple. Analysts place few sell ratings on stocks, although in a steady market, by definition, as many stocks are falling as are rising. Expectancy theory provides an explanation: analysts who place a sell rating on a company’s stock have to balance the benefits they receive by being accurate against the risks they run by drawing that company’s ire. What are these risks? They include public rebuke, professional blackballing, and exclusion from information. When analysts place a buy rating on a stock, they face no such trade-off because, obviously, companies love it when analysts recommend that investors buy their stock. So the incentive structure suggests the expected outcome of buy ratings is higher than the expected outcome of sell ratings, and that’s why buy ratings vastly outnumber sell ratings.¹⁰²

expectancy theory A theory that says that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual.

At Mary Kay Cosmetics, the performance-reward relationship is strong. The company offers a generous rewards and recognition program based on the achievement of personal goals set by each employee. Mary Kay also understands the motivational effects of differentiating rewards.

For some employees, the best reward is the opportunity to work from home, while other employees are motivated by the opportunity to win a trip, jewelry, or the use of a pink Cadillac. In this photo, a Mary Kay sales director explains career opportunities at a job fair to women interested in joining the company.



Source: Eric Risberg/AP Images

Does expectancy theory work? Some critics suggest it has only limited use and is more valid where individuals clearly perceive effort–performance and performance–reward linkages.¹⁰³ Because few individuals do, the theory tends to be idealistic. If organizations actually rewarded individuals for performance rather than seniority, effort, skill level, and job difficulty, expectancy theory might be much more valid. However, rather than invalidating it, this criticism can explain why a significant segment of the workforce exerts low effort on the job.

Integrating Contemporary Theories of Motivation

- 8 Apply the key tenets of expectancy theory to motivating employees.
- 9 Compare contemporary theories of motivation.

Things might be simpler if, after presenting a half dozen theories, we could say only one was found valid. But many of the theories in this chapter are complementary. We now tie them together to help you understand their interrelationships.¹⁰⁴

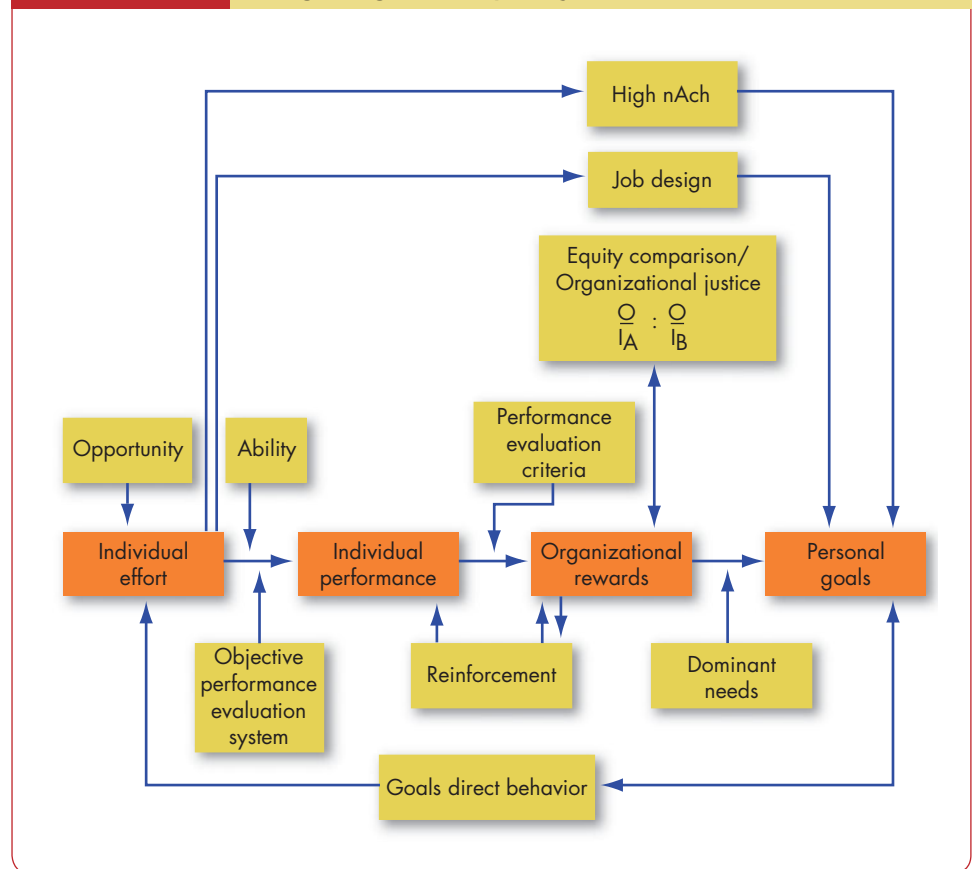
Exhibit 7-9 integrates much of what we know about motivation. Its basic foundation is the expectancy model shown in Exhibit 7-8. Let's walk through Exhibit 7-9. (We will look at job design closely in Chapter 8.)

