Unit 3 Tutorials: Leading

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The Nature of Leadership

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson, you will learn about the nature of leadership and the leadership process. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Leadership Defined
2. Leader Versus Manager

1. Leadership Defined

The many definitions of leadership each have a different emphasis. Some definitions consider leadership an act or behavior, such as initiating structure so group members know how to complete a task. Others consider a leader to be the center or nucleus of group activity, an instrument of goal achievement who has a certain personality, a form of persuasion and power, and the art of inducing compliance (Bass, 1990). Some look at leadership in terms of the management of group processes. In this view, a good leader develops a vision for the group, communicates that vision, (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) orchestrates the group's energy and activity toward goal attainment, "[turns] a group of individuals into a team," and "[transforms] good intentions into positive actions" (Pickens, 1992).

Leadership is frequently defined as a social (interpersonal) influence relationship between two or more persons who depend on each other to attain certain mutual goals in a group situation (Hollander & Julian, 1969). Effective leadership helps individuals and groups achieve their goals by focusing on the group's **maintenance needs** (the need for individuals to fit and work together by having, for example, shared norms) and **task needs** (the need for the group to make progress toward attaining the goal that brought them together).

TERMS TO KNOW

Leadership

A social (interpersonal) influence relationship between two or more persons who depend on each other to attain certain mutual goals in a group situation.

Maintenance Needs

The need for individuals to fit and work together by having, for example, shared norms.

Task Needs

The need for the group to make progress toward attaining the goal that brought them together.

2. Leader Versus Manager

The two dual concepts, leader and manager/leadership and management, are not interchangeable, nor are they redundant. The differences between the two can, however, be confusing. In many instances, to be a good manager one needs to be an effective leader. Many CEOs have been hired in the hope that their leadership skills—their ability to formulate a vision and get others to "buy into" that vision—will propel the

organization forward. In addition, effective leadership often necessitates the ability to manage—to set goals; plan, devise, and implement strategy; make decisions and solve problems; and organize and control. For our purposes, the two sets of concepts can be contrasted in several ways.

First, we define the two concepts differently. In Management and Organizational Behavior, we defined management as a process consisting of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling. Here we define leadership as a social (interpersonal) influence relationship between two or more people who are dependent on each other for goal attainment.

Second, managers and leaders are commonly differentiated in terms of the processes through which they initially come to their position. Managers are generally appointed to their role. Even though many organizations appoint people to positions of leadership, leadership per se is a relationship that revolves around the followers' acceptance or rejection of the leader (Hollander, 1964). Thus, leaders often emerge out of events that unfold among members of a group.

Third, managers and leaders often differ in terms of the types and sources of the power they exercise. Managers commonly derive their power from the larger organization. Virtually all organizations legitimize the use of certain "carrots and sticks" (rewards and punishments) as ways of securing the compliance of their employees. In other words, by virtue of the position that a manager occupies (president, vice president, department head, supervisor), certain "rights to act" (schedule production, contract to sell a product, hire and fire) accompany the position and its place within the hierarchy of authority. Leaders can also secure power and the ability to exercise influence using carrots and sticks; however, it is much more common for leaders to derive power from followers' perception of their knowledge (expertise), their personality and attractiveness, and the working relationship that has developed between leaders and followers.

From the perspective of those who are under the leader's and manager's influence, the motivation to comply often has a different base.

BIG IDEA

The subordinate to a manager frequently complies because of the role authority of the manager, and because of the carrots and sticks that managers have at their disposal. The followers of a leader comply because they want to. Thus, leaders motivate primarily through intrinsic processes, while managers motivate primarily through extrinsic processes.

Finally, it is important to note that while managers may be successful in directing and supervising their subordinates, they often succeed or fail because of their ability or inability to lead (Fieldler, 1996). As noted above, effective leadership often calls for the ability to manage, and effective management often requires leadership.

IN CONTEXT

John Arroyo: Springfield Sea Lions

John Arroyo is thrilled with his new position as general manager of the Springfield Sea Lions, a minor league baseball team. Arroyo has been a baseball fan all of his life, and now his diligent work and his degree in sports management are paying off.

Arroyo knew he had a hard act to follow. The general manager whom John replaced, "T.J." Grevin, was a much-loved old-timer who had been with the Sea Lions since their inception 14 years ago. John knew it would be difficult for whoever followed T.J., but he didn't realize how ostracized and

powerless he would feel. He tried a pep talk: “I’m the general manager—the CEO of this ball club! In time, the staff *will* respect me.” (Not a very good pep talk!)

After his first season ends, Arroyo is discouraged. Ticket and concession sales are down, and some long-time employees are rumored to be thinking about leaving. If John doesn’t turn things around, he knows his tenure with the Sea Lions will be short.

Questions:
Is John correct in assuming that the staff will learn to respect him in time? What can John do to earn the loyalty of his staff and improve the ball club’s performance?

Outcomes:
During the winter, John thinks long and hard about how he can earn the respect of the Sea Lions staff. Before the next season opener, John announces his plan: “So I can better understand what your day is like, I’m going to spend one day in each of your shoes. I’m trading places with each of you. I will be a ticket taker, a roving hot dog vendor, and a janitor. And I will be a marketer, and an accountant—for a day. You in turn will have the day off so you can enjoy the game from the general manager’s box.” The staff laughs and whistles appreciatively. Then the Springfield mascot, Sparky the Sea Lion, speaks up: “Hey Mr. Arroyo, are you going to spend a day in my flippers?” “You bet!” says John, laughing. The entire staff cheers.

John continues. “At the close of the season, we will honor a staff member with the T.J. Grevin Award for outstanding contributions to the Sea Lions organization. T.J. was such a great guy, it’s only right that we honor him.” The meeting ends, but John’s staff linger to tell him how excited they are about his ideas. Amidst the handshakes, he hopes that this year may be the best year yet for the Sea Lions.

According to Louise Axon, director of content strategy, and her colleagues at Harvard Business Publishing, in seeking management talent, *leadership* is an urgently needed quality in all managerial roles (Axon et al., 2015). Good leaders and good leadership are rare. Harvard management professor John P. Kotter notes that “there is a leadership crisis in the U.S. today,” (Labich, 1988) and the late USC Professor Warren Bennis states that many of our organizations are overmanaged and underled (Bennis, 1989).

REFLECT

What is the nature of leadership and the leadership process?

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned about the nature of leadership and the leadership process. You learned that there are many definitions of leadership, each with a different emphasis, including viewing leadership as an act or behavior and considering a leader to be the center or nucleus of group activity, managing group processes. In this lesson, the **leadership is defined** as a social (interpersonal) influence relationship between two or more persons who depend on each other to attain certain mutual goals in a group situation, noting that effective leadership helps individuals and groups

achieve their goals by focusing on the group's maintenance needs and task needs. You also explored the differences between the concepts of **leader versus manager**, in terms of how they are defined, the processes through which they initially come to their position, and the types and sources of the power they exercise.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Leadership
A social (interpersonal) influence relationship between two or more persons who depend on each other to attain certain mutual goals in a group situation.

Maintenance Needs
The need for individuals to fit and work together by having, for example, shared norms.

Task Needs
The need for the group to make progress toward attaining the goal that brought them together.

The Leadership Process

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson, you will learn to recognize the processes associated with people coming to leadership positions. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. The Leadership Process
2. Components of the Leadership Process
   a. The Leader
   b. The Follower
   c. The Context
   d. The Process
   e. The Consequences

1. The Leadership Process

Leadership is a process, a complex and dynamic exchange relationship built over time between leader and follower and between leader and the group of followers who depend on each other to attain a mutually desired goal (Hollander & Julian, 1969). There are several key components to this "working relationship": the leader, the followers, the context (situation), the leadership process per se, and the consequences (outcomes) (Stogdill, 1948). Across time, each component interacts with and influences the other components, and whatever consequences (such as leader-follower trust) are created influence future interactions. As any one of the components changes, so too will leadership (Murphy, 1941).

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2. Components of the Leadership Process

2a. The Leader

Leaders are people who take charge of or guide the activities of others. They are often seen as the focus or orchestrator of group activity, the people who set the tone of the group so that it can move forward to attain its goals. Leaders provide the group with what is required to fulfill its maintenance and task needs.

HINT

Later in the challenge, we will return to the "leader as a person" as part of our discussion of the trait approach to leadership.

2b. The Follower

The follower is not a passive player in the leadership process. Edwin Hollander, after many years of studying leadership, suggested that the follower is the most critical factor in any leadership event (Hollander, 1964). It

is, after all, the follower who perceives the situation and comes to define the needs that the leader must fulfill. In addition, it is the follower who either rejects leadership or accepts acts of leadership by surrendering his or her power to the leader to diminish task uncertainty, to define and manage the meaning of the situation to the follower, and to orchestrate the follower's action in pursuit of goal attainment.

The follower's personality and readiness to follow determine the style of leadership that will be most effective. For example, individuals with an internal locus of control are much more responsive to participative styles of leadership than individuals with an external locus of control (House & Mitchell, 1974). Individuals with an authoritarian personality are highly receptive to the effectiveness of directive acts of leadership (Yuki, 1971). It is the followers' expectations, as well as their performance-based needs, that determine what a leader must do in order to be effective.

The strength of the follower's self-concept has also been linked to the leadership process. High-self-esteem individuals tend to have a strong sense of self-efficacy, that is, a generalized belief they can be successful in difficult situations. They therefore tend to be strongly motivated to perform and persist in the face of adversity (Gardner & Pierce, 1998). The high-self-esteem follower tends to be responsive to participative styles of leadership. Low-self-esteem individuals, who doubt their competence and worthiness and their ability to succeed in difficult situations, function better with supportive forms of leadership. This helps them deal with the stress, frustration, and anxiety that often emerge with difficult tasks. Followers without a readiness to follow, limited by their inability to perform and lack of motivation and commitment, usually need more directive forms of leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1998).

Follower behavior plays a major role in determining what behaviors leaders engage in.

> ↱ EXAMPLE Followers who perform at high levels tend to cause their leaders to be considerate in their treatment and to play a less directive role. Followers who are poor performers, on the other hand, tend to cause their leaders to be less warm toward them and to be more directive and controlling in their leadership style (Greene, 1975).

2c. The Context

Situations make demands on a group and its members, and not all situations are the same. Context refers to the situation that surrounds the leader and the followers. Situations are multidimensional. We discuss the context as it pertains to leadership in greater detail later in this challenge, but for now let's look at it in terms of the task and task environment that confront the group.

- Is the task structured or unstructured?
- Are the goals of the group clear or ambiguous?
- Is there agreement or disagreement about goals?
- Is there a body of knowledge that can guide task performance?
- Is the task boring or frustrating?
- Is the task intrinsically satisfying?
- Is the environment complex or simple, stable or unstable?

These factors create different contexts within which leadership unfolds, and each factor places a different set of needs and demands on the leader and on the followers.
The leadership context for the leader of a group of assembly line production workers differs from the context for the leader of a self-managing production team and from the context confronted by the lead scientists in a research laboratory. The leadership tactics that work in the first context might fail miserably in the latter two.

2d. The Process

The process of leadership is separate and distinct from the leader (the person who occupies a central role in the group). The process is a complex, interactive, and dynamic working relationship between leader and followers. This working relationship, built over time, is directed toward fulfilling the group's maintenance and task needs. Part of the process consists of an exchange relationship between the leader and follower. The leader provides a resource directed toward fulfilling the group's needs, and the group gives compliance, recognition, and esteem to the leader. To the extent that leadership is the exercise of influence, part of the leadership process is captured by the surrender of power by the followers and the exercise of influence over the followers by the leader (Hollander & Julian, 1969). Thus, the leader influences the followers and the followers influence the leader, the context influences the leader and the followers, and both leader and followers influence the context.

2e. The Consequences

A number of outcomes or consequences of the leadership process unfold between leader, follower, and situation. At the group level, two outcomes are important:

- *Have the group's maintenance needs been fulfilled?*That is, do members of the group like and get along with one another, do they have a shared set of norms and values, and have they developed a good working relationship? Have individuals' needs been fulfilled as reflected in attendance, motivation, performance, satisfaction, citizenship, trust, and maintenance of the group membership?
- *Have the group's task needs been met?*There are important consequences of the leadership process for individuals: attendance, motivation, performance, satisfaction, citizenship, trust, and maintenance of their group membership.

The **leader-member exchange (LMX) theory** of leadership highlights consequences associated with the leadership process. The theory views leadership as relationship-based with a focus on the two-way, or **dyadic**, link between a leader and a follower. A leader-follower relationship tends to develop quickly and remains relatively stable over time. The quality of the relationship is reflected by the degree of mutual trust, loyalty, support, respect, and obligation. High- and low-quality relationships between a leader and each of his or her followers produce in-groups and out-groups among the followers. Members of the in-group come to be key players, and high-quality exchange relationships tend to be associated with higher levels of performance, commitment, and satisfaction than are low-quality exchange relationships (Graen & Wakabayashi, 1994). Attitudinal similarity and extroversion appear to be associated with a high-quality leader-member relationship (Schriesheim et al., 2000).


CONCEPT TO KNOW

The nature of the leadership process varies substantially depending on the leader, the followers, and the situation and context. Thus, leadership is the function of an interaction between the leader, the follower, and the context.


REFLECT

What are the components of the process associated with people coming to leadership positions?


TERMS TO KNOW

Leader-member Exchange (LMX) Theory

A relationship-based leadership theory with a focus on the two-way link between a leader and a

follower.

