

Taylor dealt with the problem of how to get more out of workers. One principle he relied on was piecework. This is where you get paid by the number of X that you produce. Part of the manager's job, in Taylor's mind, was to analyze tasks and break them down in such a way that you could pay people on a piecework payment plan.

Another Taylor principle was that the manager does the thinking and the worker does the physical labor. He felt that if you let the worker the thinking, he would not do as good a job as someone who is a specialist in thinking. In particular, the worker would not figure out the best way to do the work. But a manager could analyze the task and figure out scientifically the best way to get it done.

he advocated a strong division of labor between management (thinking) and worker (doing). It is the manager's job to fully understand the worker's task, and to plan a method of doing it, and then forcing the worker to do it that way.

Henri Fayol

Fayol was a key figure in the turn-of-the-century Classical School of management theory. He saw a manager's job as:

- planning
- organizing
- commanding
- coordinating activities
- controlling performance

Fayol laid down the following principles of organization (he called them principles of management):

1. **Specialization of labor.** Specializing encourages continuous improvement in skills and the development of improvements in methods.
2. **Authority.** The right to give orders and the power to exact obedience.
3. **Discipline.** No slacking, bending of rules.
4. **Unity of command.** Each employee has one and only one boss.
5. **Unity of direction.** A single mind generates a single plan and all play their part in that plan.
6. **Subordination of Individual Interests.** When at work, only work things should be pursued or thought about.
7. **Remuneration.** Employees receive fair payment for services, not what the company can get away with.

8. **Centralization.** Consolidation of management functions. Decisions are made from the top.
9. **Scalar Chain (line of authority).** Formal chain of command running from top to bottom of the organization, like military
10. **Order.** All materials and personnel have a prescribed place, and they must remain there.
11. **Equity.** Equality of treatment (but not necessarily identical treatment)
12. **Personnel Tenure.** Limited turnover of personnel. Lifetime employment for good workers.
13. **Initiative.** Thinking out a plan and do what it takes to make it happen.
14. **Esprit de corps.** Harmony, cohesion among personnel.

Bureaucracy

Max Weber outlined the key characteristics of a bureaucracy:

1. specification of jobs with detailed rights, obligations, responsibilities, scope of authority
2. system of supervision and subordination
3. unity of command
4. extensive use of written documents
5. training in job requirements and skills
6. application of consistent and complete rules (company manual)
7. assign work and hire personnel based on competence and experience

The Hawthorne Studies

Organizations contain lots of informal groups. Their existence -- and importance -- really came to light in the 1920's and '30s at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company in Chicago, studied by Elton Mayo, Roethlisberger and Dickson, from MIT. They started out studying ways of improving worker productivity, partly in the tradition of Taylor, and partly as a reaction to Taylor because one effect of Taylorization was tremendous morale problems among workers. Their experiments were in 3 phases, called the illumination, relay assembly, and bank wiring room studies respectively.

Illumination

The first experiments were with illumination - lighting in the factory. It was thought that workers might work better when there was more light, but light was very expensive, so they needed to find the optimum level to satisfy both requirements.

They assigned workers making induction coils to 2 groups: test and control. Both started with same amount of light. Then the Test group was given more light. Productivity went up. But, unfortunately, it also went up in the control group. So then they increased the

light in the Test group again. Once again, productivity went up or stayed the same in both groups. Again they raised the light level, and again the same result.

So then they reduced the lighting in the Test group way down, below the level in control group. Productivity soared in the Test group, and continued to go up in the control group. They reduced light some more: same result. They finally got down to a level of light equivalent to a moonlit night, and found that productivity was still the same or higher. This really confused the researchers. As one of the researchers put it at the time, they were "knocked galley-west" by the results.

They finally took two workers and put them in a closet with no light at all -- just the crack under the door. Productivity was just fine.

They had to conclude that light didn't seem to matter in the way they expected. And there was something very strange about why output kept going up relative to the rest of the factory. So they planned a more elaborate experiment.

Relay Assembly Test Room

The second experiment was the relay assembly test room. Six women who assembled telephone relay switches were taken out of the main area and placed in special test room where they could be observed. All immigrants (as were most factory workers).

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It was a 5 year experiment. Productivity was measured the whole time by a machine that counted the number of relays that each person assembled as she dropped it down a little chute. They gauged the effects of rest pauses, shorter work days, shorter work weeks, wage incentives and different supervisory practices on output.

As a result of these two studies, the Hawthorne team theorized that there was a key variable that managers had been ignoring, which had to do with workers' relationships, attitudes, feelings, and perceptions. By separating people into groups and then making lots of changes in working conditions, the researchers inadvertently did two things:

1. Made workers feel like management actually cared about them. They felt important and special. This is a problem with the experimental design.
2. They created bonds among people in the test and control groups -- in effect turning them into true groups as described above. People work better when they are part of a clear social structure.

Social processes within the group that formed were much more important than purely material gains.

Bank Wiring Room

The third phase of the experiments was designed to investigate the social structure of employees. How did it form, what did it consist of, how did it affect productivity, and so on.

formal organizations are not as formal as they may seem, even if they are bureaucracies. When human beings interact with each other over a long period of time, they develop a social structure that is only partly based on the formal organizational structure.

Summary

- Formal orgs develop informal groups within them. These informal groups have well-developed social structures, histories, culture etc. Group structure and processes serves specific purposes of controlling members, and of protecting group from management.
- The informal social structure has as much to do with the way the organization runs as does the formal structure. The informal social structure may or may not work to the detriment of the organization. It is safe to say, though, that it is always in mgmt's interest to understand that social structure, both so that they can predict how workers will react to things, and to manipulate them
- Organizations serve several functions.
 - provide society with products/services
 - provide employment - money for its members
 - provide a framework for a social system. just like shipwrecks and coral reefs create habitats for millions of fishy creatures, organizations provide social habitats for people.

Managerial skill

What Managers Do

Manager's individuals who achieve goals through other people

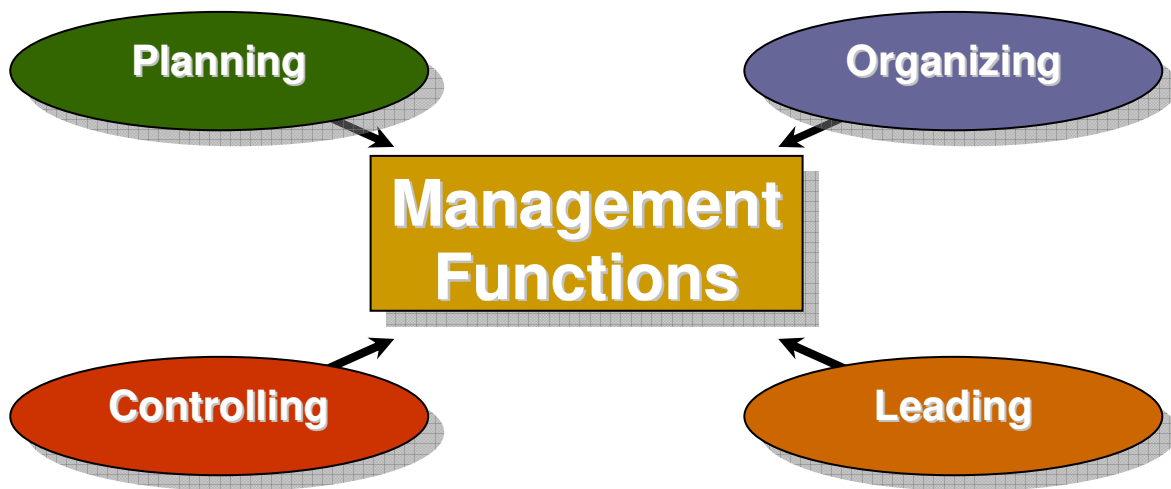
Managerial Activities

- Make decisions
- Allocate resources
- Direct activities of others to attain goals

Organization

A consciously coordinated social unit composed of two or more people that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals.

Management Functions



Planning is a process that includes defining goals, establishing strategy, and developing plans to coordinate activities.

Organizing is determining what tasks are to be done, who is to do them, how the task is to be grouped, who reports to whom, and where decision is to be done.

Leading is a function that includes motivating employees, directing others, selecting the most appropriate and effective communication channel and resolving conflict.

Controlling is monitoring activities to ensure they are being accomplished as planned and correcting any significant deviations.

Mint berg's Managerial Roles

Interpersonal

Figurehead	Symbolic head; required to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature
Leader	Responsible for the motivation and direction of employees
Liaison	Maintains a network of outside contacts who provide favors and information

Informational

Monitor	Receives wide variety of information; serves as nerve center of internal and external information of the organization
Disseminator	Transmits information received from outsiders or from other employees to members of the organization
Spokesperson	Transmits information to outsiders on organization's plans, policies, actions, and results; serves as expert on organization's industry

Decisional	
Entrepreneur	Searches organization and its environment for opportunities and initiates projects to bring about change
Disturbance handler	Responsible for corrective action when organization faces important, unexpected disturbances
Resource allocator	Makes or approves significant organizational decisions
Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organization at major negotiations

Management Skills

Technical skills are the ability to apply specialized knowledge or expertise.

Human skills is the ability to work with understand, and motivate other people, both individually and in groups.

Conceptual skills is the mental ability to analyze and diagonase complex situations.

Allocation of Activities by Time



Understanding and managing individual behavior

THEORY X

Douglas McGregor developed a philosophical view of humankind with his Theory X and Theory Y in 1960. These are two opposing perceptions about how people view human behavior at work and organizational life.

Theory X - With Theory X assumptions, management's role is to coerce and control employees.

- People have an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it whenever possible.
- People must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment in order to get them to achieve the organizational objectives.
- People prefer to be directed, do not want responsibility, and have little or no ambition.
- People seek security above all else.

THEORY Y

Theory Y - With Theory Y assumptions, management's role is to develop the potential in employees and help them to release that potential towards common goals.

- Work is as natural as play and rest.
- People will exercise self-direction if they are committed to the objectives (they are NOT lazy).
- Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
- People learn to accept and seek responsibility.
- Creativity, ingenuity, and imagination are widely distributed among the population. People are capable of using these abilities to solve an organizational problem.
- People have potential.