We begin by explicitly recognizing that opportunities can either aid or hinder individual effort. The individual effort box on the left also has another arrow leading into it, from the person's goals. Consistent with goal-setting theory, the goals–effort loop is meant to remind us that goals direct behavior.

Expectancy theory predicts employees will exert a high level of effort if they perceive a strong relationship between effort and performance, performance and rewards, and rewards and satisfaction of personal goals. Each of these relationships is, in turn, influenced by other factors. For

Exhibit 7-9

Integrating Contemporary Theories of Motivation



effort to lead to good performance, the individual must have the ability to perform and perceive the performance appraisal system as fair and objective. The performance–reward relationship will be strong if the individual perceives that performance (rather than seniority, personal favorites, or other criteria) is rewarded. If cognitive evaluation theory were fully valid in the actual workplace, we would predict here that basing rewards on performance should decrease the individual’s intrinsic motivation. The final link in expectancy theory is the rewards–goals relationship. Motivation is high if the rewards for high performance satisfied the dominant needs consistent with individual goals.

A closer look at Exhibit 7-9 also reveals that the model considers achievement motivation, job design, reinforcement, and equity theories/organizational justice. A high achiever is not motivated by an organization’s assessment of performance or organizational rewards, hence the jump from effort to personal goals for those with a high nAch. Remember, high achievers are internally driven as long as their jobs provide them with personal responsibility, feedback, and moderate risks. They are not concerned with the effort–performance, performance–rewards, or rewards–goal linkages.

Reinforcement theory enters the model by recognizing that the organization’s rewards reinforce the individual’s performance. If employees see a reward system as “paying off” for good performance, the rewards will reinforce and encourage good performance. Rewards also play the key part in

organizational justice research. Individuals will judge the favorability of their outcomes (for example, their pay) relative to what others receive but also with respect to how they are treated: when people are disappointed in their rewards, they are likely to be sensitive to the perceived fairness of the procedures used and the consideration given to them by their supervisor.

MyManagementLab

Now that you have finished this chapter, go back to www.mymanagementlab.com to continue practicing and applying the concepts you've learned.

Summary and Implications for Managers

The motivation theories in this chapter differ in their predictive strength. Here, we (1) review the most established to determine their relevance in explaining turnover, productivity, and other outcomes and (2) assess the predictive power of each.¹⁰⁵

- **Need theories.** Maslow's hierarchy, McClelland's needs, and the two-factor theory focus on needs. None has found widespread support, although McClelland's is the strongest, particularly regarding the relationship between achievement and productivity. In general, need theories are not very valid explanations of motivation.
- **Self-determination theory and cognitive evaluation theory.** As research on the motivational effects of rewards has accumulated, it increasingly appears extrinsic rewards can undermine motivation if they are seen as coercive. They can increase motivation if they provide information about competence and relatedness.
- **Goal-setting theory.** Clear and difficult goals lead to higher levels of employee productivity, supporting goal-setting theory's explanation of this dependent variable. The theory does not address absenteeism, turnover, or satisfaction, however.
- **Reinforcement theory.** This theory has an impressive record for predicting quality and quantity of work, persistence of effort, absenteeism, tardiness, and accident rates. It does not offer much insight into employee satisfaction or the decision to quit.
- **Equity theory/organizational justice.** Equity theory deals with productivity, satisfaction, absence, and turnover variables. However, its strongest legacy is that it provided the spark for research on organizational justice, which has more support in the literature.
- **Expectancy theory.** Expectancy theory offers a powerful explanation of performance variables such as employee productivity, absenteeism, and turnover. But it assumes employees have few constraints on decision making, such as bias or incomplete information, and this limits its applicability. Expectancy theory has some validity because, for many behaviors, people consider expected outcomes.