Dyadic

A group of two.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned about the processes associated with people coming to leadership positions. You learned that the **process of leadership** is a complex and dynamic exchange relationship built over time between leader and followers who depend on each other to attain a mutually desired goal. You also learned that there are several key **components of the leadership process**: **the leader**, **the follower**, **the context**, **the process**, and **the consequences**, noting that as any one of the components changes, so too will leadership. Thus, leadership is the function of an interaction between the leader, the follower, and the context. Ultimately, at the group level, two outcomes are important—whether or not the group's maintenance needs and task needs have been met. Lastly, you learned about the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership, which views leadership as relationship-based with a focus on the two-way, or dyadic, link between a leader and a follower.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Dyadic
A group of two.

Leader-member Exchange (LMX) Theory
A relationship-based leadership theory with a focus on the two-way link between a leader and a follower.

The Trait Approach to Leadership

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson, you will learn the trait perspectives on leadership. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. The Great Man Theory of Leadership
2. Leader Trait Research
3. Other Leader Traits
   a. The Role of Sex and Gender
   b. Dispositional Trait
   c. Self-Monitoring

1. The Great Man Theory of Leadership

Ancient Greek, Roman, Egyptian, and Chinese scholars were keenly interested in leaders and leadership. Their writings portray leaders as heroes. Homer, in his poem *The Odyssey*, portrays Odysseus during and after the Trojan War as a great leader who had vision and self-confidence. His son Telemachus, under the tutelage of Mentor, developed his father's courage and leadership skills (Kramer, 1992). Out of such stories there emerged the "great man" theory of leadership, and a starting point for the contemporary study of leadership.

The **great man theory of leadership** states that some people are born with the necessary attributes to be great leaders. Alexander the Great, Julius Caesar, Joan of Arc, Catherine the Great, Napoleon, and Mahatma Gandhi are cited as naturally great leaders, born with a set of personal qualities that made them effective leaders. Even today, the belief that truly great leaders are born is common. For example, Kenneth Labich, writer for *Fortune* magazine, commented that "the best leaders seem to possess a God-given spark" (Labich, 1998).

During the early 1900s, scholars endeavored to understand leaders and leadership. They wanted to know, from an organizational perspective, what characteristics leaders hold in common in the hope that people with these characteristics could be identified, recruited, and placed in key organizational positions. This gave rise to early research efforts and to what is referred to as the *trait approach to leadership*. Prompted by the great man theory of leadership and the emerging interest in understanding what leadership is, researchers focused on the leader: Who is a leader? What are the distinguishing characteristics of great and effective leaders?

BIG IDEA

The great man theory of leadership holds that some people are born with a set of personal qualities that make truly great leaders. Mahatma Gandhi is often cited as a naturally great leader.

TERMS TO KNOW

Great Man Theory of Leadership

The belief that some people are born to be leaders and others are not.

2. Leader Trait Research

Ralph Stogdill, while on the faculty at The Ohio State University, pioneered our modern (late 20th century) study of leadership (Stogdill, 1948). Scholars taking the trait approach attempted to identify physiological (appearance, height, and weight), demographic (age, education, and socioeconomic background), personality (dominance, self-confidence, and aggressiveness), intellective (intelligence, decisiveness, judgment, and knowledge), task-related (achievement drive, initiative, and persistence), and social characteristics (sociability and cooperativeness) with leader emergence and leader effectiveness. After reviewing several hundred studies of leader traits, Stogdill in 1974 described the successful leader this way:

The [successful] leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence others' behavior, and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand (Stogdill, 1948).

The last three decades of the 20th century witnessed continued exploration of the relationship between traits and both leader emergence and leader effectiveness. Edwin Locke from the University of Maryland and a number of his research associates, in their recent review of trait theory research, observed that successful leaders possess a set of core characteristics that are different from those of other people (Kirikpatrick & Locke, 1991). Although these core traits do not solely determine whether a person will be a leader—or a successful leader—they are seen as preconditions that endow people with leadership potential. Among the core traits identified are:

- *Drive*—a high level of effort, including a strong desire for achievement as well as high levels of ambition, energy, tenacity, and initiative
- *Leadership motivation*—an intense desire to lead others
- *Honesty and integrity*—a commitment to the truth, where word and deed correspond
- *Self-confidence*—assurance in one’s self, one’s ideas, and one’s ability
- *Cognitive ability*—conceptually skilled, capable of exercising good judgment, having strong analytical abilities, possessing the capacity to think strategically and multidimensionally
- *Knowledge of the business*—a high degree of understanding of the company, industry, and technical matters
- *Other traits*—charisma, creativity/originality, and flexibility/adaptiveness (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991b)

While leaders may be “people with the right stuff,” effective leadership requires more than simply possessing the correct set of motives and traits. Knowledge, skills, ability, vision, strategy, and effective vision implementation are all necessary for the person who has the “right stuff” to realize their leadership potential (Locke 1991; Stewart 1999). According to Locke, people endowed with these traits engage in behaviors that are associated with leadership. As followers, people are attracted to and inclined to follow individuals who display, for example, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, and the motivation to lead.
Personality psychologists remind us that behavior is a result of an interaction between the person and the situation—that is, Behavior = f [(Person)]. To this, psychologist Walter Mischel adds the important observation

that personality tends to get expressed through an individual's behavior in "weak" situations and to be suppressed in "strong" situations (Mischel, 1973). A strong situation is one with strong behavioral norms and rules, strong incentives, clear expectations, and rewards for a particular behavior. Our characterization of the mechanistic organization with its well-defined hierarchy of authority, jobs, and standard operating procedures exemplifies a strong situation. The organic social system exemplifies a weak situation. From a leadership perspective, a person's traits play a stronger role in their leader behavior and ultimately leader effectiveness when the situation permits the expression of their disposition. Thus, personality traits prominently shape leader behavior in weak situations.

Finally, about the validity of the "great person approach to leadership": Evidence accumulated to date does not provide a strong base of support for the notion that leaders are born. Yet, a study of twins at the University of Minnesota leaves open the possibility that part of the answer might be found in our genes. Many personality traits and vocational interests (which might be related to one's interest in assuming responsibility for others and the motivation to lead) have been found to be related to our "genetic dispositions" as well as to our life experiences (House & Aditya, 1997). Each core trait recently identified by Locke and his associates traces a significant part of its existence to life experiences. Thus, a person is not born with self-confidence. Self-confidence is developed, honesty and integrity are a matter of personal choice, motivation to lead comes from within the individual and is within his control, and knowledge of the business can be acquired. While cognitive ability does in part find its origin in the genes, it still needs to be developed. Finally, drive, as a dispositional trait, may also have a genetic component, but it too can be self- and other-encouraged. It goes without saying that none of these ingredients are acquired overnight.

3. Other Leader Traits

Sex and gender, disposition, and self-monitoring also play an important role in leader emergence and leader style.

3a. The Role of Sex and Gender

Much research has gone into understanding the role of sex and gender in leadership (Helgesen, 1990). Two major avenues have been explored: sex and gender roles in relation to leader emergence, and whether style differences exist across the sexes.

Evidence supports the observation that men emerge as leaders more frequently than women (Chapman, 1975). Throughout history, few women have been in positions where they could develop or exercise leadership behaviors. In contemporary society, being perceived as experts appears to play an important role in the emergence of women as leaders. Yet, gender role is more predictive than sex. Individuals with "masculine" (for example, assertive, aggressive, competitive, willing to take a stand) as opposed to "feminine" (cheerful, affectionate, sympathetic, gentle) characteristics are more likely to emerge in leadership roles (Kent & Moss, 1994). In our society, males are frequently socialized to possess the masculine characteristics, while females are more frequently socialized to possess the feminine characteristics.

Recent evidence, however, suggests that individuals who are androgynous (that is, who simultaneously possess both masculine and feminine characteristics) are as likely to emerge in leadership roles as individuals with only masculine characteristics. This suggests that possessing feminine qualities does not distract from the attractiveness of the individual as a leader (Kent & Moss, 1994).

With regard to leadership style, researchers have looked to see if male-female differences exist in task and interpersonal styles, and whether or not differences exist in how autocratic or democratic men and women are. The answer is, when it comes to interpersonal versus task orientation, differences between men and

women appear to be marginal. Women are somewhat more concerned with meeting the group's interpersonal needs, while men are somewhat more concerned with meeting the group's task needs. Big differences emerge in terms of democratic versus autocratic leadership styles. Men tend to be more autocratic or directive, while women are more likely to adopt a more democratic/participative leadership style (Early & Johnson, 1990). In fact, it may be because men are more directive that they are seen as key to goal attainment and they are turned to more often as leaders (Dobbins et al., 1990).

3b. Dispositional Trait

Psychologists often use the terms disposition and mood to describe and differentiate people. Individuals characterized by a positive affective state exhibit a mood that is active, strong, excited, enthusiastic, peppy, and elated. A leader with this mood state exudes an air of confidence and optimism and is seen as enjoying work-related activities.

Recent work conducted at the University of California-Berkeley demonstrates that leaders (managers) with positive affectivity (a positive mood state) tend to be more competent interpersonally, to contribute more to group activities, and to be able to function more effectively in their leadership role (Staw & Barsade, 1993). Their enthusiasm and high energy levels appear to be infectious, transferring from leader to followers. Thus, such leaders promote group cohesiveness and productivity. This mood state is also associated with low levels of group turnover and is positively associated with followers who engage in acts of good group citizenship (George & Bellenhausen, 1990).

3c. Self-Monitoring

Self-monitoring as a personality trait refers to the strength of an individual's ability and willingness to read verbal and nonverbal cues and to alter one's behavior to manage the presentation of the self and the images that others form of the individual. "High self-monitors" are particularly astute at reading social cues and regulating their self-presentation to fit a particular situation. "Low self-monitors" are less sensitive to social cues; they may either lack motivation or lack the ability to manage how they come across to others.

Some evidence supports the position that high self-monitors emerge more often as leaders. In addition, they appear to exert more influence on group decisions and initiate more structure than low self-monitors. Perhaps high self-monitors emerge as leaders because in group interaction they are the individuals who attempt to organize the group and provide it with the structure needed to move the group toward goal attainment (Dobbins et al., 1990).

REFLECT

What are the trait perspectives on leadership?

TERMS TO KNOW

Self-monitoring Personality Trait

Refers to the strength of an individual's ability and willingness to read verbal and nonverbal cues and to alter one's behavior to manage the presentation of the self and the images that others form of the individual.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned about the trait perspectives on leadership. You learned that a starting point for the contemporary study of leadership can be found in **the great man theory of leadership**, which

states that some people—like Mahatma Gandhi—are born with the necessary attributes to be great leaders. The efforts of scholars in the early 1900s, seeking to understand the characteristics leaders hold in common, gave rise to early research and the trait approach to leadership. You learned about important **leader trait research**, such as Ralph Stogdill's study of leadership and Edwin Locke's trait theory research, including his identification of a core set of traits possessed by successful leaders. You also learned about **other leader traits**, such as **the role of sex and gender**, **dispositional trait**, and **self-monitoring**, and the important role they play in leader emergence and leader style.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Great Man Theory of Leadership
The belief that some people are born to be leaders and others are not.

Self-monitoring Personality Trait
Refers to the strength of an individual's ability and willingness to read verbal and nonverbal cues and to alter one's behavior to manage the presentation of the self and the images that others form of the individual.

Behavioral Approaches to Leadership

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson, you will learn about the behavioral perspectives on leadership. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Leadership Traits Versus Behaviors
2. The Ohio State University Studies
3. The University of Michigan Studies
4. The Leadership Grid

1. Leadership Traits Versus Behaviors

The nearly four decades of research that focused on identifying the personal traits associated with the emergence of leaders and leader effectiveness resulted in two observations. First, leader traits are important—people who are endowed with the "right stuff" (drive, self-confidence, honesty, and integrity) are more likely to emerge as leaders and to be effective leaders than individuals who do not possess these characteristics. Second, traits only partially account for why someone becomes a leader and why they are (or are not) effective leaders.

Still under the influence of the great man theory of leadership, researchers continued to focus on traits in an effort to understand who emerges in leadership roles and what constitutes effective leadership. Researchers then began to reason that leadership may be better understood by looking at actions leaders take. Thus, we now focus on behavioral approaches to leadership.

CEOs and management consultants agree that effective leaders display trust in their employees, develop a vision, keep their cool, encourage risk, bring expertise into the work setting, invite dissent, and focus everyone's attention on that which is important (Labich, 1998). William Arruda, in a *Fortune* article, noted that "organizations with strong coaching cultures report their revenue to be above average, compared to their peer group." Sixty-five percent of employees "from strong coaching cultures rated themselves as highly engaged, compared to 13 percent of employees worldwide" (Williams, 2017). Jonathan Anthony calls himself an intrapreneur and corporate disorganizer, because same-old, same-old practices are dying in front of our eyes (Anthony, 2017). Apple founder Steve Jobs believed that the best leaders are coaches and team cheerleaders. Similar views have been frequently echoed by management consultant Tom Peters.

During the late 1940s, two major research programs—The Ohio State University and the University of Michigan leadership studies—were launched to explore leadership from a behavioral perspective. We will explore both studies below.

2. The Ohio State University Studies

A group of Ohio State University researchers, under the direction of Ralph Stogdill, began an extensive and systematic series of studies to identify leader behaviors associated with effective group performance. Their results identified two major sets of leader behaviors: consideration and initiating structure.

Consideration is the "relationship-oriented" behavior of a leader. It is instrumental in creating and maintaining good relationships (that is, addressing the group's maintenance needs) with organizational members. Consideration behaviors include being supportive and friendly, representing people's interests, communicating openly with group members, recognizing them, respecting their ideas, and sharing concern for their feelings.