THEORY Z

Characteristics of the Theory Z

- Long-term employment
- Collective responsibility

- Implicit, informal control with explicit, formalized measures
- Collective decision-making
- Slow evaluation and promotion
- Moderately specialized careers
- Concern for a total person, including their family

The "Hawthorne Effect" is the name given to the 112% increase in output by workers who perceive that they are being studied somehow. Mayo and his good-looking male research assistants let the almost all-female group of workers at the Hawthorne plant think they were studying the effects of lighting on productivity. They found that output increased even when the lighting levels were decreased, even when salaries were adjusted downward, and even when worker complaints were ignored. By a process of elimination, the only explanation left was the attention Mayo and his assistants were paying to the workers. Mayo stated that the reason workers are motivated by such things is that individuals have a deep psychological need to believe that their organization cares about them, is open, concerned, and willing to listen. The sociological implications are that the human dimensions of work (group relations) exert a tremendous influence on behavior, overriding the organizational norms and even the individual's own self-interests. The discoveries of "social capacity", "informal work groups", and "employee-centered management" were nothing short of revolutionary for administrative thought.

Decision Making

Models of Decision Making

The Rational Model

- Consists of a structured four-step sequence:
 - identifying the problem
 - generating alternative solutions
 - selecting a solution
 - implementing and evaluating the solution

Simon's Normative Model

- Based on premise that decision making is not rational
- Decision making is characterized by
 - * limited information processing
 - * use of rules of thumb or shortcuts
 - * satisficing

Assets of Group Decision

Making

- Groups can accumulate more knowledge and facts
- Groups have a broader perspective and consider more alternative solutions
- Individuals who participate in decisions are more satisfied with the decision and are more likely to support it.
- Group decision making processes serve an important communication function as well as a useful political function.

What are rational models?

Rational decision making models involve a **cognitive process** where each step follows in a logical order from the one before. By cognitive, I mean it is based on thinking through and **weighing up the alternatives** to come up with the best potential result.

There are different types of rational models and the number of steps involved, and even the steps themselves, will differ in different models.

Some people assume that decision making is equivalent to problem solving. Some decisions however are **not problem oriented** and I've taken this into consideration when describing the general outline of a rational model below.

Steps in a rational decision making model

Define the situation/decision to be made

Identify the important criteria for the process and the result

Consider all possible solutions

Calculate the consequences of these solutions versus the likelihood of satisfying the criteria

Choose the best option

The comparison is often performed by filling out forms or charts that have many names. Decision matrix, Pugh matrix, decision grid, selection matrix, criteria rating form, amongst others. A **relative importance** is given to each criterion and the options are scored against each of the criteria and the highest 'wins'.

Streams of events within the Garbage Can Model

Four of those streams were identified in Cohen, March & Olsen's original conceptualization:

Problems

Problems require attention, they are the result of performance gaps or the inability to predict the future. Thus, problems may originate inside or outside the organization. Traditionally, it has been assumed that problems trigger decision processes; if they are sufficiently grave, this may happen. Usually, however, organization man goes through the "garbage" and looks for a suitable fix, called a "solution".

Solutions

They have a life of their own. They are distinct from problems which they might be called on to solve. Solutions are answers (more or less actively) looking for a question. Participants may have ideas for solutions; they may be attracted to specific solutions and volunteer to play the advocate. Only trivial solutions do not require advocacy and preparations. Significant solutions have to be prepared without knowledge of the problems they might have to solve.

Choice opportunities

There are occasions when organizations are expected (or think they are expected) to produce behavior that can be called a decision (or an "initiative"). Just like politicians cherish "photo opportunities", organization man needs occasional "decision opportunities" for reasons unrelated to the decision itself.

Participants

They come and go; participation varies between problems and solutions. Participation may vary depending on the other time demands of participants (independent from the particular "decision" situation under study). Participants may have favorite problems or favorite solutions which they carry around with them...

Why "garbage cans"?

It was suggested that organizations tend to produce many "solutions" which are discarded due to a lack of appropriate problems. However problems may eventually arise for which a search of the garbage might yield fitting solutions.

Probably the most extreme view (namely that of organizational anarchy) of the Carnegie School. Organizations operate on the basis of inconsistent and ill-defined preferences; their own processes are not understood by their members; they operate by trial and error; their boundaries are uncertain and changing; decision-makers for any particular choice change capriciously. To understand organizational processes, one can view choice opportunities as garbage cans into which various kinds of problems and solutions are dumped. The mix of garbage depends on the mix of labeled cans available, on what garbage is currently produced and the speed with which garbage and garbage cans are removed.

Types of Decision Making

- **Programmed Decisions: routine, almost automatic process.**
 - Managers have made decision many times before.
 - There are rules or guidelines to follow.
 - Example: Deciding to reorder office supplies.
- **Non-programmed Decisions: unusual situations that have not been often addressed.**
 - No rules to follow since the decision is new.
 - These decisions are made based on information, and a manager's intuition, and judgment.
 - Example: Should the firm invest in a new technology?

Liabilities of Group Decision Making

- Groups often work more slowly than individuals.

- Groups decisions involve considerable compromise that may lead to less than optimal decisions.
- Groups are often dominated by one individual or a small clique, thereby negating many of the virtues of group processes.
- Overreliance on group decision making can inhibit management's ability to act quickly and decisively when necessary

Individual vs. Group Decision Making

- In *establishing objectives*, groups are probably superior to individuals because of the greater amount of knowledge available to groups.
- In *identifying alternatives*, the individual efforts of group members encourage a broad search in various functional areas of the organization.
- In *evaluating alternatives*, the collective judgement of the group, with its wider range of viewpoints, seems superior to that of the individual decision maker.
- In *choosing an alternative*, group interaction and the achievement of consensus usually result in the acceptance of more risk than would be accepted by an individual decision maker.
- *Implementing a decision*, whether or not it was made by a group, is usually accomplished by individual managers.

Understanding and managing Groups process

Understanding Groups

- Define the different types of groups.
- Describe the five stages of group development.

Explaining Work Group Behavior

- Explain the major components that determine group performance and satisfaction.
- Discuss how roles, norms, conformity, status systems, group size, and group cohesiveness influence group behavior.
- Explain how group norms can both help and hurt an organization.
- Define groupthink and social loafing.
- Describe the relationships between group cohesiveness and productivity.
- Discuss how conflict management influences group behavior.
- Tell the advantages and disadvantages of group decision making.

Creating Effective Teams

- Compare groups and teams.
- Explain why teams have become so popular in organizations.
- Describe the four most common types of teams.

What is a Group?

A group is:

- “two or more people who share a common definition and evaluation of themselves and behave in accordance with such a definition”
(Vaughan & Hogg, 2002, p. 200)

- a collection of people who interact with one another, accept rights and obligations as members and who share a common identity.

Criteria for a group include:

- formal social structure
- face-to-face interaction
- 2 or more persons
- common fate
- common goals
- interdependence
- self-definition as group members
- recognition by others

Formal groups

Work groups defined by the organization's structure that have designated work assignments and tasks.

Appropriate behaviors are defined by and directed toward organizational goals.

Informal groups

Groups that are independently formed to meet the social needs of their members.

Stages in Group Development

Forming

- Members join and begin the process of defining the group's purpose, structure, and leadership.

Storming

- Intragroup conflict occurs as individuals resist control by the group and disagree over leadership.