Fear Is a Powerful Motivator

POINT

This is a “dark side” topic that no one likes to discuss, but fear works as a motivator. Few of us like the idea of feeling fearful in the workplace. But what we like and what motivates us are not the same.

Ever studied harder for an exam for fear of doing poorly, or worried about doing something that would draw your parents’ ire? If you answer “yes,” you’re on your way to admitting this essential truth: we engage in a lot of behaviors, and refrain from others, out of fear.

Too often in organizational behavior we sing this happy song that when employees are happy, they will give their best effort and the company will sail along in smooth seas.

The truth is that when a manager adopts this philosophy, people often relax. They take off early. They “shoot the breeze” more and work a little less. George Cloutier, founder of American Management Services, is realistic about this. “The concept that if you love your employees they’ll perform is on the edge of insanity,” he says. “Fear is the best motivator.”

Employees should realize that in today’s competitive environment, they have to bring their A-game to work each and every day. And managers need to closely monitor them to make sure that’s the case. Instilling in employees a fear that if they shirk, they’ll lose their jobs, is one way to accomplish that monitoring. Without fear, people would do as they wish, and that rarely includes working hard if they feel they don’t have to. Like it or not, that’s the cold, hard truth about employee motivation.

COUNTERPOINT

How cynical! Fear is a natural emotion, but it generally serves a purpose only in crisis situations. Those unfortunate enough to work under a manager who consciously uses fear to “motivate” behavior will leave as soon as they can or get even in some hidden way. Fear never works as a motivational tool. Various areas of research in psychology and organizational behavior prove the point.

Fear generates a “fight-flight-freeze” response, in which an individual (or animal) experiencing fear or extreme stress is forced to choose one of these behaviors. Any sane manager wants none of them. Imagine supervising Chris, who flees work when fearful or stressed, Sanjay, who fights with others when he feels cornered, and Mercedes, who locks up whenever she is chastised. Does effective management mean eliciting these behaviors?

One workplace expert noted, “Fear motivation always results in inner anger and resentment against the person using the fear tactics . . . Fear motivation is the lowest form of motivation and usually results in ‘when the cat is away, the mice will play.’” So, ironically, fear actually undermines performance monitoring, because employees will get even when they know they can’t be caught. And they will never go out of their way to help the organization.

As one Canadian manager noted, “Exercising unilateral power [through fear] can be effective for those leaders whose modest ambitions are matched by the modest successes that such tactics bring.” Zappos founder Tony Hsieh, who tries to create a happy work environment at Zappos by giving employees the sense that they are part of something bigger, argues that inspiration is a much better motivator than fear.

Fear may motivate short-term performance, but in the long run, it is always a losing motivational tool.

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QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

- 1 What are the three key elements of motivation?
- 2 What are some early theories of motivation? How applicable are they today?
- 3 How do the predictions of self-determination theory apply to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards?
- 4 What are the implications of employee engagement for management?
- 5 What are the similarities and differences between goal-setting theory and management by objectives?
- 6 What are the similarities and differences between reinforcement theory and goal-setting theory?
- 7 How is organizational justice a refinement of equity theory?
- 8 What are the key tenets of expectancy theory?
- 9 What are some contemporary theories of motivation and how do they compare to one another?

EXPERIENTIAL EXERCISE Goal-Setting Task

Purpose

This exercise will help you learn how to write tangible, verifiable, measurable, and relevant goals that might evolve from an MBO program.