Initiating structure involves "task-oriented" leader behaviors. It is instrumental in the efficient use of resources to attain organizational goals, thereby addressing the group's task needs. Initiating structure behaviors include scheduling work, deciding what is to be done (and how and when to do it), providing direction to organizational members, planning, coordinating, problem-solving, maintaining standards of performance, and encouraging the use of uniform procedures.

After consideration and initiating structure behaviors were first identified, many leaders believed that they had to behave one way or the other. If they initiated structure, they could not be considerate, and vice versa. It did not take long, however, to recognize that leaders can simultaneously display any combination of both behaviors.

The Ohio State studies are important because they identified two critical categories of behavior that distinguish one leader from another. Both consideration and initiating structure behavior can significantly impact work attitudes and behaviors. Further, the effects of consideration and initiating structure are not consistent from situation to situation (Fleishman, 1953). In some of the organizations studied, for example, high levels of initiating structure increased performance. In other organizations, the amount of initiating structure seemed to make little difference. Although most organizational members reported greater satisfaction when leaders acted considerately, consideration behavior appeared to have no clear effect on performance. Initially, these mixed findings were disappointing to researchers and managers alike.

It had been hoped that a profile of the most effective leader behaviors could be identified so that leaders could be trained in the best ways to behave. Research made clear, however, that there is no one best style of leader behavior for all situations.

Consideration

A "relationship-oriented" leader behavior that is supportive, friendly, and focused on personal needs and interpersonal relationships.

Initiating Structure

A "task-oriented" leader behavior that is focused on goal attainment, organizing and scheduling work, solving problems, and maintaining work processes.

3. The University of Michigan Studies

At about the same time that the Ohio State studies were underway, researchers at the University of Michigan also began to investigate leader behaviors. As at Ohio State, the Michigan researchers attempted to identify behavioral elements that differentiated effective from ineffective leaders (Katz & Kahn, 1952).

The two types of leader behavior that stand out in these studies are job-centered and organizational-member-centered. *Job-centered behaviors* are devoted to supervisory functions, such as planning, scheduling, coordinating work activities, and providing the resources needed for task performance. *Employee-member-centered* behaviors include consideration and support for organizational members. These dimensions of behavior, of course, correspond closely to the dimensions of initiating structure and consideration identified at Ohio State. The similarity of the findings from two independent groups of researchers added to their credibility. As the Ohio State researchers had done, the Michigan researchers also found that any combination of the two behaviors was possible.

The studies at Michigan are significant because they reinforce the importance of leader behavior. They also provide the basis for later theories that identify specific, effective matches of work situations and leader behaviors. Subsequent research at Michigan and elsewhere has found additional behaviors associated with effective leadership: support, work facilitation, goal emphasis, and interaction facilitation (Bowers & Seashore, 1966).

These four behaviors are important to the successful functioning of the group in that support and interaction facilitation contribute to the group's maintenance needs, and goal emphasis and work facilitation contribute to the group's task needs. The Michigan researchers also found that these four behaviors do not need to be brought to the group by the leader. In essence, the leader's real job is to set the tone and create the climate that ensure these critical behaviors are present (Bowers & Seashore, 1966).

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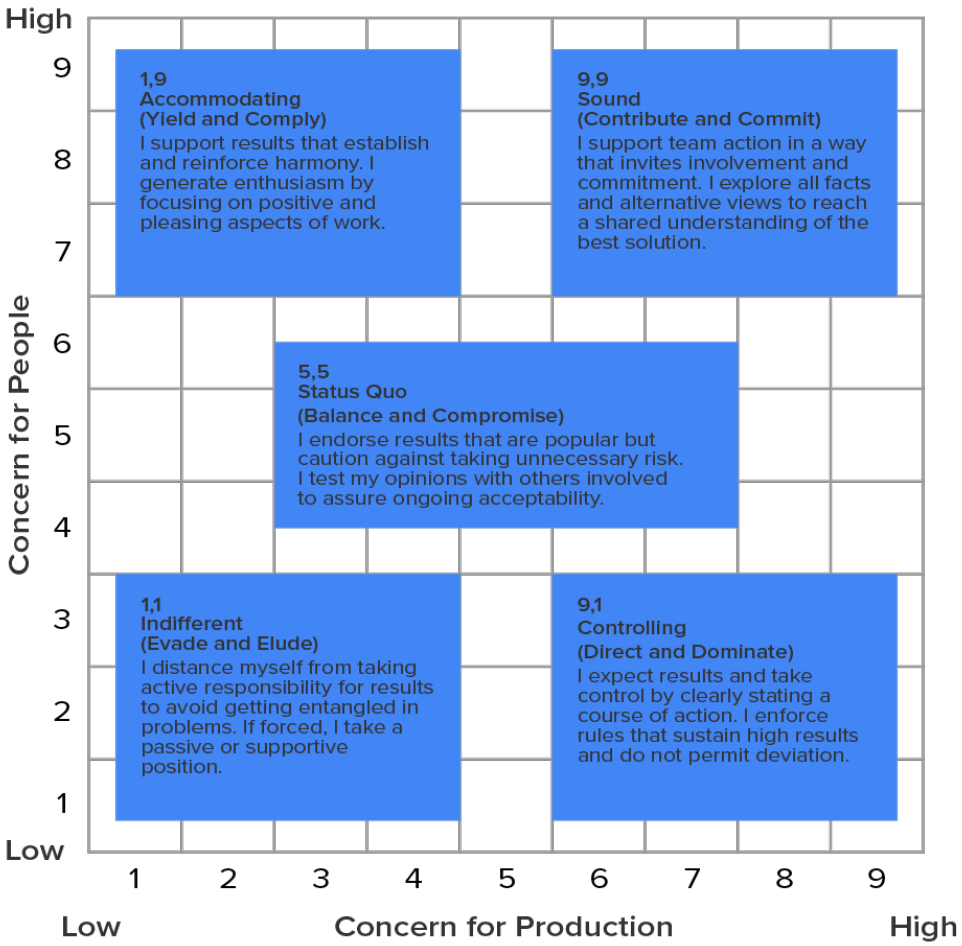
4. The Leadership Grid®

Much of the credit for disseminating knowledge about important leader behaviors must go to Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, who developed a method for classifying styles of leadership compatible with many of the ideas from the Ohio State and Michigan studies (Blake & Mouton, 1964). In their classification scheme, *concern for results* (production) emphasizes output, cost effectiveness, and (in for-profit organizations) a concern for profits. *Concern for people* involves promoting working relationships and paying attention to issues of importance to group members. As shown in the graph below, the Leadership Grid® demonstrates that any combination of these two leader concerns is possible, and five styles of leadership are highlighted here.



Source: Adapted from R. McKee and B. Carlson. 1999. The Power to Change, p.16.

Blake and Mouton contend that the sound (contribute and commit) leader style (a high concern for results and people, or 9,9) is universally the most effective (Blake & Mouton, 1981). While the Leadership Grid® is appealing and well structured, research to date suggests that there is no universally effective style of leadership (9,9 or otherwise) (Larson et al., 1976). There are, however, well-identified situations in which a 9,9 style is unlikely to be effective. Organizational members of high-involvement organizations who have mastered their job duties require little production-oriented leader behavior. Likewise, there is little time for people-oriented behavior during an emergency. Finally, evidence suggests that the “high-high” style may be effective when the situation calls for high levels of initiating structure. Under these conditions, the initiation of structure is more acceptable, favorably affecting follower satisfaction and performance, when the leader is also experienced as warm, supportive, and considerate (Tjosvold, 1984).

REFLECT

1. What are the behavioral approaches to defining leadership?

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned about the behavioral perspectives on leadership. You explored **leadership traits versus behaviors**, considering that while leader traits are important, they only partially account for why someone becomes a leader and why they are (or are not) effective leaders. Therefore, researchers reasoned that leadership may be better understood by looking at actions leaders take,

which is why we now focus on behavioral approaches to leadership. You learned about two major research programs launched to explore leadership from a behavioral perspective, **The Ohio State University studies** and **the University of Michigan studies**. The Ohio State studies are important because they identified two critical categories of behavior that distinguish one leader from another, consideration and initiating structure. The studies at Michigan are significant because they reinforce the importance of leader behavior, identifying two types of leader behavior—job-centered and employee-member-centered. Lastly, you learned about a method for classifying styles of leadership developed by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, known as **the Leadership Grid**, based on two behavioral dimensions: concern for results and concern for people.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Consideration

A “relationship-oriented” leader behavior that is supportive, friendly, and focused on personal needs and interpersonal relationships.

Initiating Structure

A “task-oriented” leader behavior that is focused on goal attainment, organizing and scheduling work, solving problems, and maintaining work processes.

Situational (Contingency) Approaches to Leadership

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson, you will learn to define the situational perspectives on leadership. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Situational Leadership
2. Fiedler's Contingency Model
   a. The Leader's Trait
   b. The Situational Factor
   c. Leader-Situation Matches
3. The Path-Goal Theory
   a. An Appropriate Match
4. Cross-Cultural Context

1. Situational Leadership

As early as 1948, Ralph Stogdill stated that "the qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader"(Stogdill, 1948). In addition, it had been observed that two major leader behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, didn't always lead to equally positive outcomes. That is, there are times when initiating structure results in performance increases and follower satisfaction, and there are times when the results are just the opposite. Contradictory findings such as this lead researchers to ask "Under what conditions are the results positive in nature?" and "When and why are they negative at other times?" Obviously, situational differences and key contingencies are at work.

Several theories have been advanced to address this issue. These are Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership, the path-goal theory of leader effectiveness, Hersey and Blanchard's life cycle theory, cognitive resource theory, the decision tree, and the decision process theory (House & Aditya, 1997). In this lesson, we explore two of the better-known situational theories of leadership, Fred Fiedler's contingency model and Robert J. House's path-goal theory. Victor Vroom, Phillip Yetton, and Arthur Jago's decision tree model also applies.

2. Fiedler's Contingency Model

One of the earliest, best-known, and most controversial situation-contingent leadership theories was set forth by Fred E. Fiedler from the University of Washington (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974). This theory is known as the

contingency theory of leadership. According to Fiedler, organizations attempting to achieve group effectiveness through leadership must assess the leader according to an underlying trait, assess the situation faced by the leader, and construct a proper match between the two.

TERM TO KNOW

Contingency Theory of Leadership

A theory advanced by Dr. Fred E. Fiedler that suggests that different leadership styles are effective as a function of the favorableness of the leadership situation least preferred.

2a. The Leader's Trait

In Fiedler's model, leaders are asked about their**least-preferred coworker (LPC)**, the person with whom they *least* like to work. The most popular interpretation of the LPC score is that it reflects a leader's underlying disposition toward others—for example: pleasant/unpleasant, cold/warm, friendly/unfriendly, and untrustworthy/trustworthy. (You can examine your own LPC score by completing the LPC self-assessment on the following page.)

Fiedler states that leaders with high LPC scores are*relationship-oriented*—they need to develop and maintain close interpersonal relationships. They tend to evaluate their least-preferred coworkers in fairly favorable terms. Task accomplishment is a secondary need to this type of leader and becomes important only after the need for relationships is reasonably well-satisfied. In contrast, leaders with low LPC scores tend to evaluate the individuals with whom they least like to work fairly negatively. They are *task-oriented people*, and only after tasks have been accomplished are low-LPC leaders likely to work on establishing good social and interpersonal relations.

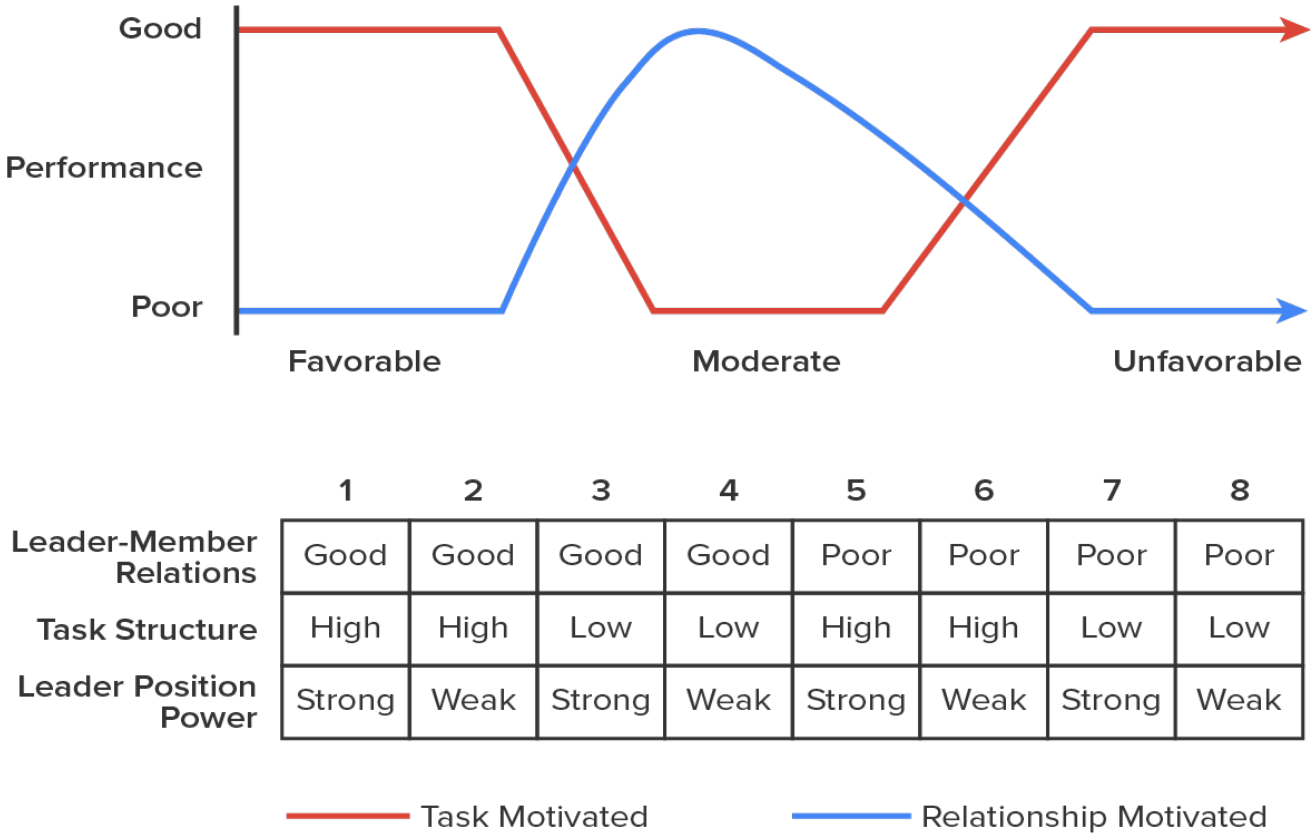
TERM TO KNOW

Least-preferred Coworker (LPC)

The person with whom the leader least likes to work.