Norming

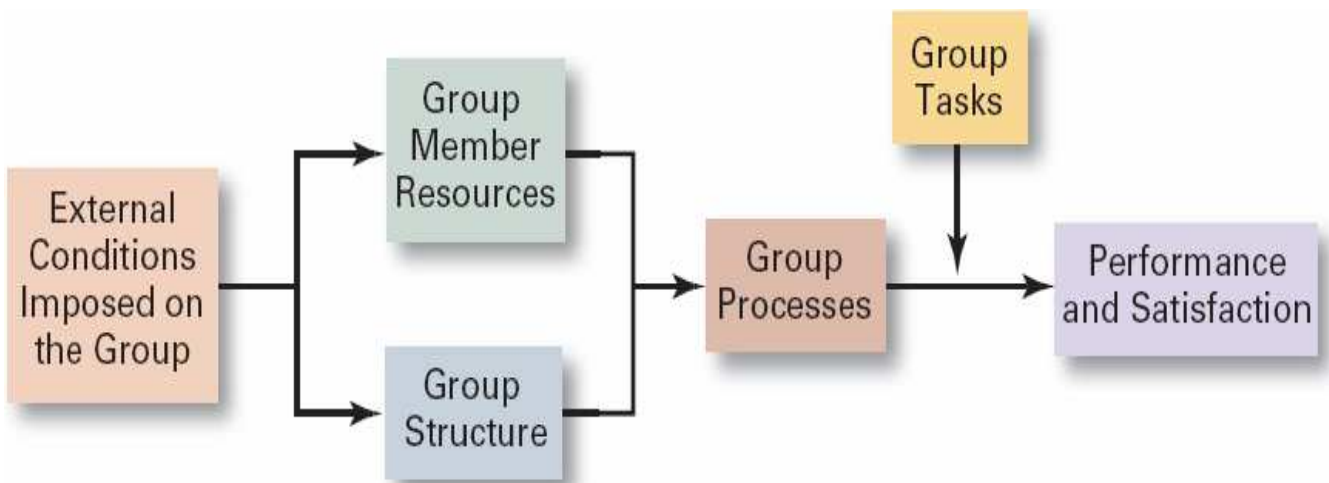
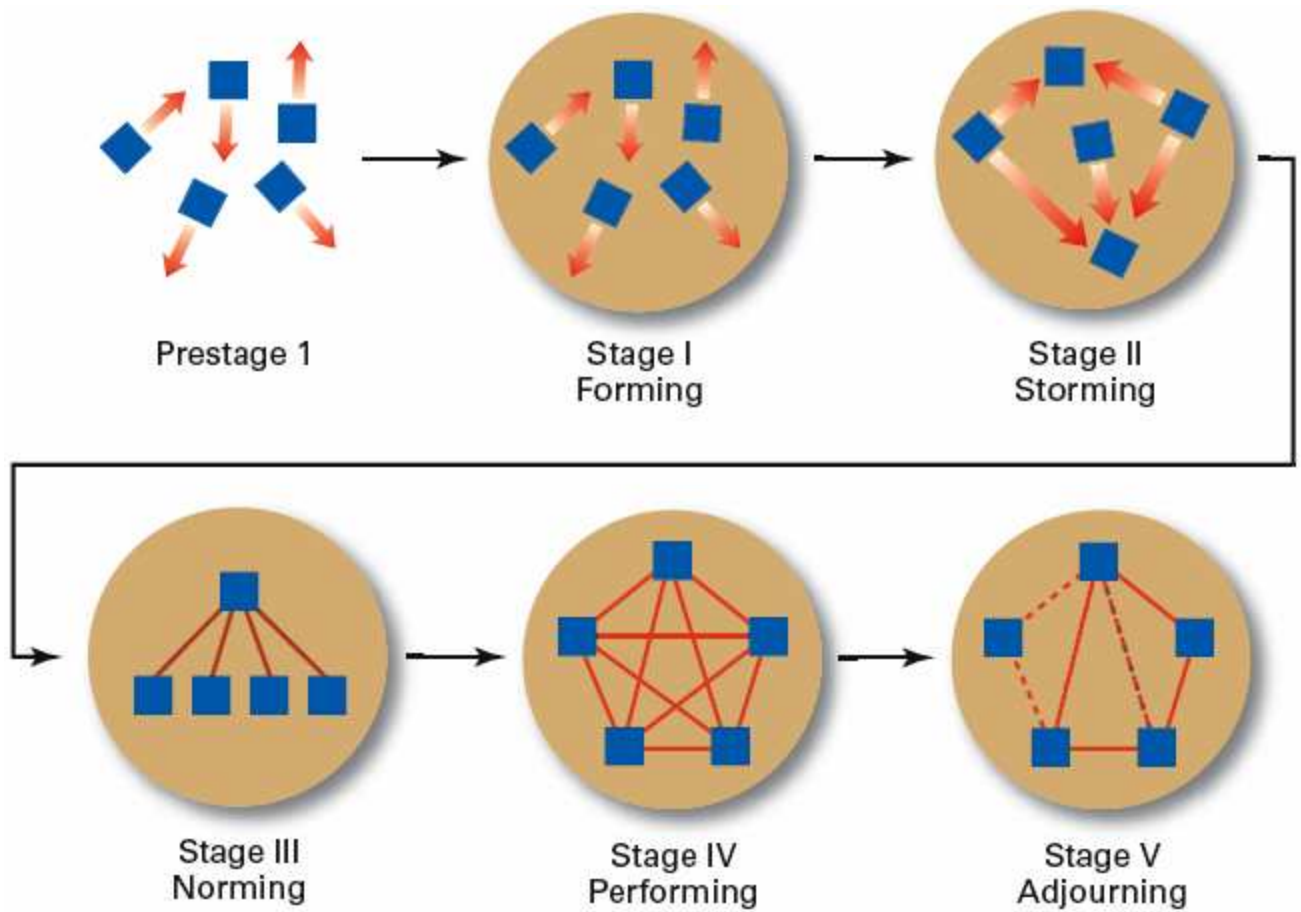
- Close relationships develop as the group becomes cohesive and establishes its norms for acceptable behavior.

Performing

- A fully functional group structure allows the group to focus on performing the task at hand.

Adjourning

- The group prepares to disband and is no longer concerned with high levels of performance.



Group Cohesiveness

- The degree to which members are attracted to a group and share the group's goals.
 - ❖ Highly cohesive groups are more effective and productive than less cohesive groups when their goals aligned with organizational goals.

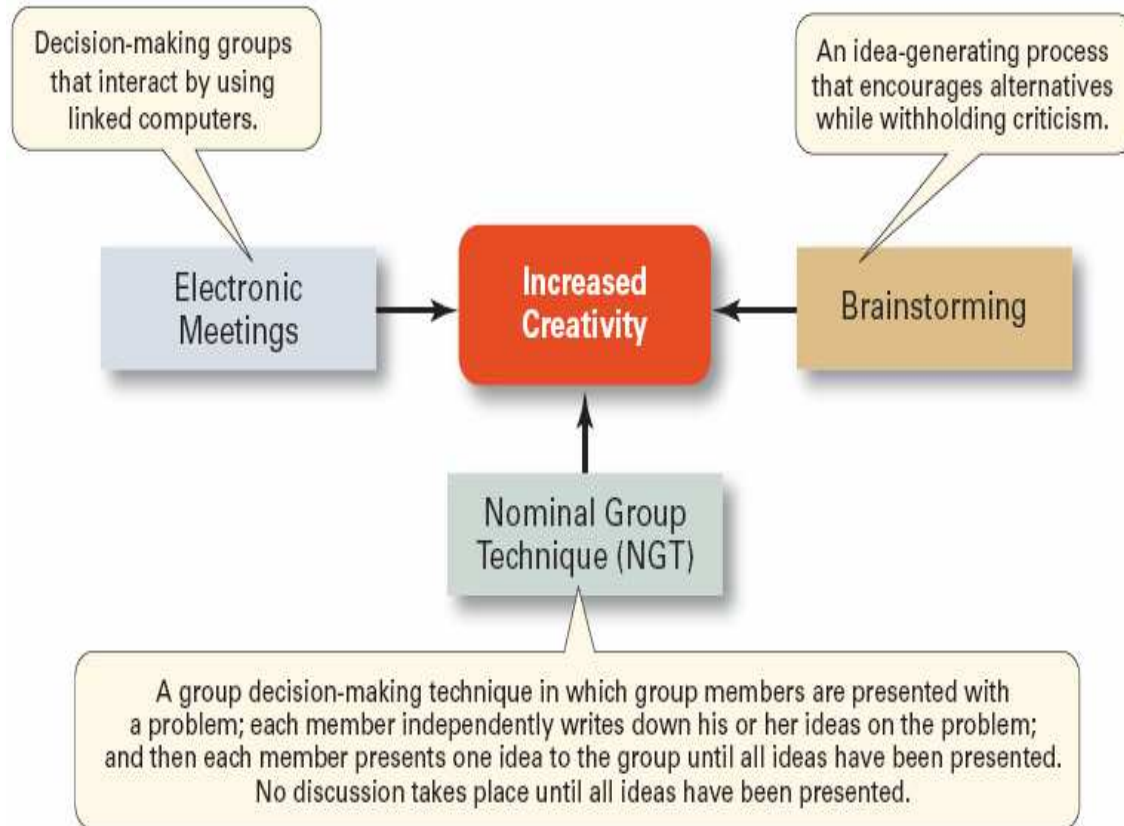
		Cohesiveness	
		High	Low
Alignment of Group and Organizational Goals	High	Strong Increase in Productivity	Moderate Increase in Productivity
	Low	Decrease in Productivity	No Significant Effect on Productivity

Advantages

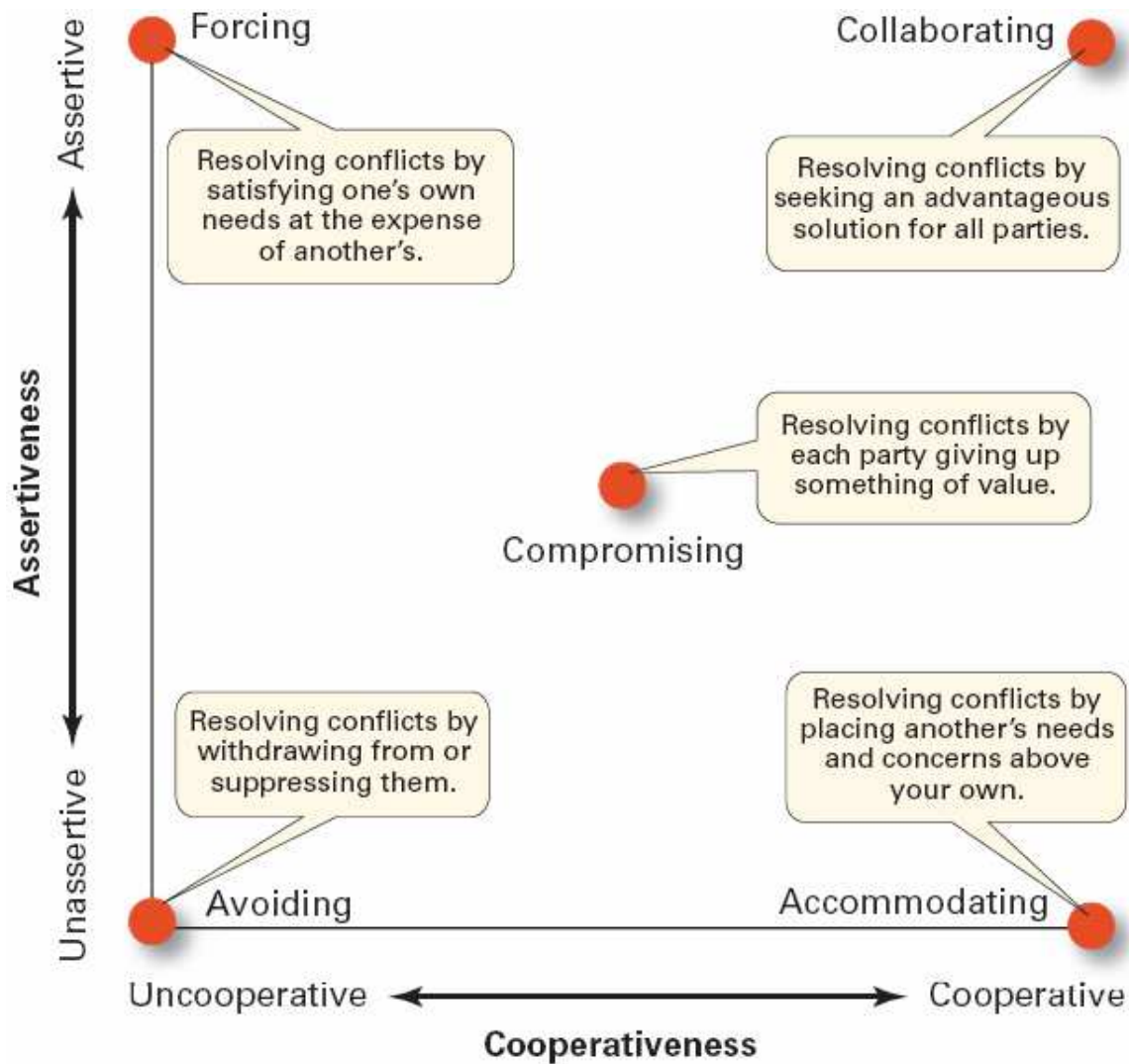
- Generates more complete information and knowledge.
- Generates more diverse alternatives.
- Increases acceptance of a solution.
- Increases legitimacy of decision.