Time

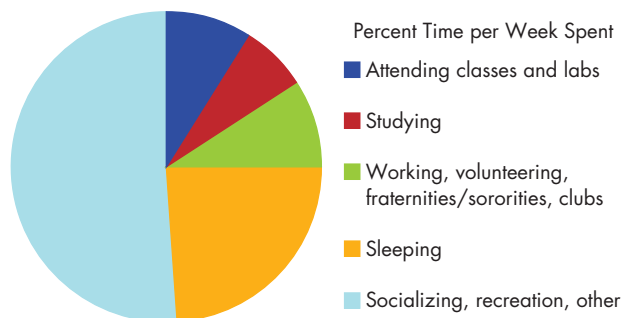
Approximately 20 to 30 minutes.

Instructions

1. Break into groups of three to five.
2. Spend a few minutes discussing your class instructor's job. What does he or she do? What defines good performance? What behaviors lead to good performance?
3. Each group is to develop a list of five goals that, although not established participatively with your instructor, you believe might be developed in an MBO program at your college. Try to select goals that seem most critical to the effective performance of your instructor's job.
4. Each group will select a leader who will share the group's goals with the entire class. For each group's goals, class discussion should focus on the goals' (a) specificity, (b) ease of measurement, (c) importance, and (d) motivational properties.

ETHICAL DILEMMA The Big Easy?

As you know, college is an expensive proposition. Students, parents, donors, and the government invest millions of dollars every year. Thus, there may be an incumbent responsibility on students to ensure they are learning. However, consider the following results from a recent study of time use by more than 3,000 undergraduates:



Undergraduate Use of Time per Week

Sources: M. Burns, "What Happened to Academic Rigor?" *Miller-McCune* (March 8, 2011), pp. 47–49; and R. Arum, *Academically Adrift: Limited Learning on College Campuses* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2011).

Questions

1. One article commented that college students are "frittering away their time at an astonishing rate." Do you agree this is what the data show? Why or why not?
2. Do you think students have an ethical responsibility to spend more time studying? Why or why not?
3. One study suggested that full-time students in 1961 studied an average of 40 hours per week, compared to 27 hours now. Does this apparent trend concern you? Do you think that, as some experts have claimed, our economic competitiveness would increase if college students studied more?

CASE INCIDENT 1 It's Not Fair!

Few topics in the business press have grabbed more headlines recently than highly lucrative annual bonuses for top management. Critics bemoan the multimillion-dollar compensation packages offered in the financial services industry in particular, following the dire consequences of the meltdown of this sector a few short years ago.

How is executive compensation determined by compensation committees? Some researchers suggest that principles from equity theory (making comparisons to referent others) might explain variations in executive pay. To set what is considered a “fair” level of pay for top executives, members of the board find out how much executives with similar levels of experience in similar firms (similar inputs) are being paid and attempt to adjust compensation (outcomes) to be equitable. In other words, top executives in large oil firms are paid similarly to top executives in other large oil firms, top executives in small hospitals are paid similarly to top executives in other small hospitals. In many cases, simply changing the referent others can change the salary range considered acceptable. According to one view of justice theory, this should be perceived as equitable, although executives may encourage boards to consider specific referent others who are especially well-paid.

Critics of executive compensation change the debate by focusing on the ratio of executive compensation to that of the company's lowest-paid employees. Researcher Cary Cooper notes, “In business, it is important to

reward success and not simply status.” Cooper believes all employees should share the company's good fortune in profitable periods. He has recommended that CEO compensation be capped at 20 times the salary of the lowest-paid employee. In fact, the average S&P 500 CEO is paid 263 times what the lowest-paid laborer makes. This is eight times more than the ratio from the 1950s, which might serve as another reference point for determining what is considered “fair.”

Questions

1. How does the executive compensation issue relate to equity theory? Who do you think should be the referent others in these equity judgments? What are the relevant inputs for top executives?
2. Can you think of procedural justice implications related to the ways pay policies for top executives have been instituted? Do these pay-making decisions follow the procedural justice principles outlined in the chapter?
3. Do you think the government has a legitimate role in controlling executive compensation? How might we use distributive and procedural justice theories to inform this debate?
4. Are there any positive motivational consequences of tying compensation pay closely to firm performance?