2b. The Situational Factor

Some situations favor leaders more than others do. To Fiedler, situational favorableness is the degree to which leaders have control and influence and therefore feel that they can determine the outcomes of a group interaction (Fiedler, 1976). Several years later, Fiedler changed his situational factor from situational favorability to **situational control**—where situational control essentially refers to the degree to which a leader can influence the group process (House & Aditya, 1997). Three factors work together to determine how favorable a situation is to a leader. In order of importance, they are: (1) *leader-member relations*—the degree of the group's acceptance of the leader, their ability to work well together, and members' level of loyalty to the leader; (2) *task structure*—the degree to which the task specifies a detailed, unambiguous goal and how to achieve it; and (3) *position power*—a leader's direct ability to influence group members. The situation is most favorable for a leader when the relationship between the leader and group members is good, when the task is highly structured, and when the leader's position power is strong (cell 1 in the following diagram). The least favorable situation occurs under poor leader-member relations, an unstructured task, and weak position power (cell 8).



Source: Adapted from F. E. Fiedler and M. M. Chemers. 1974. Leadership and effective management. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

TERM TO KNOW

Situational Control

The degree to which a leader can influence the group process.

2c. Leader-Situation Matches

Some combinations of leaders and situations work well; others do not. In search of the best combinations, Fiedler examined a large number of leadership situations. He argued that most leaders have a relatively unchangeable or dominant style, so organizations need to design job situations to fit the leader (Fiedler, 1965).

While the model has not been fully tested and tests have often produced mixed or contradictory findings (Chemers & Skrzypek, 1972), Fiedler's research indicates that relationship-oriented (high-LPC) leaders are much more effective under conditions of intermediate favorability than under either highly favorable or highly unfavorable situations. Fiedler attributes the success of relationship-oriented leaders in situations with intermediate favorability to the leader's nondirective, permissive attitude; a more directive attitude could lead to anxiety in followers, conflict in the group, and a lack of cooperation.

For highly favorable and unfavorable situations, task-oriented leaders (those with a low LPC) are very effective. As tasks are accomplished, a task-oriented leader allows the group to perform its highly structured tasks without imposing more task-directed behavior. The job gets done without the need for the leader's direction. Under unfavorable conditions, task-oriented behaviors, such as setting goals, detailing work methods, and guiding and controlling work behaviors, move the group toward task accomplishment.

As might be expected, leaders with mid-range LPC scores can be more effective in a wider range of situations than high- or low-LPC leaders (Dunham, 1984). Under conditions of low favorability, for example, a middle-LPC

leader can be task-oriented to achieve performance, but show consideration for and allow organizational members to proceed on their own under conditions of high situational favorability.

3. The Path-Goal Theory

Robert J. House and Martin Evans, while on the faculty at the University of Toronto, developed a useful leadership theory. Like Fiedler's, it asserts that the type of leadership needed to enhance organizational effectiveness depends on the situation in which the leader is placed. Unlike Fiedler, however, House and Evans focus on the leader's observable behavior. Thus, managers can either match the situation to the leader or modify the leader's behavior to fit the situation.

The model of leadership advanced by House and Evans is called the **path-goal theory of leadership** because it suggests that an effective leader provides organizational members with a *path* to a valued *goal*. According to House, the motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to organizational members for work-goal attainment, and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route (House, 1971).

Effective leaders therefore provide rewards that are valued by organizational members. These rewards may be pay, recognition, promotions, or any other item that gives members an incentive to work hard to achieve goals. Effective leaders also give clear instructions so that ambiguities about work are reduced and followers understand how to do their jobs effectively. They provide coaching, guidance, and training so that followers can perform the task expected of them. They also remove barriers to task accomplishment, correcting shortages of materials, inoperative machinery, or interfering policies.

TERM TO KNOW

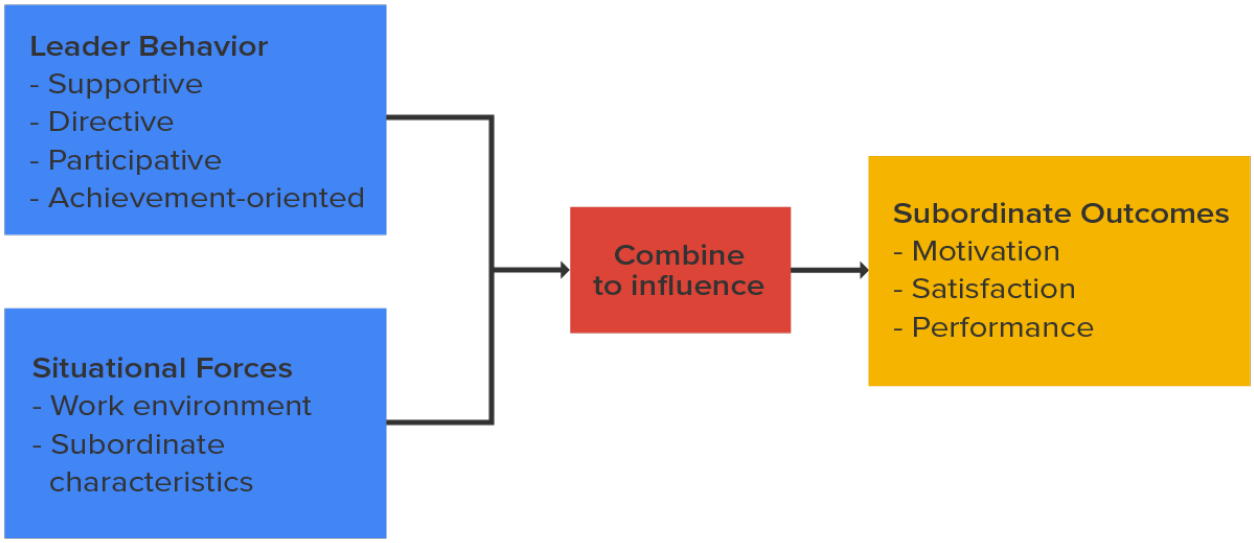
Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

A theory that posits that leadership is path- and goal-oriented, suggesting that different leadership styles are effective as a function of the task confronting the group.

3a. An Appropriate Match

According to the path-goal theory, the challenge facing leaders is basically twofold. First, they must analyze situations and identify the most appropriate leadership style.

Second, leaders must be flexible enough to use different leadership styles as appropriate. To be effective, leaders must engage in a wide variety of behaviors. Without an extensive repertoire of behaviors at their disposal, a leader's effectiveness is limited (Hoojiberg, 1996). All team members will not, for example, have the same need for autonomy. The leadership style that motivates organizational members with strong needs for autonomy (participative leadership) is different from that which motivates and satisfies members with weaker autonomy needs (directive leadership). The degree to which leadership behavior matches situational factors will determine members' motivation, satisfaction, and performance as shown in the following diagram.



4. Cross-Cultural Context

Gabriel Bristol, the CEO of Intelifluence Live, a full-service customer contact center offering affordable inbound customer service, outbound sales, lead generation and consulting services for small to mid-sized businesses, notes “diversity breeds innovation, which helps businesses achieve goals and tackle new challenges" (Bristol, 2016). *Multiculturalism* is a new reality as today’s society and workforce become increasingly diverse. This naturally leads to the question, “Is there a need for a new and different style of leadership?”

The vast majority of contemporary scholarship directed toward understanding leaders and the leadership process has been conducted in North America and Western Europe. Westerners have “developed a highly romanticized, heroic view of leadership" (Meindel et al., 1985). Leaders occupy center stage in organizational life. We use leaders in our attempts to make sense of the performance of our groups, clubs, organizations, and nations. We see them as key to organizational success and profitability, we credit them with organizational competitiveness, and we blame them for organizational failures.

> ↱ EXAMPLE At the national level, recall that President Reagan brought down Soviet Union Communism and the Berlin Wall, President Bush won the Gulf War, and President Clinton brought unprecedented economic prosperity to the United States during the 1990s.

This larger-than-life role ascribed to leaders and the Western romance with successful leaders raise the question, “How representative is our understanding of leaders and leadership across cultures?” That is, do the results that we have examined in this Challenge generalize to other cultures?

Geert Hofstede points out that significant value differences (individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity-femininity, and time orientation) cut across societies. Thus, leaders of culturally diverse groups will encounter belief and value differences among their followers, as well as in their own leader-member exchanges.

There appears to be consensus that a universal approach to leadership and leader effectiveness does not exist. Cultural differences work to enhance and diminish the impact of leadership styles on group effectiveness.

> ↱ EXAMPLE When leaders empower their followers, the effect for job satisfaction in India has been found to be negative, while in the United States, Poland, and Mexico, the effect is positive (Robert et al., 2000). The existing evidence suggests similarities as well as differences in such areas as the effects of leadership styles, the acceptability of influence attempts, and the closeness and formality of relationships.

The distinction between task- and relationship-oriented leader behavior, however, does appear to be meaningful across cultures (Dorfman & Roonen, 1991). Leaders whose behaviors reflect support, kindness, and concern for their followers are valued and effective in Western and Asian cultures. Yet it is also clear that democratic, participative, directive, and contingent-based rewards and punishment do not produce the same results across cultures. The United States is very different from Brazil, Korea, New Zealand, and Nigeria. The effective practice of leadership necessitates a careful look at, and understanding of, the individual differences brought to the leader-follower relationship by cross-cultural contexts (Dorfman et al., 1997).

REFLECT

1. Identify and describe the variables presented in Fiedler's theory of leadership.
2. What are the leadership behaviors in the path-goal theory of leadership?
3. What role does culture have in how leadership is viewed?

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned about the situational perspectives on leadership. You learned that contradictory research findings led researchers to explore the nuances of **situational leadership**, whereby leadership characteristics and skill are determined by the demands of the situation in which he or she is to function as a leader. You explored several theories which have been advanced to address this issue, such as **Fiedler's contingency model**, which suggests that different leadership styles are effective as a function of the favorableness of the leadership situation least preferred. According to Fiedler, organizations attempting to achieve group effectiveness through leadership must assess the leader according to an underlying **leader's trait**, assess **the situational factor** faced by the leader, and construct a proper **leader-situation match**. You also learned about a theory developed by Robert J. House and Martin Evans known as **the path-goal theory**, which suggests that an effective leader provides organizational members with a path to a valued goal. According to this theory, leaders must find **an appropriate match** between the situation and the most appropriate leadership style. Lastly, you explored leadership within a **cross-cultural context**, understanding that leaders of culturally diverse groups will encounter belief and value differences among their followers, as well as in their own leader-member exchanges.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Contingency Theory of Leadership

A theory advanced by Dr. Fred E. Fiedler that suggests that different leadership styles are effective as a function of the favorableness of the leadership situation least preferred.

Least-preferred Coworker (LPC)

The person with whom the leader least likes to work.

Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

A theory that posits that leadership is path- and goal-oriented, suggesting that different leadership styles are effective as a function of the task confronting the group.

Situational Control

The degree to which a leader can influence the group process.

Substitutes for and Neutralizers of Leadership

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson, you will learn to identify and describe substitutes for leadership. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Substitutes for Leadership Behavior
2. Neutralizers of Leadership Behavior
3. Focus of Attention

BEFORE YOU START

Several factors have been discovered that can substitute for or neutralize the effects of leader behavior.

1. Substitutes for Leadership Behavior

Substitutes for leadership behavior can clarify role expectations, motivate organizational members, or satisfy members (making it unnecessary for the leader to attempt to do so). In some cases, these substitutes supplement the behavior of a leader. Sometimes it is a group member's characteristics that make leadership less necessary, as when a master craftsperson or highly skilled worker performs up to his or her own high standards without needing outside prompting. Sometimes the task's characteristics take over, as when the work itself—solving an interesting problem or working on a familiar job—is intrinsically satisfying. Sometimes the characteristics of the organization make leadership less necessary, as when work rules are so clear and specific that workers know exactly what they must do without help from the leader.

2. Neutralizers of Leadership Behavior

Neutralizers of leadership are typically not helpful; they prevent leaders from acting as they wish. Examples of negative neutralizers are:

- A computer-paced assembly line that prevents a leader from using initiating structure behavior to pace the line.
- A union contract that specifies that workers be paid according to seniority prevents a leader from dispensing merit-based pay.

Sometimes, of course, neutralizers can be beneficial.

↱ EXAMPLE Union contracts that clarify disciplinary proceedings and identify the responsibilities of both management and labor are examples of beneficial neutralizers.