• Disadvantages

- Time consuming
- Minority domination
- Pressures to conform
- Ambiguous responsibility



Conflict-Management Techniques



Values & Attitudes

Values

Basic convictions that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence.

Value System

A hierarchy based on a ranking of an individual's values in terms of their intensity.

Importance of Values

- Provide understanding of the attitudes, motivation, and behaviors of individuals and cultures.

- Influence our perception of the world around us.
- Represent interpretations of “right” and “wrong.”
- Imply that some behaviors or outcomes are preferred over others.

Terminal Values

Desirable end-states of existence; the goals that a person would like to achieve during his or her lifetime.

Terminal Values

A comfortable life (a prosperous life)
An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)
A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)
A world at peace (free of war and conflict)
A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)
Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)
Family security (taking care of loved ones)
Freedom (independence, free choice)
Happiness (contentedness)
Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)
Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)
National security (protection from attack)
Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)
Salvation (saved, eternal life)
Self-respect (self-esteem)
Social recognition (respect, admiration)
True friendship (close companionship)
Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)

Instrumental Values

Preferable modes of behavior or means of achieving one’s terminal values.

Instrumental Values

Ambitious (hardworking, aspiring)

Broad-minded (open-minded)

Capable (competent, effective)

Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful)

Clean (neat, tidy)

Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)

Forgiving (willing to pardon others)

Helpful (working for the welfare of others)

Honest (sincere, truthful)

Imaginative (daring, creative)

Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)

Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)

Logical (consistent, rational)

Loving (affectionate, tender)

Obedient (dutiful, respectful)

Polite (courteous, well-mannered)

Responsible (dependable, reliable)

Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined)

Attitudes

Evaluative statements or judgments concerning objects, people, or events.

Cognitive component

The opinion or belief segment of an attitude.

Affective Component

The emotional or feeling segment of an attitude.

Behavioral Component

An intention to behave in a certain way toward someone or something.

Learning

Learning

A relatively permanent change in knowledge or behavior that results from practice or experience

Classical Conditioning

Learning that takes place when the learner recognizes the connection between an unconditioned stimulus and a conditioned stimulus.

Stimulus

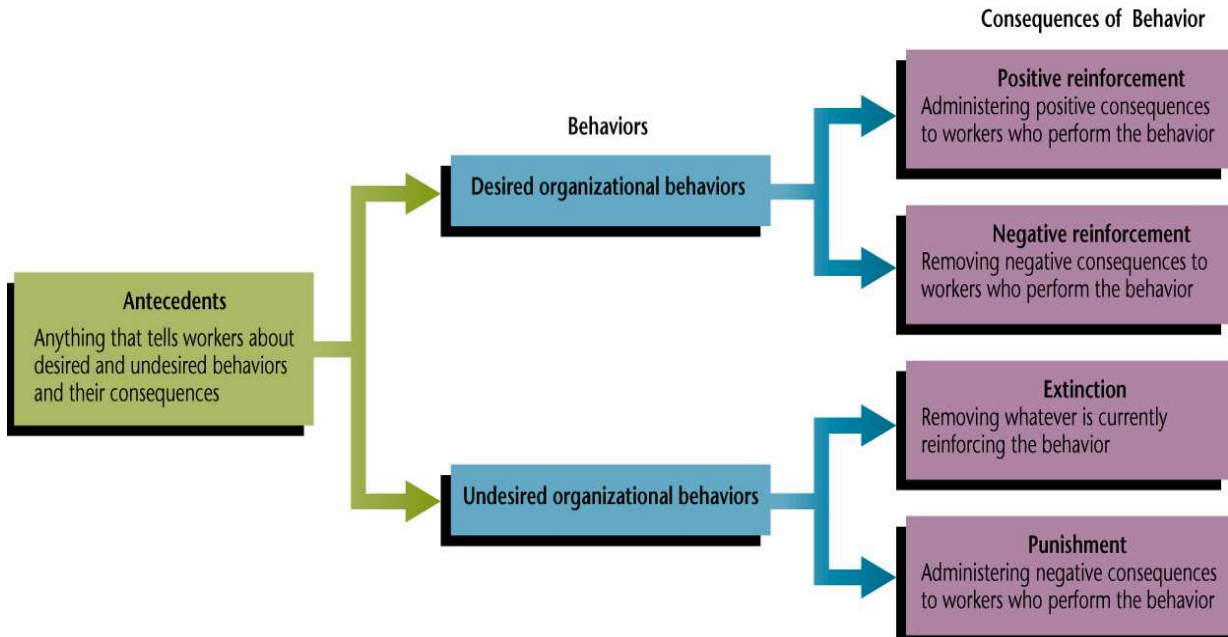
- **Conditioned Stimulus:** A neutral stimulus that, as a result of being paired with an unconditioned stimulus, elicits a response.
- **Unconditioned Stimulus:** Anything that produces an unconditioned response.

Response

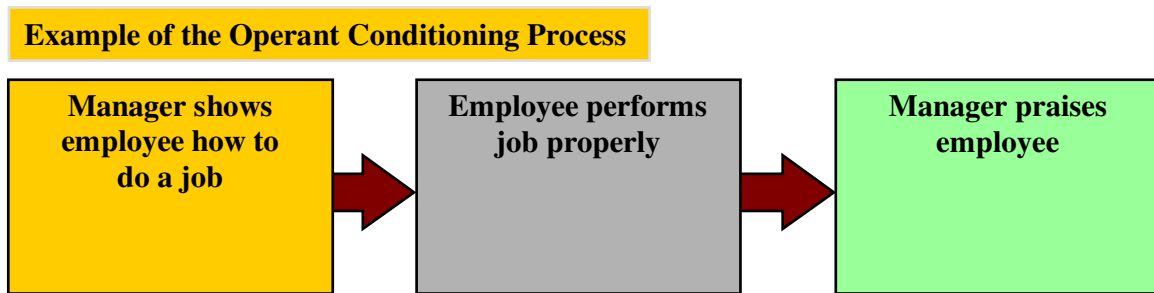
- **Unconditioned Response:** A response that occurs naturally in the presence of a given stimulus.
- **Conditioned Response:** A response that is called forth by a previously neutral stimulus (the conditioned stimulus.)

Operant Conditioning

- Learning that takes place when the learner recognizes the connection between a behavior and its consequences.
 - Behaviors with positive consequences are acquired.
 - Behaviors with negative consequences are eliminated
- Law of Effect: tendency for behaviors leading to desirable consequences to be strengthened and for behaviors leading to undesirable consequences to be weakened



An Example



Operant Conditioning Keys

- **Antecedents:** Anything that tells workers about desired and undesired behaviors and their consequences.
- **Behaviors:** Desirable organizational behaviors and undesirable organizational behaviors.
- **Consequences of Behavior:** Include positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement for desirable organizational behaviors; and extinction and punishment for undesirable organizational behaviors.

Consequences of Behavior

- **Positive Reinforcement:** Administering positive consequences to workers who perform the desired behavior.
- **Negative Reinforcement:** Removing negative consequences to workers who perform the desired behavior.
- **Extinction:** Removing whatever is currently reinforcing the undesirable behavior.
- **Punishment:** Administering negative consequences to workers who perform the undesirable behavior.

Reinforcement Strategies

- Immediate Reinforcement
- Delayed Reinforcement
- Continuous Reinforcement
- Partial Reinforcement

Reinforcement Schedules

- Fixed-Interval Schedule
- Variable-Interval Schedule
- Fixed-Ratio Schedule
- Variable-Ratio Schedule

Shaping

The reinforcement of successive and closer approximations to a desired behavior.

Social Learning Theory

A learning theory that takes into account the fact that thoughts and feelings influence learning. Necessary components include **vicarious learning**, **self-control**, and **self-efficacy**.

Observational Learning (Modeling): people can learn new behaviors by observing the rewards and punishments given to others.

Communication

Communication definition

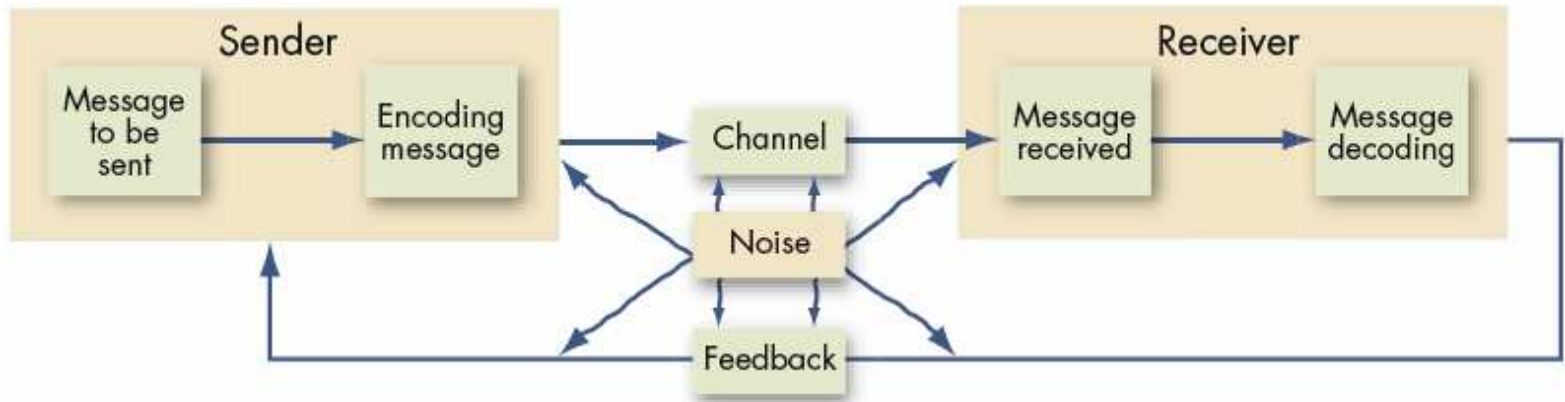
The transference and the understanding of meaning.