Sources: J. Bizjak, M. Lemmon, and T. Nguyen, “Are All CEOs Above Average? An Empirical Analysis of Compensation Peer Groups and Pay Design,” *Journal of Financial Economics* 100, no. 3 (2011), pp. 538–555; C. Cooper, “We’re All in This Together,” *Director* 64 (February 2011), p. 27; and R. Foroohar, “Stuffing Their Pockets: For CEOs, A Lucrative Recession” *Newsweek* (September 13, 2010), www.newsweek.com.

CASE INCIDENT 2 Bullying Bosses

After a long weekend, Kara stared at her computer with a sick feeling in her stomach: her boss had added her as a friend on Facebook. Kara did not feel particularly close to her boss, nor did she like the idea of mixing her social life with her work. Still, it was her boss. Kara reluctantly accepted her boss as a Facebook friend. Little did she know her troubles were only beginning.

Kara's boss soon began using her online information to manipulate her work life. It began with inappropriate innuendos regarding Facebook photos. Eventually, Kara's boss manipulated her work hours, confronted her both on and off Facebook, and repeatedly called Kara's cell phone questioning her whereabouts. “My boss was a gossipping, domineering, contriving megalomaniac,

and her behavior dramatically intensified when she used Facebook to pry,” Kara said. Eventually, Kara was forced to quit. “I feel like I got my freedom back and can breathe again,” she said.

Although many individuals recall bullies from elementary school days, some are realizing bullies can exist in the workplace, too. In a recent poll, 37 percent of employees report being victims of a bullying boss. And these bullies don't pick on just the weakest in the group; any subordinate may fall prey. As Kara found, bullying is not limited to male bosses: 40 percent of bullies are women, and women are their targets 70 percent of the time.

How does bullying affect employee motivation and behavior? Surprisingly, though victims may feel less motivated

to go to work every day, they continue performing their required job duties. However, some are less motivated to perform extra-role or citizenship behaviors. Helping others, speaking positively about the organization, and going beyond the call of duty are reduced as a result of bullying. According to Dr. Bennett Tepper, fear may be the reason many workers continue to perform. And not all individuals reduce their citizenship behaviors. Some continue to engage in extra-role behaviors to make themselves look better than their colleagues. Other victims of bullying may be motivated to actively retaliate against their bullying supervisor, or engage in acts of workplace withdrawal.

What should you do if your boss is bullying you? Don't necessarily expect help from co-workers. As Emelise Aleandri, an actress and producer from New York who left her job after being bullied, stated, "Some people were afraid to do anything. But others didn't mind what was happening at all, because they wanted my job." Moreover, according to Dr. Michelle Duffy of the University of Kentucky, co-workers often blame victims of bullying in order to resolve their own guilt. "They do this by wondering whether maybe the person deserved the treatment, that

he or she has been annoying, or lazy, [or] did something to earn it," she says.

Questions

1. How does workplace bullying violate the rules of organizational justice?
2. What aspects of motivation might workplace bullying reduce? For example, are there likely to be effects on an employee's self-efficacy? If so, what might those effects be? Do you think bullying would motivate you to retaliate?
3. If you were a victim of workplace bullying, what steps would you take to try to reduce its occurrence? What strategies would be most effective? Least effective? What would you do if one of your colleagues were a victim?
4. What factors do you believe contribute to workplace bullying? Are bullies a product of the situation, or do they have flawed personalities? What situations and what personality factors might contribute to the presence of bullies?

Sources: Based on M. Wilding, "Is Your Boss Your Friend or Foe?" *Sydney Morning Herald* (May 19, 2009), pp. 1–3; C. Benedict, "The Bullying Boss," *The New York Times* (June 22, 2004), p. F1; and S. Thau and M. S. Mitchell, "Self-Gain or Self-Regulation Impairment? Tests of Competing Explanations of the Supervisor Abuse and Employee Deviance Relationship Through Perceptions of Distributive Justice," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 95, (2010), pp. 1009–1031.

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