Leaders must be aware of the presence of neutralizers and their effects so that they can eliminate troublesome neutralizers or take advantage of any potential benefits that accompany them. If a leader's

effectiveness is being neutralized by a poor communication system, for example, the leader might try to remove the neutralizer by developing (or convincing the organization to develop) a more effective system.

3. Focus of Attention

Followers differ considerably in their focus of attention while at work, thereby affecting the effectiveness of the act of leadership. **Focus of attention** is an employee's cognitive orientation while at work. It reflects what and how strongly an individual thinks about various objects, events, or phenomena while physically present at work. Focus of attention reflects an individual difference in that not all individuals have the same cognitive orientation while at work—some think a great deal about their job, their coworkers, their leader, or off-the-job factors, while others daydream (Gardner et al., 1989). An employee's focus of attention has both "trait" and "state" qualities. For example, there is a significant amount of minute-by-minute variation in an employee's focus of attention (the "state" component), and there is reasonable consistency in the categories of events that employees think about while they are at work (the "trait" component).

Research suggests that the more followers focus on off-job (non-leader) factors, the less they will react to the leader's behaviors. Thus, a strong focus on one's life "away from work" (for example, time with family and friends) tends to neutralize the motivational, attitudinal, and/or behavioral effects associated with any particular leader behavior. It has also been observed, however, that a strong focus on the leader, either positive or negative, enhances the impact that the leader's behaviors have on followers (Gardner et al., 1987).

REFLECT

1. Identify and describe substitutes for leadership.
2. What does the concept "substitute for leadership" mean?

TERM TO KNOW

Focus of Attention

An employee's cognitive orientation while at work.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned to identify and describe **substitutes for leadership behavior**, which can clarify role expectations, motivate organizational members, satisfy members, or in some cases, supplement the behavior of a leader. You learned about **neutralizers of leadership behavior**—both negative and beneficial—which prevent leaders from acting as they wish. You also learned that employees differ considerably in their **focus of attention**, or cognitive orientation, while at work, thereby affecting the effectiveness of the act of leadership.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Focus of attention
An employee's cognitive orientation while at work.

Transformational, Visionary, and Charismatic Leadership

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson, you will learn to identify the characteristics of transactional, transformational, and charismatic leadership. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Leadership Styles
   a. Transactional Leadership Style
   b. Transformational & Visionary Leadership Styles
   c. Charismatic Leadership Style

1. Leadership Styles

Many organizations struggling with the need to manage chaos, to undergo a culture change, to empower organizational members, and to restructure have looked for answers in “hiring the right leader.” Many have come to believe that the transformational, visionary, and charismatic leader represents the style of leadership needed to move organizations through chaos.

1a. Transactional Leadership Style

Leaders who subscribe to the notion that “if it ain’t broke, don’t fix it” are often described as transactional leaders. They are extremely task-oriented and instrumental in their approach, frequently looking for incentives that will induce their followers into a desired course of action (Yukl, 1981). These reciprocal exchanges take place in the context of a mutually interdependent relationship between the leader and the follower, frequently resulting in interpersonal bonding (Kellerman, 1984). The transactional leader moves a group toward task accomplishment by initiating structure and by offering an incentive in exchange for desired behaviors.

1b. Transformational & Visionary Leadership Styles

The **transformational leader**, on the other hand, moves and changes (fixes) things “in a big way”! Unlike transactional leaders, they don’t cause change by offering inducements. Instead, they inspire others to action through their personal values, vision, passion, and belief in and commitment to the mission (Burns, 1978). Through charisma (idealized influence), individualized consideration (a focus on the development of the follower), intellectual stimulation (questioning assumptions and challenging the status quo), and/or inspirational motivation (articulating an appealing vision), transformational leaders move others to follow.

The transformational leader is also referred to as a visionary leader.**Visionary leaders** are those who influence others through an emotional and/or intellectual attraction to the leader’s dreams of what “can be.” Vision links a present and future state, energizes and generates commitment, provides meaning for action, and serves as a standard against which to assess performance (Daft, 2018). Evidence indicates that vision is positively related to follower attitudes and performance (Baum et al., 1998; Howell & Frost, 1989). As pointed

out by Warren Bennis, a vision is effective only to the extent that the leader can communicate it in such a way that others come to internalize it as their own (Bennis, 1989).

As people, transformational leaders are engaging. They are characterized by extroversion, agreeableness, and openness to experience (Judge & Bono, 2000). They energize others. They increase followers' awareness of the importance of the designated outcome (Pillai et al., 1999). They motivate individuals to transcend their own self-interest for the benefit of the team and inspire organizational members to self-manage (become self-leaders) (Manz & Sims, 1987). Transformational leaders move people to focus on higher-order needs (self-esteem and self-actualization). When organizations face a turbulent environment, intense competition, products that may die early, and the need to move fast, managers cannot rely solely on organizational structure to guide organizational activity. In these situations, transformational leadership can motivate followers to be fully engaged and inspired, to internalize the goals and values of the organization, and to move forward with dogged determination!

Transformational leadership is positively related to follower satisfaction, performance, and acts of citizenship. These effects result from the fact that transformational leader behaviors elicit trust and perceptions of procedural justice, which in turn favorably impact follower satisfaction and performance (Pillai et al., 1999). As R. Pillai, C. Schriesheim, and E. Williams note, "when followers perceive that they can influence the outcomes of decisions that are important to them and that they are participants in an equitable relationship with their leader, their perceptions of procedural justice [and trust] are likely to be enhanced" (Pillai et al., 1999). Trust and experiences of organizational justice promote leader effectiveness, follower satisfaction, motivation, performance, and citizenship behaviors.

TERMS TO KNOW

Transformational Leader

A leader who moves and changes things "in a big way" by inspiring others to perform the extraordinary.

Visionary Leader

A leader who influences others through an emotional and/or intellectual attraction to the leader's dreams of what "can be."

1c. Charismatic Leadership Style

Ronald Reagan, Jesse Jackson, and Queen Elizabeth I have something in common with Martin Luther King Jr., Indira Gandhi, and Winston Churchill. The effectiveness of these leaders originates in part in their **charisma**, a special magnetic charm and appeal that arouses loyalty and enthusiasm. Each exerted considerable personal influence to bring about major events.

It is difficult to differentiate the charismatic and the transformational leader. True transformational leaders may achieve their results through the magnetism of their personality. In this case, the two types of leaders are essentially one and the same, yet it is important to note that not all transformational leaders have a personal "aura."

Sociologist Max Weber evidenced an interest in charismatic leadership in the 1920s, calling**charismatic leaders** people who possess legitimate power that arises from "exceptional sanctity, heroism, or exemplary character" (Eisenstadt, 1968). Charismatic leaders "single-handedly" effect changes even in very large organizations. Their personality is a powerful force, and the relationship that they forge with their followers is extremely strong.

The charismatic leadership phenomenon involves a complex interplay between the attributes of the leader

and followers' needs, values, beliefs, and perceptions (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). At its extreme, leader-follower relationships are characterized by followers' unquestioning acceptance; trust in the leader's beliefs; affection; willing obedience to, emulation of, and identification with the leader; emotional involvement with his or her mission; and feelings of self-efficacy directed toward the leader's mission (House & Baetz, 1979). This can work to better the welfare of individuals.

> ↱ EXAMPLE Charismatic leader Lee Iacocca saved thousands of jobs through his dramatic turnaround of a failing corporate giant, the Chrysler Corporation.

It also can be disastrous.

> ↱ EXAMPLE Another charismatic leader, David Koresh, led dozens and dozens of men, women, and children to their fiery death in Waco, Texas.

Individuals working for charismatic leaders often have higher task performance, greater task satisfaction, and lower levels of role conflict than those working for leaders with considerate or structuring behaviors (Howell & Frost, 1989). What are the characteristics of these people who can exert such a strong influence over their followers? Charismatic leaders have a strong need for power and the tendency to rely heavily on referent power as their primary power base (House, 1977). Charismatic leaders also are extremely self-confident and convinced of the rightness of their own beliefs and ideals. This self-confidence and strength of conviction make people trust the charismatic leader's judgment, unconditionally following the leader's mission and directives for action (Willner, 1984). The result is a strong bond between leader and followers, a bond built primarily around the leader's personality.

Although there have been many effective charismatic leaders, those who succeed the most have coupled their charismatic capabilities with behaviors consistent with the same leadership principles followed by other effective leaders. Those who do not add these other dimensions still attract followers but do not meet organizational goals as effectively as they could. They are (at least for a time) the Pied Pipers of the business world, with lots of followers but no constructive direction.

REFLECT

What are the defining characteristics of the three main leadership styles described in this tutorial?

TERMS TO KNOW

Charisma

A special magnetic charm and appeal that arouses loyalty and enthusiasm.

Charismatic Leader

A person who possesses legitimate power that arises from "exceptional sanctity, heroism, or exemplary character."

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned about the characteristics associated with different types of **leadership styles**. You learned that **transactional leaders** are extremely task-oriented and instrumental in their approach, offering incentives in exchange for desired behaviors. A **transformational leader**, on the other hand, moves and changes things "in a big way," inspiring others to action through their personal values, vision, passion, and belief in and commitment to the mission. This type of leader is also referred to as a **visionary leader**, who influences others through an emotional and/or intellectual attraction to the leader's dreams of what "can be." You also learned about the **charismatic leader**, like Martin Luther King, Jr., whose effectiveness originates in part in their charisma, a special magnetic

charm and appeal that arouses loyalty and enthusiasm. In this type of leadership, followers' unquestioning trust in and obedience to the leader can result in transformational positive change—or in some cases, disastrous outcomes.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Charisma

A special magnetic charm and appeal that arouses loyalty and enthusiasm.

Charismatic Leader

A person who possesses legitimate power that arises from “exceptional sanctity, heroism, or exemplary character.”

Transformational Leader

A leader who moves and changes things “in a big way” by inspiring others to perform the extraordinary.

Visionary Leader

A leader who influences others through an emotional and/or intellectual attraction to the leader’s dreams of what “can be.”

Motivation: Direction and Intensity

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson, you will learn about the major factors that determine a person's performance. You will also learn to distinguish between direction and intensity of motivation. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Major Factors That Determine Performance
   a. Ability
   b. Role Perception
   c. Performance Environment
   d. Motivation
2. The Role of Direction and Intensity on Motivation
3. Introduction to Motivation Theories

1. Major Factors That Determine Performance

The major determinants of a person's performance include ability, role perception, performance environment, and motivation. Each of these factors is described in detail below.

1a. Ability

Ability refers to the knowledge, skills, and receptiveness to learning that a person brings to a task or job. Knowledge is what a person knows. Skill is their capacity to perform some particular activity (like welding or accounting), including knowing what is expected of them (called accurate role perceptions). Receptiveness to learning is a function of how quickly a person acquires new knowledge. Some people have more ability than others, and high-ability people generally perform better than low-ability people (although we will see that this is not always the case) (Hunter & Hunter, 1984).

TERM TO KNOW

Ability

The knowledge, skills, and receptiveness to learning that an individual brings to a task or job.

1b. Role Perception

Accurate **role perceptions** refer to how well an individual understands their organizational role. This includes the goals (outcomes) the person is expected to achieve and the process by which the goals will be achieved. An employee who has accurate role perceptions knows both their expected outcomes and how to go about making those outcomes a reality. Incomplete or inaccurate role perceptions limit employees' capacity to meet expectations, regardless of their abilities and motivation.

TERM TO KNOW

Role Perception

The set of behaviors employees think they are expected to perform as members of an organization.

1c. Performance Environment

The **performance environment** refers to those factors that impact employees' performance but are essentially out of their control. Many environmental factors influence performance. Some factors facilitate performance, while others constrain it. An office professional who has to work with a defective personal computer is certainly not going to perform at peak levels, regardless of ability or desire. Students who are working full time and carrying a full load of classes may not do as well on an exam as they would if they could cut back on their work hours, despite the fact that they have high ability and high motivation.

TERM TO KNOW

Performance Environment

Refers to those factors that impact employees' performance but are essentially out of their control.

1d. Motivation

Motivation is the fourth major factor that determines whether a person will perform a task well.**Motivation** is a force within or outside of the body that energizes, directs, and sustains human behavior.

↱ EXAMPLE Within the body, examples might be needs, personal values, and goals, while an incentive might be seen as a force outside of the body.

The word stems from its Latin root *movere*, which means "to move." Generally speaking, motivation arises as a consequence of a person's desire to (1) fulfill unmet needs or (2) resolve conflicting thoughts that produce anxiety (an unpleasant experience). There are many ways in which we describe and categorize human needs, as we will see later in this Challenge. Certain needs are fundamental to our existence, like the need for food and water. When we are hungry, we are energized to satisfy that need by securing and ingesting food. Our other needs operate in a similar manner. When a need is unfulfilled, we are motivated to engage in behaviors that will satisfy it. The same is true for situations in which we experience conflicting thoughts. When we find ourselves in situations inconsistent with our beliefs, values, or expectations, we endeavor to eliminate the inconsistency. We either change the situation, or we change our perception of it. In both cases, motivation arises out of our interaction with and perception of a particular situation. We perceive the situation as satisfying our needs, or not. Motivation is thus a result of our interacting with situations to satisfy unmet needs or to resolve cognitive dissonance.

Simply stated, **work motivation** is the amount of effort a person exerts to achieve a certain level of job performance. Some people try very hard to perform their jobs well. They work long hours, even if it interferes with their family life. Highly motivated people go the "extra mile." High scorers on an exam make sure they know the examination material to the best of their ability, no matter how much midnight oil they have to burn. Other students who don't do as well may just want to get by—football games and parties are a lot more fun, after all.