Communication Functions

1. Control member behavior.
2. Foster motivation for what is to be done.
3. Provide a release for emotional expression.
4. Provide information needed to make decisions.

The Communication Process Model

The steps between a source and a receiver that result in the transference and understanding of meaning.



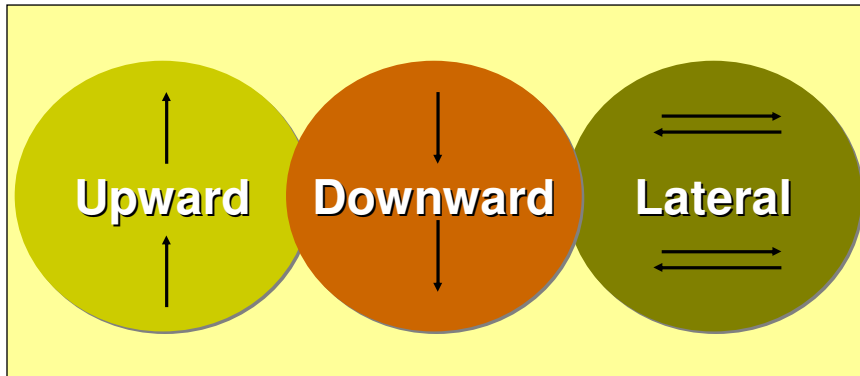
➤ **Channel**

- The medium selected by the sender through which the message travels to the receiver.

➤ **Types of Channels**

- Formal Channels
 - Are established by the organization and transmit messages that are related to the professional activities of members.
- Informal Channels
 - Used to transmit personal or social messages in the organization. These informal channels are spontaneous and emerge as a response to individual choices.

Direction of Communication

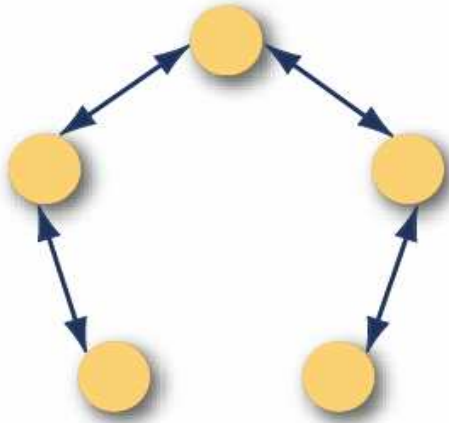


Interpersonal Communication

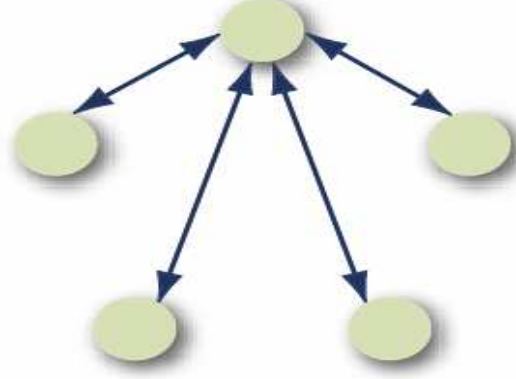
- Oral Communication
 - Advantages: Speed and feedback.
 - Disadvantage: Distortion of the message.
- Written Communication
 - Advantages: Tangible and verifiable.
 - Disadvantages: Time consuming and lacks feedback.
- Nonverbal Communication
 - Advantages: Supports other communications and provides observable expression of emotions and feelings.
 - Disadvantage: Misperception of body language or gestures can influence receiver's interpretation of message.

Three Common Formal Small-Group Networks

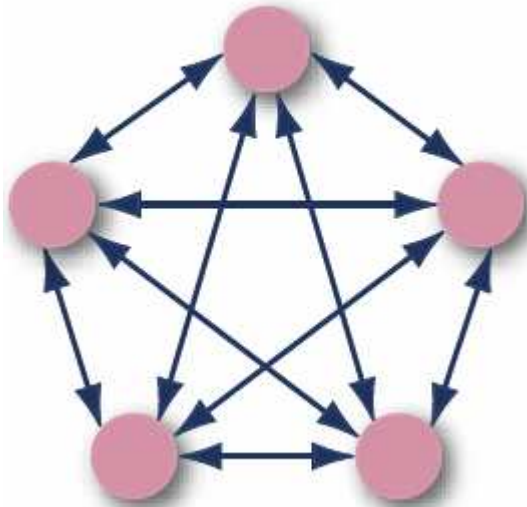
Chain



Wheel



All channel



Grapevine

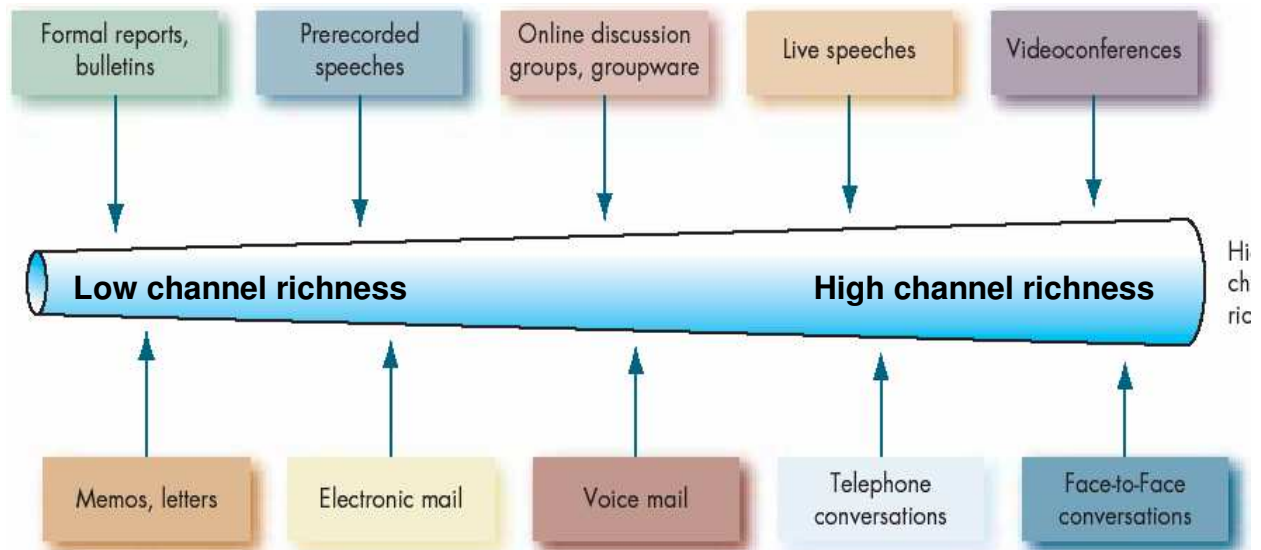
➤ Grapevine Characteristics

- Informal, not controlled by management.
- Perceived by most employees as being more believable and reliable than formal communications.
- Largely used to serve the self-interests of those who use it.
- Results from:
 - Desire for information about important situations
 - Ambiguous conditions
 - Conditions that cause anxiety

Suggestions for Reducing the Negative Consequences of Rumors

1. Announce timetables for making important decisions.
2. Explain decisions and behaviors that may appear inconsistent or secretive.
3. Emphasize the downside, as well as the upside, of current decisions and future plans.
4. Openly discuss worst-case possibilities—it is almost never as anxiety-provoking as the unspoken fantasy.

Information Richness of Communication Channels



Barriers to Effective Communication

Filtering

A sender's manipulation of information so that it will be seen more favorably by the receiver.

Selective Perception

People selectively interpret what they see on the basis of their interests, background, experience, and attitudes.

Information Overload

A condition in which information inflow exceeds an individual's processing capacity.

Emotions

How a receiver feels at the time a message is received will influence how the message is interpreted.

Language

Words have different meanings to different people.

Communication Apprehension

Undue tension and anxiety about oral communication, written communication, or both.

Perception

- **What Is Perception?**
 - A process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment.
- **Why Is it Important?**
 - Because people's behaviour is based on their perception of what reality is, not on reality itself.
 - The world as it is perceived is the world that is behaviourally important.

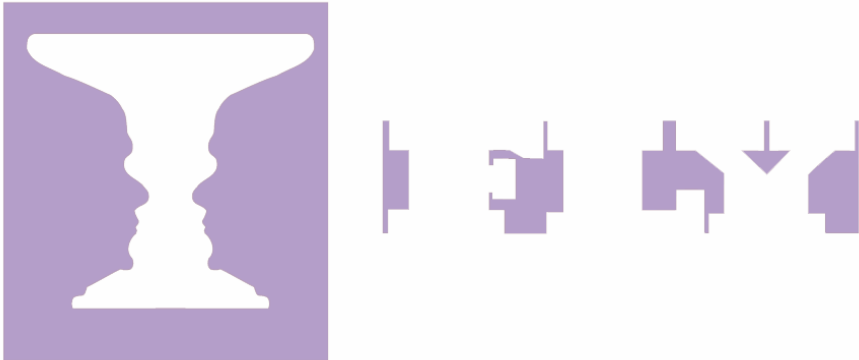
Why We Study Perceptions

- We study this topic to better understand how people make attributions about events.
- We don't see reality. We interpret what we see and call it reality.
- The attribution process guides our behaviour, regardless of the truth of the attribution.

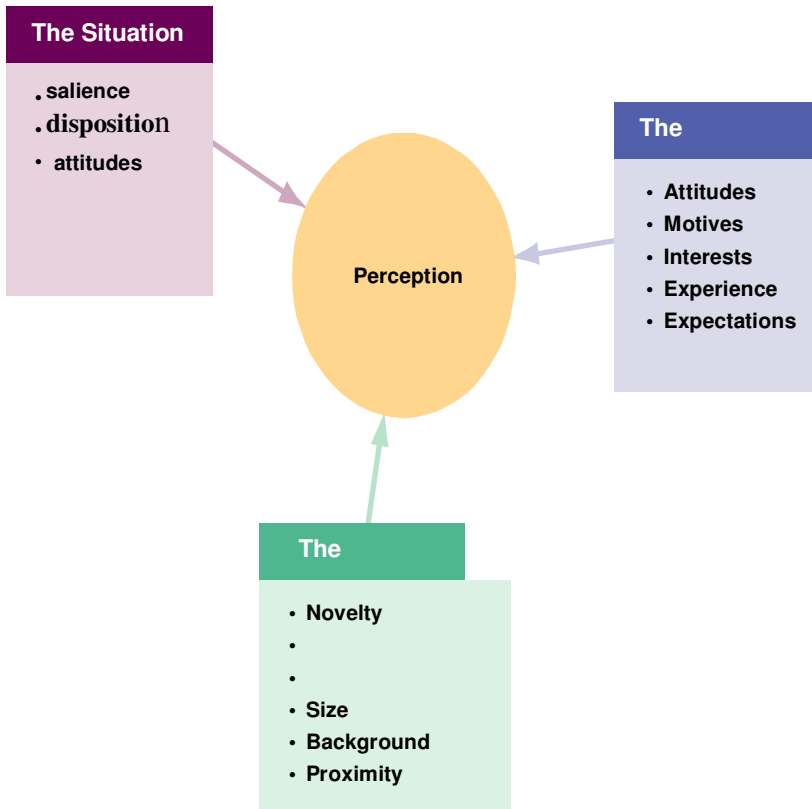
Factors Influencing Perception

- The Perceiver
- The Target
- The Situation

Figure-Ground Illustrations



Factors that Influence Perception



Factors Affecting Judgment

- Attribution Theory
- Perceptual Errors
 - Selective Perception
 - Halo Effect

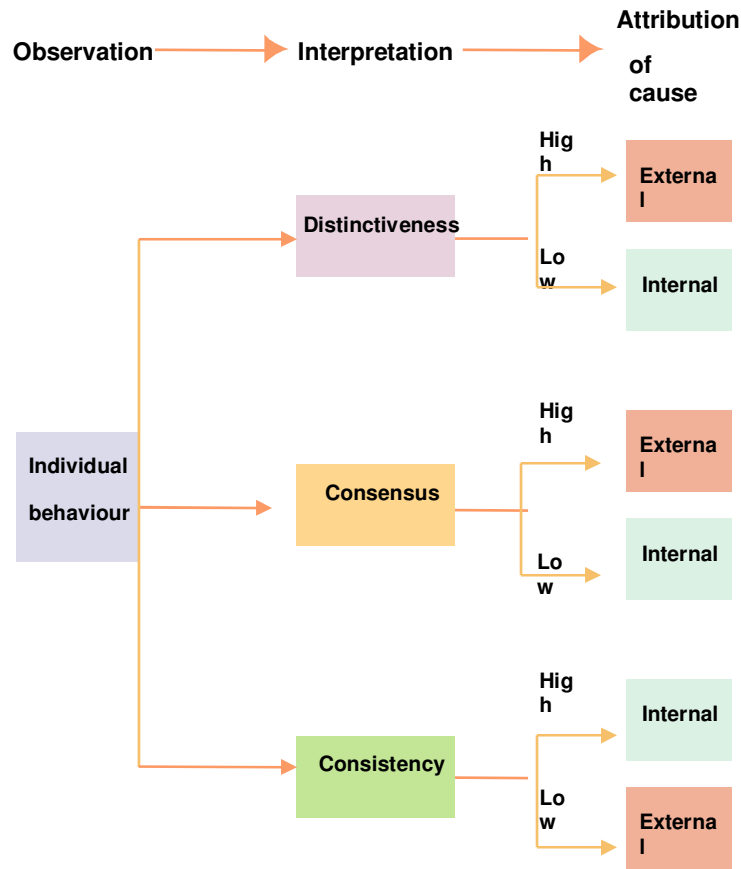
- Contrast Effects
- Projection
- Stereotyping

Attribution Theory

- When individuals observe behaviour, they attempt to determine whether it is internally or externally caused.
 - Distinctiveness
 - Does individual act the same way in other situations?
 - Consensus
 - Does individual act the same as others in same situation?
 - Consistency
 - Does the individual act the same way over time?

- Fundamental Attribution Error
 - The tendency to underestimate the influence of external factors and overestimate the influence of internal factors when making judgments about the behaviour of others.
- Self-Serving Bias
 - The tendency for individuals to attribute their own successes to internal factors while putting the blame for failures on external factors.

Attribution Theory



Perceptual Errors

- **Selective Perception**
 - People selectively interpret what they see based on their interests, background, experience, and attitudes
- **Halo Effect**
 - Drawing a general impression about an individual based on a single characteristic
- **Contrast Effects**
 - A person's evaluation is affected by comparisons with other individuals recently encountered
- **Projection**
 - Attributing one's own characteristics to other people
- **Stereotyping**
 - Judging someone on the basis of your perception of the group to which that person belongs

Motivational concepts and theories

Introduction

Motivation is a reason or set of reasons for engaging in a particular behavior, especially human behavior as studied in psychology and neuropsychology. The reasons may include basic needs (e.g., food, water, shelter) or an object, goal, state of being, or ideal that is desirable, which may or may not be viewed as "positive," such as seeking a state of being in which pain is absent. The motivation for a behavior may also be attributed to less-apparent reasons such as altruism or morality.

Advantages of Motivation

A positive motivation philosophy and practice should improve "productivity, quality and service." Motivation helps people to:

- achieve goals
- gain a positive perspective
- create the power to change
- build self-esteem and capability
- manage their own development and help others with theirs

What is Motivation ?

The word motivation is coined from the Latin word "movere", which means to move. Motivation is defined as an internal drive that activates behavior and gives it direction. The term motivation theory is concerned with the processes that describe why and how human behavior is activated and directed. It is regarded as one of the most important areas of study in the field of organizational behavior. There are two different categories of motivation theories such as content theories, and process theories. Even though there are different motivation theories, none of them are universally accepted.

What Is Motivation?



Motivational Concepts

Reward and Reinforcement

A reward is that which follows an occurrence of a specific behavior with the intention of acknowledging the behavior in a positive way. A reward often has the intent of encouraging the behavior to happen again.

There are two kinds of rewards, extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic rewards are external to, or outside of, the individual; for example, praise or money. Intrinsic rewards are internal to, or within, the individual; for example, satisfaction or accomplishment.

Some authors distinguish between two forms of intrinsic motivation: one based on enjoyment, the other on obligation. In this context, obligation refers to motivation based on what an individual thinks ought to be done. For instance, a feeling of responsibility for a mission may lead to helping others beyond what is easily observable, rewarded, or fun.

A reinforcer is different from reward, in that reinforcement is intended to create a measured increase in the rate of a desirable behavior following the addition of something to the environment.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation is evident when people engage in an activity for its own sake, without some obvious external incentive present. A hobby is a typical example.

Intrinsic motivation has been intensely studied by educational psychologists since the 1970s, and numerous studies have found it to be associated with high educational achievement and enjoyment by students.

There is currently no "grand unified theory" to explain the origin or elements of intrinsic motivation. Most explanations combine elements of Bernard Weiner's attribution theory, Bandura's work on self-efficacy and other studies relating to locus of control and goal orientation. Thus it is thought that students are more likely to experience intrinsic motivation if they:

1. Attribute their educational results to internal factors that they can control (eg. the amount of effort they put in, not 'fixed ability').
2. Believe they can be effective agents in reaching desired goals (eg. the results are not determined by dumb luck.)
3. Are motivated towards deep 'mastery' of a topic, instead of just rote-learning 'performance' to get good grades.

Note that the idea of reward for achievement is absent from this model of intrinsic motivation, since rewards are an extrinsic factor.

In knowledge-sharing communities and organizations, people often cite altruistic reasons for their participation, including contributing to a common good, a moral obligation to the group, mentorship or 'giving back'. This model of intrinsic motivation has emerged from three decades of research by hundreds of educationalists and is still evolving. (See also Goal Theory.)

In work environments, money is typically viewed as an important goal (having food, clothes etc.) may well be more powerful than the direct motivation provided by an enjoyable workplace.

Coercion

The most obvious form of motivation is coercion, where the avoidance of pain or other negative consequences has an immediate effect. Extreme use of coercion is considered slavery. While coercion is considered morally reprehensible in many philosophies, it is widely practiced on prisoners, students in mandatory schooling, within the nuclear family unit (on children), and in the form of conscription. Critics of modern capitalism charge that without social safety networks, wage slavery is inevitable. However, many capitalists such as Ayn Rand have been very vocal against coercion^[citation needed]. Successful coercion sometimes can take priority over other types of motivation. Self-coercion is rarely substantially negative (typically only negative in the sense that it avoids a positive, such as undergoing an expensive dinner or a period of relaxation), however it is interesting in that it illustrates how lower levels of motivation may be sometimes tweaked to satisfy higher ones.

Self control

The self-control of motivation is increasingly understood as a subset of emotional intelligence; a person may be highly intelligent according to a more conservative definition (as measured by many intelligence tests), yet unmotivated to dedicate this intelligence to certain tasks. Yale School of Management professor Victor Vroom's "expectancy theory" provides an account of when people will decide whether to exert self control to pursue a particular goal.

Drives and desires can be described as a deficiency or need that activates behaviour that is aimed at a goal or an incentive. These are thought to originate within the individual and may not require external stimuli to encourage the behaviour. Basic drives could be sparked by deficiencies such as hunger, which motivates a person to seek food; whereas more subtle drives might be the desire for praise and approval, which motivates a person to behave in a manner pleasing to others.

By contrast, the role of extrinsic rewards and stimuli can be seen in the example of training animals by giving them treats when they perform a trick correctly. The treat motivates the animals to perform the trick consistently, even later when the treat is removed from the process.

Theories of Motivation

No single theory can account for all aspects of biological motivation, but each of the major approaches contributes something to our understanding of motivation, so we need to understand their strengths and weaknesses.

Drive Reduction Theories

There are a number of drive theories. The **Drive Reduction Theory** grows out of the concept that we have certain biological needs, such as hunger. As time passes the strength of the drive increases as it is not satisfied. Then as we satisfy that drive by fulfilling its desire, such as eating, the drive's strength is reduced. It is based on the theories of Freud and the idea of feedback control systems, such as a thermostat.