Motivation is of great interest to employers: *All* employers want their people to perform to the best of their abilities. They take great pains to screen applicants to make sure they have the necessary abilities and motivation to perform well. They endeavor to supply all the necessary resources and a good work environment. Yet motivation remains a difficult factor to manage. As a result, it receives the most attention from organizations and researchers alike, who ask the perennial question, "What motivates people to perform

well?”

In this Challenge, we look at current answers to this question. What work conditions foster motivation? How can theories of motivation help us understand the general principles that guide organizational behavior? Rather than analyze why a particular student studies hard for a test, we’ll look at the underlying principles of our general behavior in a variety of situations (including test taking). We also discuss the major theories of motivation, along with their implications for management and organizational behavior. By the end of this Challenge you should have a better understanding of why some people are more motivated than others. Successful employees know what they want to achieve (direction), and they persist until they achieve their goals (intensity).

TERMS TO KNOW

Motivation

A force within or outside of the body that energizes, directs, and sustains human behavior. Within the body, examples might be needs, personal values, and goals, while an incentive might be seen as a force outside of the body. The word stems from its Latin root *movere*, which means “to move.”

Work Motivation

The amount of effort a person exerts to achieve a level of job performance.

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2. The Role of Direction and Intensity on Motivation

Our discussion thus far implies that motivation is a matter of effort. This is only partially true. Motivation has two major components: direction and intensity. **Direction** is *what* a person wants to achieve, or what they intend to do. It implies a target that motivated people try to “hit.” That target may be to do well on a test. Or it may be to perform better than anyone else in a work group. **Intensity** is *how hard* people try to achieve their targets. Intensity is what we think of as effort. It represents the energy we expend to accomplish something. If our efforts are getting nowhere, will we try different strategies to succeed? (High-intensity-motivated people are persistent!)

It is important to distinguish the direction and intensity aspects of motivation. If either is lacking, performance will suffer. A person who knows what they want to accomplish (direction) but doesn’t exert much effort (intensity) will not succeed. (Scoring 100 percent on an exam—your target—won’t happen unless you study!) Conversely, people who don’t have a direction (what they want to accomplish) probably won’t succeed either.

Employees’ targets don’t always match with what their employers want. Absenteeism (some employees call this “calling in well”) is a major example (Actitime.com, 2016). Pursuing your favorite hobby (your target) on a workday (your employer’s target) is a conflict in direction; below, we’ll examine some theories about why this conflict occurs.

There is another reason why employees’ targets are sometimes contrary to their employers’—sometimes employers do not ensure that employees understand what the employer wants. Employees can have great intensity but poor direction. It is management’s job to provide direction: Should we stress quality as well as quantity? Work independently or as a team? Meet deadlines at the expense of costs? Employees flounder without direction. Clarifying direction results in accurate *role perceptions*, the behaviors employees think they are expected to perform as members of an organization. Employees with accurate role perceptions

understand their purpose in the organization and how the performance of their job duties contributes to organizational objectives. Some motivation theorists assume that employees know the correct direction for their jobs. Others do not. These differences are highlighted in the discussion of motivation theories below.

TERMS TO KNOW

Direction

What a person is motivated to achieve.

Intensity

(1) The degree to which people try to achieve their targets; (2) the forcefulness that enhances the likelihood that a stimulus will be selected for perceptual processing.

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3. Introduction to Motivation Theories

At this point, as we begin our discussion of the various motivation theories, it is reasonable to ask, "Why isn't there just one motivation theory?" The answer is that the different theories are driven by different philosophies of motivation. Some theorists assume that humans are propelled more by needs and instincts than by reasoned actions. Their **content motivation theories** focus on *the content of what* motivates people. Other theorists focus on the process by which people are motivated. **Process motivation theories** address *how* people become motivated—that is, how people perceive and think about a situation. Content and process theories endeavor to predict motivation in a variety of situations. However, none of these theories can predict what will motivate an individual in a given situation 100 percent of the time. Given the complexity of human behavior, a "grand theory" of motivation will probably never be developed.

A second reasonable question at this point is, "Which theory is best?" If that question could be easily answered, this Challenge would be quite short. The simple answer is that there is no "one best theory." All have been supported by organizational behavior research. All have strengths and weaknesses. However, understanding something about each theory is a major step toward effective management practices.

REFLECT

1. Explain the two drivers of motivation: direction and intensity.
2. What are the differences between content and process theories of motivation?
3. Will there ever be a grand theory of motivation?

TERMS TO KNOW

Content Motivation Theories

Theories that focus on what motivates people.

Process Motivation Theories

Theories that focus on the how and why of motivation.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned about the **major factors that determine performance**: **ability**, which refers to the knowledge, skills, and receptiveness to learning that a person brings to a task or job; **role perception**, which refers to how well an individual understands their organizational role;**performance**

environment, which refers to those factors that impact employees' performance but are essentially out of their control; and **motivation**, a force within or outside of the body that energizes, directs, and sustains human behavior. You also learned to distinguish between **the role of direction and intensity of motivation**, understanding that direction is *what* a person wants to achieve (implying a target that motivated people try to "hit"), while intensity is *how hard* people try to achieve those targets. You also covered a brief **introduction to motivation theories**, noting that content motivation theories focus on *the content of what* motivates people, while process motivation theories address *how* people become motivated. It is important to note, however, that regardless of the varying theories, given the complexity of human behavior, a "grand theory" of motivation will likely never be developed.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Content Motivation Theories
Theories that focus on what motivates people.

Process Motivation Theories
Theories that focus on the how and why of motivation.

Content Theories of Motivation

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson, you will compare and contrast the major content theories of motivation. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. The Importance of Human Needs
2. Learned Needs Theory
   a. Need for Achievement
   b. Need for Affiliation
   c. Need for Power
3. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs
   a. Five Basic Types of Human Needs
4. Alderfer's ERG Theory
5. Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory
6. Extrinsic vs. Intrinsic Motivation

1. The Importance of Human Needs

The theories presented in this section focus on the importance of human needs. A common thread through all of them is that people have a variety of needs. A **need** is a human condition that becomes "energized" when people feel deficient in some respect.

↱ EXAMPLE When we are hungry, our need for food has been energized.

Two features of needs are key to understanding motivation. First, when a need has been energized, we are motivated to satisfy it. We strive to make the need disappear. **Hedonism**, one of the first motivation theories, assumes that people are motivated to satisfy mainly their own needs (seek pleasure, avoid pain). Long since displaced by more refined theories, hedonism clarifies the idea that needs provide direction for motivation.
Second, once we have satisfied a need, it ceases to motivate us. When we've eaten to satiation, we are no longer motivated to eat. Other needs take over and we endeavor to satisfy them. A **manifest need** is whatever need is motivating us at a given time. Manifest needs dominate our other needs.
Instincts are our natural, fundamental needs, basic to our survival. Our needs for food and water are instinctive. Many needs are learned. We are not born with a high (or low) need for achievement—we learn to need success (or failure). The distinction between instinctive and learned needs sometimes blurs; for example, is our need to socialize with other people instinctive or learned?

TERMS TO KNOW

Need

A human condition that becomes energized when people feel deficient in some respect.

Hedonism

Assumes that people are motivated to satisfy mainly their own needs (seek pleasure, avoid pain).

Manifest Need

Whatever need that is motivating a person at a given time.

Instincts

Our natural, fundamental needs, basic to our survival.

2. Learned Needs Theory

David C. McClelland and his associates (especially John W. Atkinson) studied three needs in depth: the need for achievement, the need for affiliation, and the need for power (often abbreviated, in turn, as nAch, nAff, and nPow) (Akkinson & McClelland, 1948). McClelland believes that these three needs are learned, primarily in childhood. But he also believes that each need can be taught, especially nAch. McClelland's research is important because much of current thinking about organizational behavior is based on it.

2a. Need for Achievement

The **need for achievement (nAch)** is how much people are motivated to excel at the tasks they are performing, especially tasks that are difficult. Of the three needs studied by McClelland, nAch has the greatest impact. The need for achievement varies in intensity across individuals. This makes nAch a personality trait as well as a statement about motivation. When nAch is being expressed, making it a manifest need, people try hard to succeed at whatever task they're doing. We say these people have a high achievement motive. A **motive** is a source of motivation; it is the need that a person is attempting to satisfy. Achievement needs become manifest when individuals experience certain types of situations.

To better understand the nAch motive, it's helpful to describe high-nAch people. You probably know a few of them. They're constantly trying to accomplish something. One of your authors has a father-in-law who would much rather spend his weekends digging holes (for various home projects) than going fishing. Why? Because when he digs a hole, he gets results. In contrast, he can exert a lot of effort and still not catch a fish. A lot of fishing, no fish, and no results equal failure!

McClelland describes three major characteristics of high-nAch people:

1. They feel personally responsible for completing whatever tasks they are assigned. They accept credit for success and blame for failure.
2. They like situations where the probability of success is moderate. High-nAch people are not motivated by tasks that are too easy or extremely difficult. Instead, they prefer situations where the outcome is uncertain, but in which they believe they can succeed if they exert enough effort. They avoid both simple and impossible situations.
3. They have very strong desires for feedback about how well they are doing. They actively seek out performance feedback. It doesn't matter whether the information implies success or failure. They want to know whether they have achieved or not. They constantly ask how they are doing, sometimes to the point of being a nuisance.

Why is nAch important to organizational behavior? The answer is, the success of many organizations is dependent on the nAch levels of their employees (Akkinson & McClelland, 1948). This is especially true for jobs that require self-motivation and managing others. Employees who continuously have to be told how to do

their jobs require an overly large management team, and too many layers of management spell trouble in the current marketplace. Today's flexible, cost-conscious organizations have no room for top-heavy structures; their high-nAch employees perform their jobs well with minimal supervision.

Many organizations manage the achievement needs of their employees poorly. A common perception about people who perform unskilled jobs is that they are unmotivated and content doing what they are doing. But, if they have achievement needs, the job itself creates little motivation to perform. It is too easy. There are not enough workers who feel personal satisfaction for having the cleanest floors in a building. Designing jobs that are neither too challenging nor too boring is key to managing motivation. Job enrichment is one effective strategy; this frequently entails training and rotating employees through different jobs, or adding new challenges.

TERMS TO KNOW

Need For Achievement (nAch)

The need to excel at tasks, especially tasks that are difficult.

Motive

A source of motivation; the need that a person is attempting to satisfy.

2b. Need for Affiliation

This need is the second of McClelland's learned needs. The **need for affiliation (nAff)** reflects a desire to establish and maintain warm and friendly relationships with other people. As with nAch, nAff varies in intensity across individuals. As you would expect, high-nAff people are very sociable. They're more likely to go bowling with friends after work than to go home and watch television. Other people have lower affiliation needs. This doesn't mean that they avoid other people, or that they dislike others. They simply don't exert as much effort in this area as high-nAff people do.

The nAff has important implications for organizational behavior. High-nAff people like to be around other people, including other people at work. As a result, they perform better in jobs that require teamwork. Maintaining good relationships with their coworkers is important to them, so they go to great lengths to make the work group succeed because they fear rejection. So, high-nAff employees will be especially motivated to perform well if others depend on them. In contrast, if high-nAff people perform jobs in isolation from other people, they will be less motivated to perform well. Performing well on this job won't satisfy their need to be around other people.

Effective managers carefully assess the degree to which people have high or low nAff. Employees high in nAff should be placed in jobs that require or allow interactions with other employees. Jobs that are best performed alone are more appropriate for low-nAff employees, who are less likely to be frustrated.

TERM TO KNOW

Need For Affiliation (nAff)

The need to establish and maintain warm and friendly relationships with other people.

2c. Need for Power

The third of McClelland's learned needs, the **need for power (nPow)**, reflects a motivation to influence and be responsible for other people. An employee who is often talkative, gives orders, and argues a lot is motivated by the need for power over others.

Employees with high nPow can be beneficial to organizations. High-nPow people do have effective employee behaviors, but at times they're disruptive. A high-nPow person may try to convince others to do things that are detrimental to the organization. So, when is this need good, and when is it bad? Again, there are no easy

answers. McClelland calls this the “two faces of power" (McClelland, 1970). A *personal power seeker* endeavors to control others mostly for the sake of dominating them. They want others to respond to their wishes whether or not it is good for the organization. They “build empires,” and they protect them.

McClelland’s other power seeker is the *social power seeker.* A high social power seeker satisfies needs for power by influencing others, like the personal power seeker. They differ in that they feel best when they have influenced a work group to achieve the group’s goals, and not some personal agenda. High social power seekers are concerned with goals that a work group has set for itself, and they are motivated to influence others to achieve the goal. This need is oriented toward fulfilling responsibilities to the employer, not to the self.

McClelland has argued that the high need for social power is the most important motivator for successful managers. Successful managers tend to be high in this type of nPow. High need for achievement can also be important, but it sometimes results in too much concern for personal success and not enough for the employer’s success. The need for affiliation contributes to managerial success only in those situations where the maintenance of warm group relations is as important as getting others to work toward group goals.

The implication of McClelland’s research is that organizations should try to place people with high needs for social power in managerial jobs. It is critical, however, that those managerial jobs allow the employee to satisfy the nPow through social power acquisition. Otherwise, a manager high in nPow may satisfy this need through acquisition of personal power, to the detriment of the organization.

TERM TO KNOW

Need For Power (nPow)

The need to control things, especially other people; reflects a motivation to influence and be responsible for other people.

3. Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Any discussion of needs that motivate performance would be incomplete without considering Abraham Maslow (Maslow, 1943). Thousands of managers in the 1960s were exposed to Maslow’s theory through the popular writings of Douglas McGregor (McGregor, 1960). Today, many of them still talk about employee motivation in terms of Maslow’s theory.

Maslow was a psychologist who, based on his early research with primates (monkeys), observations of patients, and discussions with employees in organizations, theorized that human needs are arranged hierarchically. That is, before one type of need can manifest itself, other needs must be satisfied.

↱ EXAMPLE Our need for water takes precedence over our need for social interaction (this is also called *prepotency*). We will always satisfy our need for water before we satisfy our social needs; water needs have prepotency over social needs.

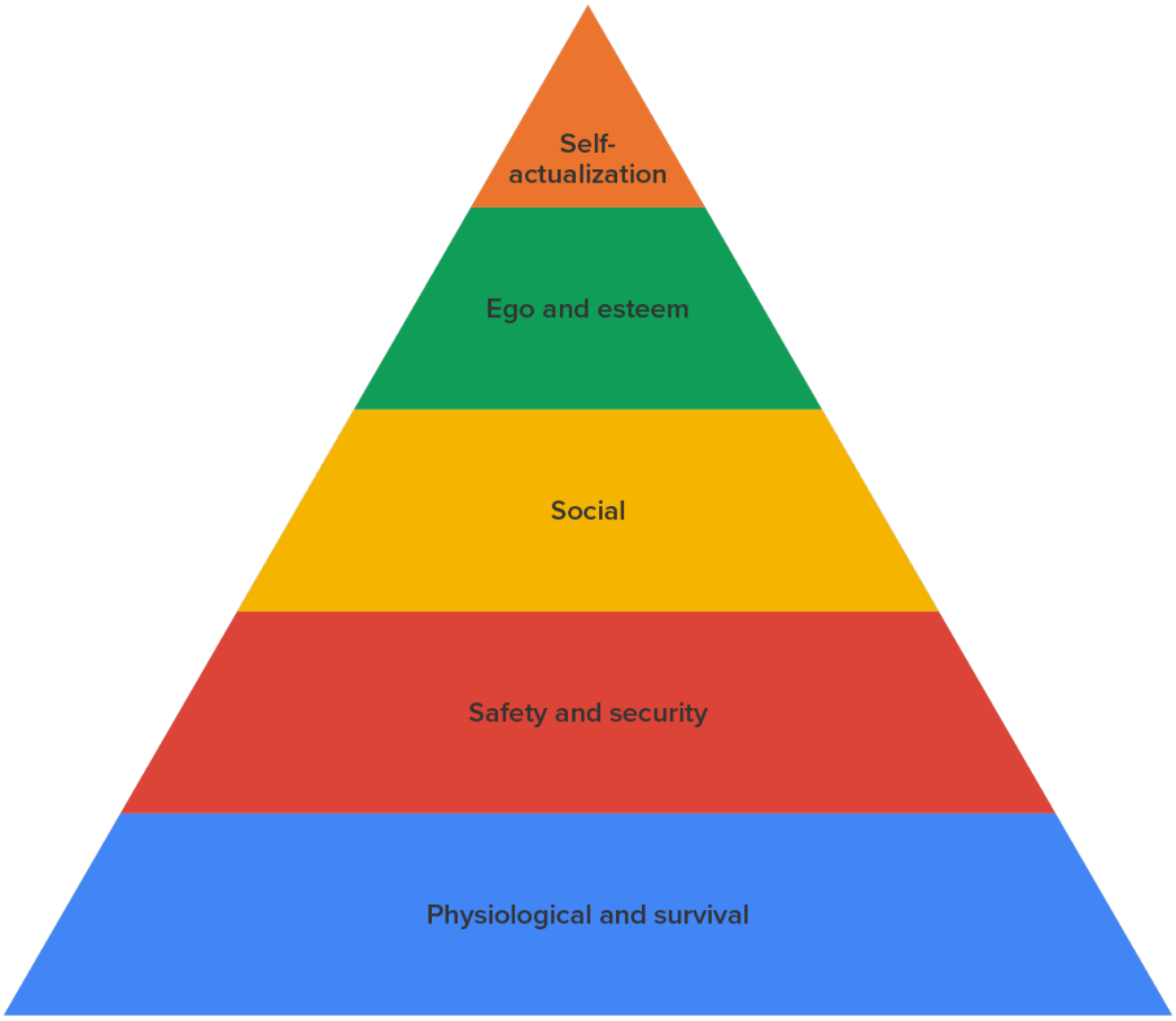
Maslow’s theory differs from others that preceded it because of this hierarchical, prepotency concept.

3a. Five Basic Types of Human Needs

Maslow went on to propose five basic types of human needs. This is in contrast to the thousands of needs that earlier researchers had identified. Maslow condensed human needs into a manageable set. Those five human needs, in the order of prepotency in which they direct human behavior, are:

1. *Physiological and survival needs*. These are the most basic of human needs, and include the needs for water, food, sex, sleep, activity, stimulation, and oxygen.
2. *Safety and security needs*. These needs invoke behaviors that assure freedom from danger. This set of needs involves meeting threats to our existence, including extremes in environmental conditions (heat, dust, and so on), assault from other humans, tyranny, and murder. In other words, satisfaction of these needs prevents fear and anxiety while adding stability and predictability to life.
3. *Social needs*. These needs reflect human desires to be the target of affection and love from others. They are especially satisfied by the presence of spouses, children, parents, friends, relatives, and others to whom we feel close. Feelings of loneliness and rejection are symptoms that this need has not been satisfied.
4. *Ego and esteem*. Esteem needs go beyond social needs. They reflect our need to be respected by others, and to have esteem for ourselves. It is one thing to be liked by others. It is another thing to be respected for our talents and abilities. Ego and esteem needs have internal (self) and external (others) focuses. An internal focus includes desires for achievement, strength, competence, confidence, and independence. An external focus includes desires to have prestige, recognition, appreciation, attention, and respect from others. Satisfaction of external esteem needs can lead to satisfaction of internal esteem needs.
5. *Self-actualization*. Self-actualization needs are the most difficult to describe. Unlike the other needs, the need for self-actualization is never completely satisfied. Self-actualization involves a desire for self-fulfillment, “to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming" (Maslow, 1943). Because people are so different in their strengths and weaknesses, in capacities and limitations, the meaning of self-actualization varies greatly. Satisfying self-actualization needs means developing all of our special abilities to their fullest degree.

The diagram below illustrates Maslow’s proposed hierarchy of needs. According to his theory, people first direct their attention to satisfying their lower-order needs. Those are the needs at the bottom of the pyramid (physiological, safety, and security). Once those needs have been satisfied, the next level, social needs, become energized. Once satisfied, we focus on our ego and esteem needs. Maslow believed that most people become fixated at this level. That is, most people spend much of their lives developing self-esteem and the esteem of others. But, once those esteem needs are satisfied, Maslow predicted that self-actualization needs would dominate. There are no higher levels in the pyramid, because self-actualization needs can never be fully satisfied. They represent a continuing process of self-development and self-improvement that, once satisfied on one dimension (painting), create motivation to continue on other dimensions (sculpting). One wonders if athletes are self-actualizing when they participate in multiple sports endeavors.



Source: Based on Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 50*(4), 370-396. www.doi.org/10.1037/h0054346

An overriding principle in this theory is that a person's attention (direction) and energy (intensity) will focus on satisfying the lowest-level need that is not currently satisfied. Needs can also be satisfied at some point but become active (dissatisfied) again. Needs must be "maintained" (we must continue to eat occasionally). According to Maslow, when lower-level needs are reactivated, we once again concentrate on that need. That is, we lose interest in the higher-level needs when lower-order needs are energized.

The implications of Maslow's theory for organizational behavior are as much conceptual as they are practical. The theory posits that to maximize employee motivation, employers must try to guide workers to the upper parts of the hierarchy. That means that the employer should help employees satisfy lower-order needs like safety and security and social needs. Once satisfied, employees will be motivated to build esteem and respect through their work achievements. The diagram shows how Maslow's theory relates to factors that organizations can influence. For example, by providing adequate pay, safe working conditions, and cohesive work groups, employers help employees satisfy their lower-order needs. Once satisfied, challenging jobs, additional responsibilities, and prestigious job titles can help employees satisfy higher-order esteem needs.

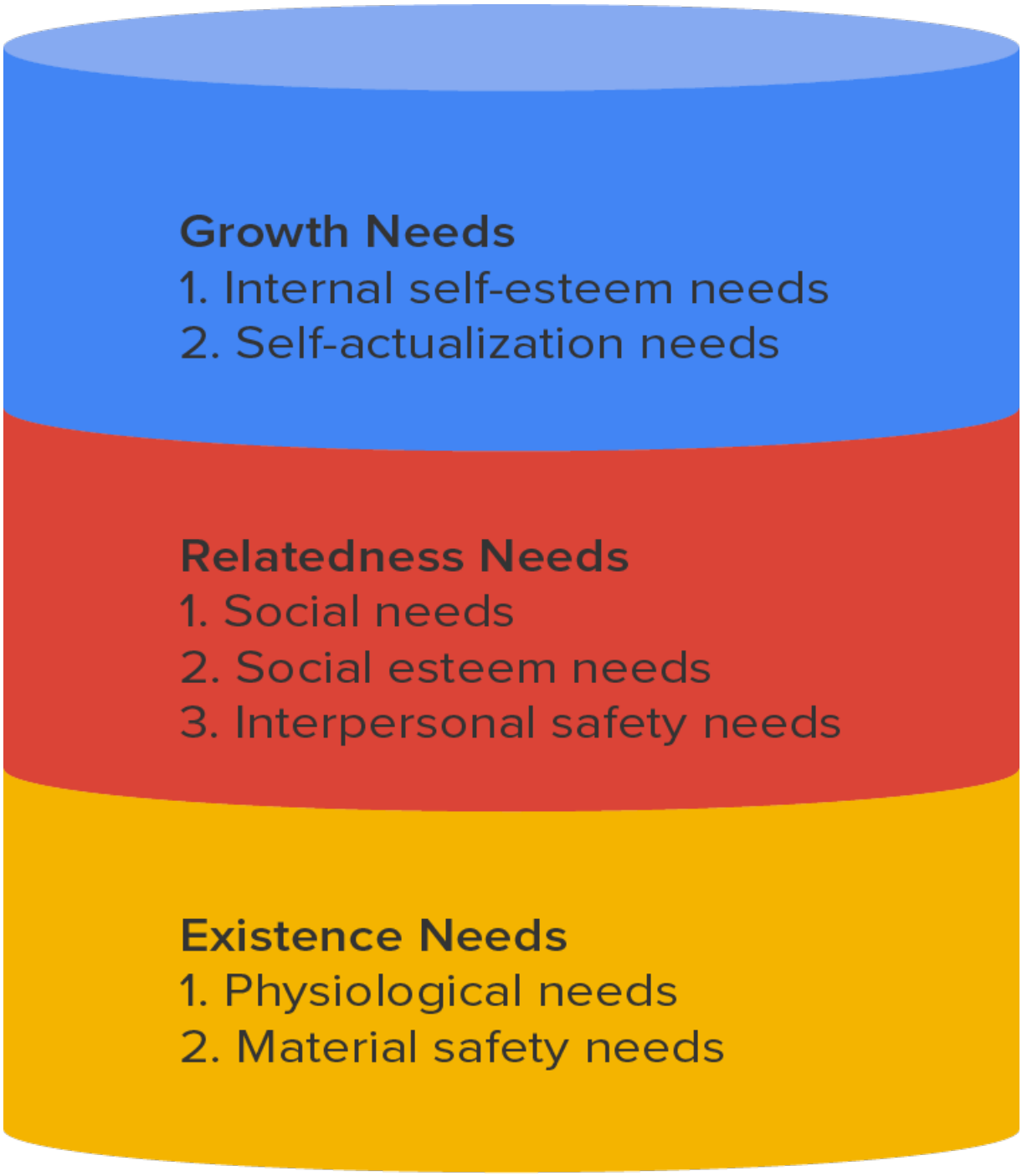
Maslow's theory is still popular among practicing managers. Organizational behavior researchers, however, are not as enamored with it because research results don't support Maslow's hierarchical notion. Apparently, people don't go through the five levels in a fixed fashion. On the other hand, there is some evidence that

people satisfy the lower-order needs before they attempt to satisfy higher-order needs. Refinements of Maslow's theory in recent years reflect this more limited hierarchy (Alderfer, 1972).

4. Alderfer's ERG Theory

Clayton Alderfer observed that very few attempts had been made to test Maslow's full theory. Further, the evidence accumulated provided only partial support. During the process of refining and extending Maslow's theory, Alderfer provided another need-based theory and a somewhat more useful perspective on motivation (Hall & Nougaim, 1968). Alderfer's **ERG theory** compresses Maslow's five need categories into three: existence, relatedness, and growth (Alderfer, 1972). In addition, ERG theory details the dynamics of an individual's movement between the need categories in a somewhat more detailed fashion than typically characterizes interpretations of Maslow's work.

As shown in the diagram below, the ERG model addresses the same needs as those identified in Maslow's work:



Alderfer's ERG Theory

- *Existence needs* include physiological and material safety needs. These needs are satisfied by material conditions and not through interpersonal relations or personal involvement in the work setting.
- *Relatedness needs* include all of Maslow's social needs, plus social safety and social esteem needs. These needs are satisfied through the exchange of thoughts and feelings with other people.
- *Growth needs* include self-esteem and self-actualization needs. These needs tend to be satisfied through one's full involvement in work and the work setting.

The following table identifies a number of ways in which organizations can help their members satisfy these three needs.