There are several problems, however, that leave the validity of the Drive Reduction Theory open for debate. The first problem is that it does not explain how Secondary Reinforcers reduce drive. For example, money does not satisfy any biological or psychological need but reduces drive on a regular basis through a pay check second-order conditioning. Secondly, if the drive reduction theory held true we would not be able to explain how a hungry human being can prepare a meal without eating the food before they finished cooking it.

However, when comparing this to a real life situation such as preparing food, one does get hungrier as the food is being made (drive increases), and after the food has been consumed the drive decreases. The only reason the food does not get eaten before is the human element of restraint and has nothing to do with drive theory. Also, the food will either be nicer after it is cooked, or it won't be edible at all before it is cooked.

Cognitive dissonance theory

Suggested by Leon Festinger, this occurs when an individual experiences some degree of mental discomfort resulting from an incompatibility between two cognitions. For example, a consumer

may seek to reassure himself regarding a purchase, feeling that another decision may have been, in retrospect, preferable.

Another example of cognitive dissonance is when a belief and a behavior are in conflict. A person may believe smoking is bad for one's health and yet continues to smoke.

Need Achievement Theory

David McClelland's **achievement motivation theory** envisages that a person has need for three things but people differ in degree in which the various needs influence their behavior: Need for achievement, Need for power, and Need for affiliation

Interests Theory

Holland Codes are used in the assessment of interests as in Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI; Holland, 1985). One way to look at interests is that if a person has a very strong interest in one of the 6 Holland areas, then obtaining outcomes in that area will be very strongly reinforcing relative to obtaining outcomes in areas of weak interest.

Abraham Maslow's "Need Hierarchy Theory" :

One of the most widely mentioned theories of motivation is the hierarchy of needs theory put forth by psychologist Abraham Maslow. Maslow saw human needs in the form of a hierarchy, ascending from the lowest to the highest, and he concluded that when one set of needs is satisfied, this kind of need ceases to be a motivator.



As per his theory these needs are :

(i) Physiological needs :

These are important needs for sustaining the human life. Food, water, warmth, shelter, sleep, medicine and education are the basic physiological needs which fall in the primary list of need satisfaction. Maslow was of an opinion that until these needs were satisfied to a degree to maintain life, no other motivating factors can work.

(ii) Security or Safety needs :

These are the needs to be free of physical danger and of the fear of losing a job, property, food or shelter. It also includes protection against any emotional harm.

(iii) Social needs :

Since people are social beings, they need to belong and be accepted by others. People try to satisfy their need for affection, acceptance and friendship.

(iv) Esteem needs :

According to Maslow, once people begin to satisfy their need to belong, they tend to want to be held in esteem both by themselves and by others. This kind of need produces such satisfaction as power, prestige status and self-confidence. It includes both internal esteem factors like self-respect, autonomy and achievements and external esteem factors such as status, recognition and attention.

(v) Need for self-actualization :

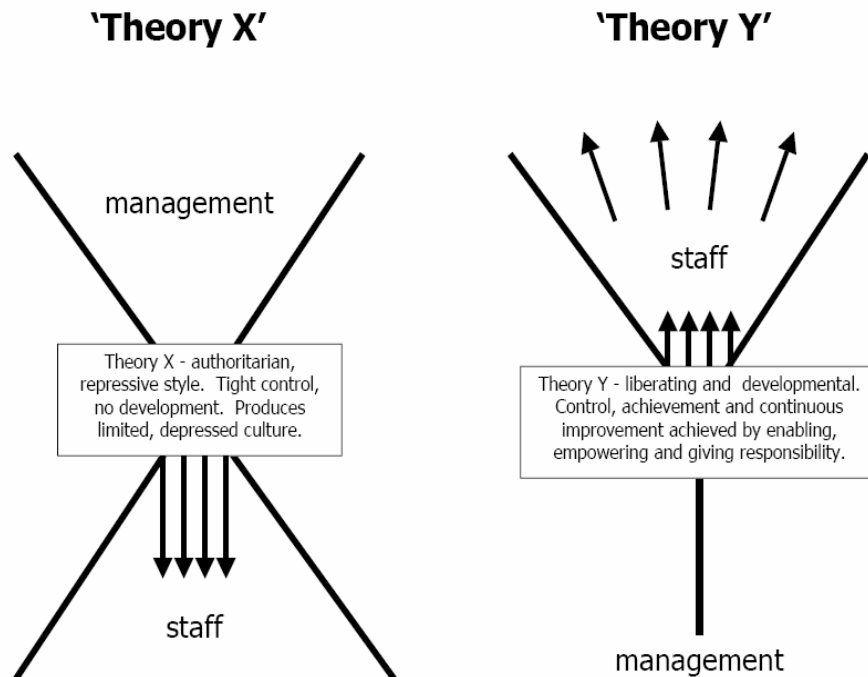
Maslow regards this as the highest need in his hierarchy. It is the drive to become what one is capable of becoming, it includes growth, achieving one's potential and self-fulfillment. It is to maximize one's potential and to accomplish something.

As each of these needs are substantially satisfied, the next need becomes dominant. From the standpoint of motivation, the theory would say that although no need is ever fully gratified, a substantially satisfied need no longer motivates. So if you want to motivate someone, you need to understand what level of the hierarchy that person is on and focus on satisfying those needs or needs above that level.

Maslow's need theory has received wide recognition, particularly among practicing managers. This can be attributed to the theory's intuitive logic and ease of understanding. However, research does not validate these theory. Maslow provided no empirical evidence and other several studies that sought to validate the theory found no support for it.

“Theory X and Theory Y” of Douglas McGregor :

McGregor, in his book “The Human side of Enterprise” states that people inside the organization can be managed in two ways. The first is basically negative, which falls under the category X and the other is basically positive, which falls under the category Y. After viewing the way in which the manager dealt with employees, McGregor concluded that a manager’s view of the nature of human beings is based on a certain grouping of assumptions and that he or she tends to mold his or her behavior towards subordinates according to these assumptions.



Under the assumptions of theory X :

- Employees inherently do not like work and whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.
- Because employees dislike work, they have to be forced, coerced or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.
- Employees avoid responsibilities and do not work full formal directions are issued.
- Most workers place a greater importance on security over all other factors and display little ambition.

In contrast under the assumptions of theory Y :

- Physical and mental effort at work is as natural as rest or play.
- People do exercise self-control and self-direction and if they are committed to those goals.
- Average human beings are willing to take responsibility and exercise imagination, ingenuity and creativity in solving the problems of the organization.

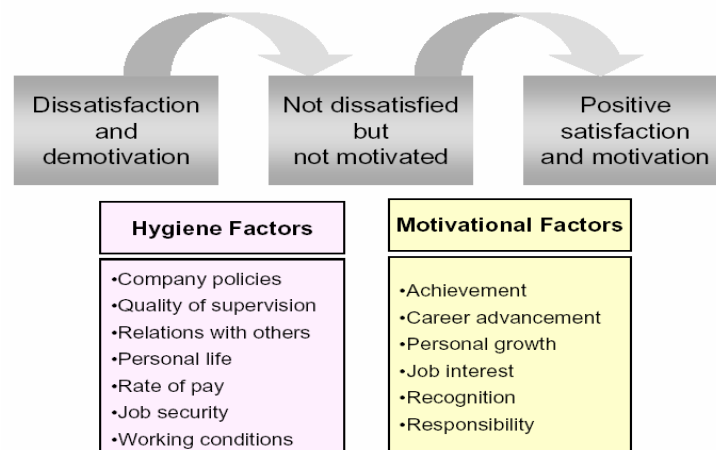
- That the way the things are organized, the average human being's brainpower is only partly used.

On analysis of the assumptions it can be detected that theory X assumes that lower-order needs dominate individuals and theory Y assumes that higher-order needs dominate individuals. An organization that is run on Theory X lines tends to be authoritarian in nature, the word "authoritarian" suggests such ideas as the "power to enforce obedience" and the "right to command." In contrast Theory Y organizations can be described as "participative", where the aims of the organization and of the individuals in it are integrated; individuals can achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts towards the success of the organization.

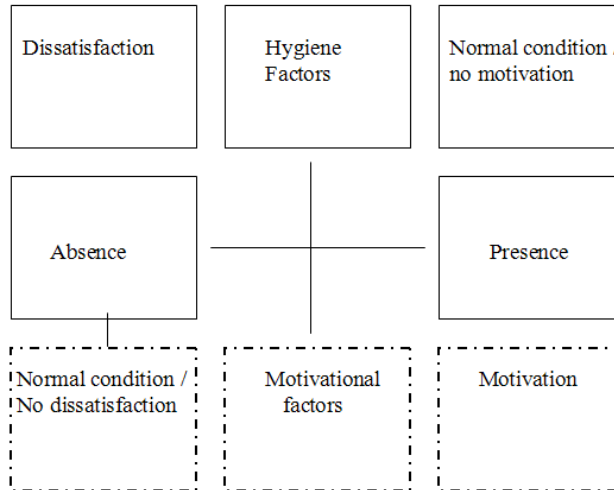
However, this theory has been criticized widely for generalization of work and human behavior.

Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory



Frederick has tried to modify Maslow's need Hierarchy theory. His theory is also known as two-factor theory or Hygiene theory. He stated that there are certain satisfiers and dissatisfiers for employees at work. In-trinsic factors are related to job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors are associated with dissatisfaction. He devised his theory on the question : "What do people want from their jobs ?" He asked people to describe in detail, such situations when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad. From the responses that he received, he concluded that opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction. Removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying. He states that presence of certain factors in the organization is natural and the presence of the same does not lead to motivation. However, their nonpresence leads to demotivation. In similar manner there are certain factors, the absence of which causes no dissatisfaction, but their presence has motivational impact.



Examples of Hygiene factors are :

Security, status, relationship with subordinates, personal life, salary, work conditions, relationship with supervisor and company policy and administration.

Examples of Motivational factors are :

Growth prospectus job advancement, responsibility, challenges, recognition and achievements.

Vroom's Valence x Expectancy theory

The most widely accepted explanations of motivation has been propounded by Victor Vroom. His theory is commonly known as expectancy theory. The theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a specific 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 to make this simple, expectancy theory says that an employee can be motivated to perform better when their is a belief that the better performance will lead to good performance appraisal and that this shall result into realization of personal goal in form of some reward. Therefore an employee is :

$$\text{Motivation} = \text{Valence} \times \text{Expectancy}.$$

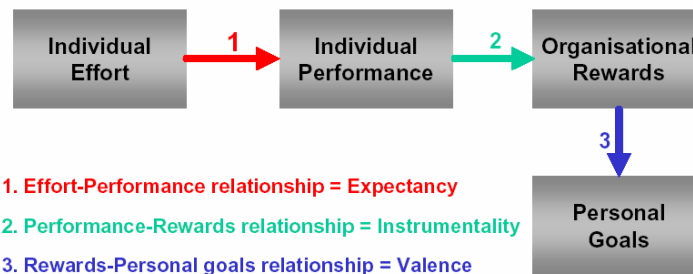
The theory focuses on three things :

- Efforts and performance relationship
- Performance and reward relationship
- Rewards and personal goal relationship

This leads us to a conclusion that :

Expectancy Theory

(Vroom)



Clayton Alderfer's ERG Theory :

Alderfer has tried to rebuild the hierarchy of needs of Maslow into another model named ERG i.e. Existence – Relatedness – Growth. According to him there are 3 groups of core needs as mentioned above. The existence group is concerned mainly with providing basic material existence. The second group is the individuals need to maintain interpersonal relationship with other members in the group. The final group is the intrinsic desire to grow and develop personally. The major conclusions of this theory are :

1. In an individual, more than one need may be operative at the same time.
2. If a higher need goes unsatisfied than the desire to satisfy a lower need intensifies.
3. It also contains the frustration-regression dimension.

Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory, developed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan, focuses on the importance of intrinsic motivation in driving human behavior. Like Maslow's hierarchical theory and others that built on it, SDT posits a natural tendency toward growth and development. Unlike these other theories, however, SDT does not include any sort of "autopilot" for achievement, but instead requires active encouragement from the environment. The primary factors that encourage motivation and development are autonomy, competence feedback, and relatedness.

McClelland's Theory of Needs

David McClelland has developed a theory on three types of motivating needs :

1. Need for Power
2. Need for Affiliation
3. Need for Achievement

Basically people for high need for power are inclined towards influence and control. They like to be at the center and are good orators. They are demanding in nature, forceful in manners and ambitious in life. They can be motivated to perform if they are given key positions or power positions.

In the second category are the people who are social in nature. They try to affiliate themselves with individuals and groups. They are driven by love and faith. They like to build a friendly environment around themselves. Social recognition and affiliation with others provides them motivation.

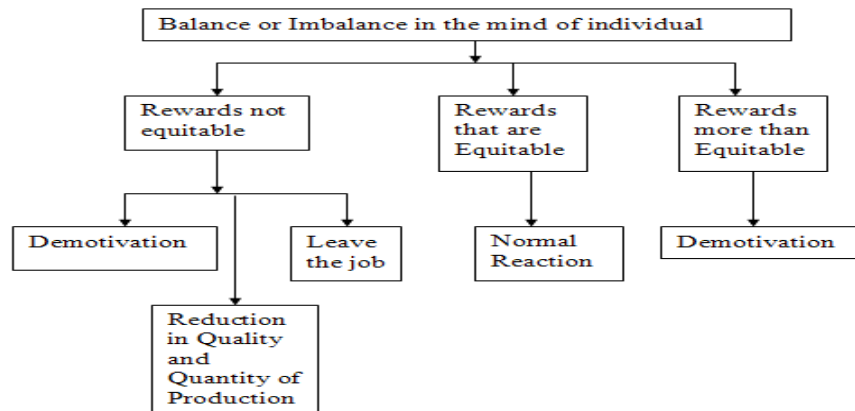
People in the third area are driven by the challenge of success and the fear of failure. Their need for achievement is moderate and they set for themselves moderately difficult tasks. They are analytical in nature and take calculated risks. Such people are motivated to perform when they see atleast some chances of success.

McClelland observed that with the advancement in hierarchy the need for power and achievement increased rather than Affiliation. He also observed that people who were at the top, later ceased to be motivated by this drives.

Equity Theory

As per the equity theory of J. Stacey Adams, people are motivated by their beliefs about the reward structure as being fair or unfair, relative to the inputs. People have a tendency to use subjective judgment to balance the outcomes and inputs in the relationship for comparisons between different individuals. Accordingly :

$$\frac{\text{Out comes by a person}}{\text{Inputs by a person}} = \frac{\text{Out comes by another person}}{\text{Input by another person}}$$



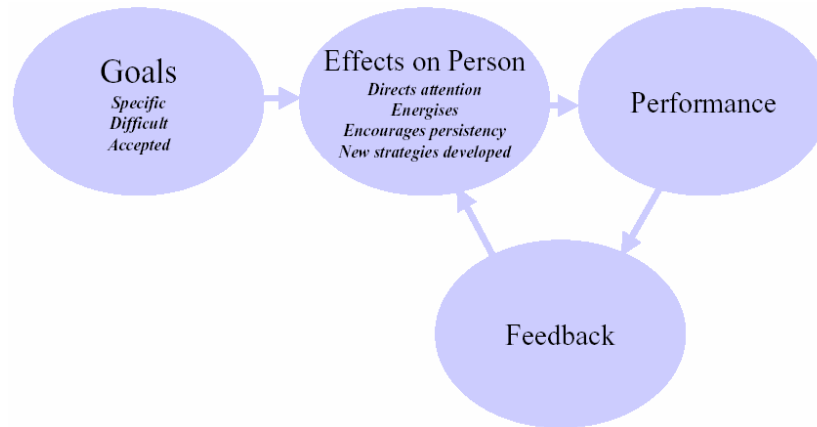
If people feel that they are not equally rewarded they either reduce the quantity or quality of work or migrate to some other organization. However, if people perceive that they are rewarded higher, they may be motivated to work harder.

Reinforcement Theory

B.F. Skinner, who propounded the reinforcement theory, holds that by designing the environment properly, individuals can be motivated. Instead of considering internal factors like impressions, feelings, attitudes and other cognitive behavior, individuals are directed by what happens in the environment external to them. Skinner states that work environment should be made suitable to the individuals and that punishments actually leads to frustration and de-motivation. Hence, the only way to motivate is to keep on making positive changes in the external environment of the organization.

Goal Setting Theory of Edwin Locke

Instead of giving vague tasks to people, specific and pronounced objectives, help in achieving them faster. As the clarity is high, a goal orientation also avoids any misunderstandings in the work of the employees. The goal setting theory states that when the goals to be achieved are set at a higher standard than in that case employees are motivated to perform better and put in maximum effort. It revolves around the concept of “Self-efficacy” i.e. individual’s belief that he or she is capable of performing a hard task.



Cognitive Evaluation Theory

As per these theory a shift from external rewards to internal rewards results into motivation. It believes that even after the stoppage of external stimulus, internal stimulus survives. It relates to the pay structure in the organization. Instead of treating external factors like pay, incentives, promotion etc and internal factors like interests, drives, responsibility etc, separately, they should be treated as contemporary to each other. The cognition is to be such that even when external motivators are not there the internal motivation continues. However, practically extrinsic rewards are given much more weightage.

Controlling motivation

The control of motivation is only understood to a limited extent. There are many different approaches of motivation training, but many of these are considered pseudoscientific by critics. To understand how to control motivation it is first necessary to understand why many people lack motivation.

Leadership

Definition

The ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals. An interpersonal process in which influence is exercised in a social system for the achievement of organizational goals by others.

Effective Leaders Influence Followers

- To achieve organizational & personal goals
- To develop commitment to the organization

- To be satisfied with the leadership process

Trait Theories

Leaders are born, not made.

Theories that consider personality, social, physical, or intellectual traits to differentiate leaders from non leaders.

Leadership Traits:

- Ambition and energy
- The desire to lead
- Honest and integrity
- Self-confidence
- Intelligence
- High self-monitoring
- Job-relevant knowledge

Behavioral Theories of Leadership

Leadership traits can be taught

Theories proposing that specific behaviors differentiate leaders from non leaders.

Ohio State Studies

Initiating Structure

The extent to which a leader is likely to define and structure his or her role and those of sub-ordinates in the search for goal attainment.

Consideration

The extent to which a leader is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinate's ideas, and regard for their feelings.

University of Michigan Studies

Employee-Oriented Leader

Emphasizing interpersonal relations; taking a personal interest in the needs of employees and accepting individual differences among members.

Production-Oriented Leader

One who emphasizes technical or task aspects of the job.

Scandinavian Studies

Development-Oriented Leader

One who values experimentation, seeking new ideas, and generating and implementing change.

Researchers in Finland and Sweden question whether there are only two dimensions (production-orientation and employee-orientation) that capture the essence of leadership behavior. Their premise is that in a changing world, effective leaders would exhibit **development-oriented** behavior.

Contingency Theories

Fiedler's Contingency Model

The theory that effective groups depend on a proper match between a leader's style of interacting with subordinates and the degree to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader.

Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) Questionnaire

An instrument that purports to measure whether a person is task- or relationship-oriented

Fiedler's Model: Defining the Situation

Leader-Member Relations

The degree of confidence, trust, and respect subordinates have in their leader

Task Structure

The degree to which the job assignments are procedurized

Position Power

Influence derived from one's formal structural position in the organization; includes power to hire, fire, discipline, promote, and give salary increases.

Leadership Styles and Follower Readiness (Hersey and Blanchard)

**Follower
Readiness**

Unwilling

Willing

Able

**Supportive
Participative**

Monitoring

**Leadership
Styles**

Unable

Directive

**High Task
and
Relationship
Orientations**

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Leaders create in-groups and out-groups, and subordinates with in-group status will have higher performance ratings, less turnover, and greater job satisfaction.

Path-Goal Theory

The theory that it is the leader's job to assist followers in attaining their goals and to provide them the necessary direction and/or support to ensure that their goals are compatible with the overall objectives of the group or organization.

Leader-Participation Model (Vroom and Yetton)

A leadership theory that provides a set of rules to determine the form and amount of participative decision making in different situations.