Growth Opportunities
• Challenging job • Creativity • Organizational advancement • Responsibility • Autonomy • Interesting work • Achievement • Participation
Relatedness Opportunities
• Friendship • Interpersonal security • Athletic teams • Social recognition • Quality supervision • Work teams • Social events • Merit pay
Existence Opportunites
• Heat • Lighting • Base salary • Insurance • Retirement • Air conditioning • Restrooms • Cafeteria • Job security • Health programs • Clean air • Drinking water • Safe conditions • No layoffs • Time off

Four components—satisfaction progression, frustration, frustration regression, and aspiration—are key to understanding Alderfer's ERG theory. The first of these, *satisfaction progression*, is in basic agreement with Maslow's process of moving through the needs. As we increasingly satisfy our existence needs, we direct energy toward relatedness needs. As these needs are satisfied, our growth needs become more active. The

second component, *frustration*, occurs when we attempt but fail to satisfy a particular need. The resulting frustration may make satisfying the unmet need even more important to us—unless we repeatedly fail to satisfy that need. In this case, Alderfer's third component, *frustration regression*, can cause us to shift our attention to a previously satisfied, more concrete, and verifiable need. Lastly, the *aspiration* component of the ERG model notes that, by its very nature, growth is intrinsically satisfying. The more we grow, the more we want to grow. Therefore, the more we satisfy our growth needs, the more important it becomes and the more strongly we are motivated to satisfy it.

Alderfer's model is potentially more useful than Maslow's in that it doesn't create false motivational categories.

> ↱ EXAMPLE It is difficult for researchers to ascertain when interaction with others satisfies our need for acceptance and when it satisfies our need for recognition.

ERG also focuses attention explicitly on movement through the set of needs in both directions. Further, evidence in support of the three need categories and their order tends to be stronger than evidence for Maslow's five need categories and their relative order.

TERMS TO KNOW

ERG Theory
Compresses Maslow's five need categories into three: existence, relatedness, and growth.

5. Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory

Clearly one of the most influential motivation theories throughout the 1950s and 1960s was Frederick Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory. This theory is a further refinement of Maslow's theory. Herzberg argued that there are two sets of needs instead of the five sets theorized by Maslow. He called the first set "motivators" (or growth needs). **Motivators**, which relate to the jobs we perform and our ability to feel a sense of achievement as a result of performing them, are rooted in our need to experience growth and self-actualization. The second set of needs he termed "hygienes." **Hygienes** relate to the work environment and are based on the basic human need to "avoid pain." According to Herzberg, growth needs motivate us to perform well and, when these needs are met, lead to the experience of satisfaction. Hygiene needs, on the other hand, must be met to avoid dissatisfaction (but do not necessarily provide satisfaction or motivation) (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Hygiene factors are not directly related to the work itself (job content). Rather, hygienes refer to job context factors (pay, working conditions, supervision, and security). Herzberg also refers to these factors as "dissatisfiers" because they are frequently associated with dissatisfied employees. These factors are so frequently associated with dissatisfaction that Herzberg claims they never really provide satisfaction. When they're present in sufficient quantities, we avoid dissatisfaction, but they do not contribute to satisfaction. Furthermore, since meeting these needs does not provide satisfaction, Herzberg concludes that they do not motivate workers.

Motivator factors involve our long-term need to pursue psychological growth (much like Maslow's esteem and self-actualization needs). Motivators relate to job content. Job content is what we actually do when we perform our job duties. Herzberg considered job duties that lead to feelings of achievement and recognition to be motivators. He refers to these factors as "satisfiers" to reflect their ability to provide satisfying experiences. When these needs are met, we experience satisfaction. Because meeting these needs provides satisfaction, they motivate workers. More specifically, Herzberg believes these motivators lead to high

performance (achievement), and the high performance itself leads to satisfaction.

The unique feature of Herzberg's theory is that job conditions that prevent dissatisfaction do not cause satisfaction. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are on different "scales" in his view. Hygienes can cause dissatisfaction if they are not present in sufficient levels. Thus, an employee can be dissatisfied with low pay. But paying him or her more will not cause long-term satisfaction unless motivators are present. Good pay by itself will only make the employee neutral toward work; to attain satisfaction, employees need challenging job duties that result in a sense of achievement. Employees can be dissatisfied, neutral, or satisfied with their jobs, depending on their levels of hygienes and motivators. Herzberg's theory even allows for the possibility that an employee can be satisfied and dissatisfied at the same time—the "I love my job but I hate the pay" situation!

Herzberg's theory has made lasting contributions to organizational research and managerial practice. Researchers have used it to identify the wide range of factors that influence worker reactions. Previously, most organizations attended primarily to hygiene factors. Because of Herzberg's work, organizations today realize the potential of motivators. Job enrichment programs are among the many direct results of his research.

Herzberg's work suggests a two-stage process for managing employee motivation and satisfaction. First, managers should address the hygiene factors. Intense forms of dissatisfaction distract employees from important work-related activities and tend to be demotivating (Dunham et al., 1983). Thus, managers should make sure that such basic needs as adequate pay, safe and clean working conditions, and opportunities for social interaction are met. They should then address the much more powerful motivator needs, in which workers experience recognition, responsibility, achievement, and growth. If motivator needs are ignored, neither long-term satisfaction nor high motivation is likely. When motivator needs are met, however, employees feel satisfied and are motivated to perform well.

TERMS TO KNOW

Motivators

Relate to the jobs that people perform and people's ability to feel a sense of achievement as a result of performing them.

Hygienes

Factors in the work environment that are based on the basic human need to "avoid pain."

6. Extrinsic vs. Intrinsic Motivation

One major implication of Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory is the somewhat counterintuitive idea that managers should focus more on motivators than on hygienes. After all, doesn't everyone want to be paid well? Organizations have held this out as a chief motivator for decades! Why might concentrating on motivators give better results? To answer this question, we must examine types of motivation. Organizational behavior researchers often classify motivation in terms of what stimulates it. In the case of **extrinsic motivation**, we endeavor to acquire something that satisfies a lower-order need. Jobs that pay well and that are performed in safe, clean working conditions with adequate supervision and resources directly or indirectly satisfy these lower-order needs. These "outside the person" factors are extrinsic rewards.

Factors "inside" the person that cause people to perform tasks,**intrinsic motivation**, arise out of performing a task in and of itself, because it is interesting or "fun" to do. The task is enjoyable, so we continue to do it *even in the absence* of extrinsic rewards. That is, we are motivated by *intrinsic rewards*, rewards that we more or

less give ourselves. Intrinsic rewards satisfy higher-order needs like relatedness and growth in ERG theory. When we sense that we are valuable contributors, are achieving something important, or are getting better at some skill, we like this feeling and strive to maintain it.

REFLECT

1. Understand the content theories of motivation.
2. Understand the contributions that McClelland, Maslow, Alderfer, and Herzberg made toward an understanding of human motivation.

TERMS TO KNOW

Extrinsic Motivation

Occurs when a person performs a given behavior to acquire something that will satisfy a lower-order need.

Intrinsic Motivation

Arises out of performing a behavior in and of itself, because it is interesting or “fun” to do.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you compared and contrasted the major content theories of motivation. You began by understanding **the importance of human needs**, the term "need" referring to a human condition that becomes “energized” when people feel deficient in some respect. You learned that two features of needs are key to understanding motivation: one, when a need has been energized, we are motivated to satisfy it; two, once we have satisfied a need, it ceases to motivate us. You learned about David C. McClelland's **learned needs theory**, the foundation for much contemporary thinking about organizational behavior, which studies three needs in depth: the **need for achievement**, the **need for affiliation**, and the **need for power**. You also learned about **Maslow's hierarchy of needs**, based upon his theory that human needs are arranged hierarchically; that is, before one type of need can manifest itself, other needs must be satisfied. Maslow proposed **five basic types of human needs**, in the order of prepotency in which they direct human behavior: physiological and survival needs; safety and security needs; social needs; ego and esteem; and self-actualization. Refinements of Maslow’s theory in recent years include **Alderfer's ERG theory**, which compresses Maslow’s five need categories into three: existence, relatedness, and growth. You also learned about one of the most influential motivation theories throughout the 1950s and 1960s: **Herzberg’s motivator-hygiene theory**, yet a further refinement of Maslow’s theory. Herzberg argued that there are two sets of needs instead of the five sets theorized by Maslow—“motivators” (or growth needs) and “hygienes,” which relate to the work environment and are based on the basic human need to “avoid pain.” Lastly, you explored the differences between **extrinsic vs. intrinsic motivation**, since all of these theories require a closer look at motivation in terms of what stimulates it.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

ERG Theory

Compresses Maslow's five need categories into three: existence, relatedness, and growth.

Extrinsic Motivation

Occurs when a person performs a given behavior to acquire something that will satisfy a lower-order need.

Hedonism

Assumes that people are motivated to satisfy mainly their own needs (seek pleasure, avoid pain).

Hygienes

Factors in the work environment that are based on the basic human need to "avoid pain."

Instincts

Our natural, fundamental needs, basic to our survival.

Intrinsic Motivation

Arises out of performing a behavior in and of itself, because it is interesting or "fun" to do.

Manifest Need

Whatever need that is motivating a person at a given time.

Motivators

Relate to the jobs that people perform and people's ability to feel a sense of achievement as a result of performing them.

Motive

A source of motivation; the need that a person is attempting to satisfy.

Need

A human condition that becomes energized when people feel deficient in some respect.

Need For Achievement (nAch)

The need to excel at tasks, especially tasks that are difficult.

Need For Affiliation (nAff)

The need to establish and maintain warm and friendly relationships with other people.

Need For Power (nPow)

Reflects a motivation to influence and be responsible for other people.

Process Theories of Motivation

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson, you will describe the process theories of motivation, and compare and contrast the main process theories of motivation: operant conditioning theory, equity theory, goal theory, and expectancy theory. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Operant Conditioning Theory
   a. The Basic Operant Model
2. Equity Theory
   a. The Basic Equity Model
   b. Implications of Equity Theory
3. Goal Theory
4. Expectancy Theory
   a. The Basic Expectancy Model
   b. Implications of Expectancy Theory

BEFORE YOU START

Process theories of motivation try to explain why behaviors are initiated. These theories focus on the mechanism by which we choose a target, and the effort that we exert to "hit" the target. There are four major process theories: (1) operant conditioning, (2) equity, (3) goal, and (4) expectancy.

1. Operant Conditioning Theory

Operant conditioning theory is the simplest of the motivation theories. It basically states that people will do those things for which they are rewarded and will avoid doing things for which they are punished. This premise is sometimes called the "law of effect." However, if this were the sum total of conditioning theory, we would not be discussing it here. Operant conditioning theory does offer greater insights than "reward what you want and punish what you don't," and knowledge of its principles can lead to effective management practices.

Operant conditioning focuses on the learning of voluntary behaviors (Skinner, 1953). The term**operant conditioning** indicates that learning results from our "operating on" the environment. After we "operate on the environment" (that is, behave in a certain fashion), consequences result. These consequences determine the likelihood of similar behavior in the future. Learning occurs because we do something to the environment. The environment then reacts to our action, and our subsequent behavior is influenced by this reaction.

TERMS TO KNOW

Operant Conditioning

Indicates that learning results from our "operating on" the environment.

1a. The Basic Operant Model

According to **operant conditioning theory**, we learn to behave in a particular fashion because of consequences that resulted from our past behaviors (Skinner, 1953). The learning process involves three distinct steps, detailed in the table below. The first step involves a *stimulus* (S). The stimulus is any situation or event we perceive that we then respond to. A homework assignment is a stimulus. The second step involves a *response* (R), that is, any behavior or action we take in reaction to the stimulus. Staying up late to get your homework assignment in on time is a response. (We use the words response and behavior interchangeably here.) Finally, a *consequence* (C) is any event that follows our response and that makes the response more or less likely to occur in the future. If Colleen Sullivan receives praise from her superior for working hard, and if getting that praise is a pleasurable event, then it is likely that Colleen will work hard again in the future. If, on the other hand, the superior ignores or criticizes Colleen's response (working hard), this consequence is likely to make Colleen avoid working hard in the future. It is the experienced consequence (positive or negative) that influences whether a response will be repeated the next time the stimulus is presented.

Extinction occurs when a consequence makes it less likely the response/behavior will be repeated in the future. In the previous example, criticism from Colleen's supervisor could cause her to stop working hard on any assignment.

Reinforcement occurs when a consequence makes it more likely the response/behavior will be repeated in the future. A **positive reinforcement** is a desirable consequence that satisfies an active need or that removes a barrier to need satisfaction. It can be as simple as a kind word or as major as a promotion. Another technique for making a desired response more likely to be repeated is known as **negative reinforcement**. When a behavior causes something undesirable to be taken away, the behavior is more likely to be repeated in the future. Managers use negative reinforcement when they remove something unpleasant from an employee's work environment in the hope that this will encourage the desired behavior. Ted doesn't like being continually reminded by Philip to work faster (Ted thinks Philip is nagging him), so he works faster at stocking shelves to avoid being criticized. Philip's reminders are a negative reinforcement for Ted.

One should use negative reinforcement with extreme caution. Negative reinforcement is often confused with punishment. Punishment, unlike reinforcement (negative or positive), is intended to make a particular behavior go away (not be repeated). Negative reinforcement, like positive reinforcement, is intended to make a behavior more likely to be repeated in the future. In the previous example, Philip's reminders simultaneously punished one behavior (slow stocking) and reinforced another (faster stocking). The difference is often a fine one, but it becomes clearer when we identify the behaviors we are trying to encourage (reinforcement) or discourage (punishment).

TERMS TO KNOW

Operant Conditioning Theory

Posits that people learn to behave in a particular fashion as a result of the consequences that followed their past behaviors.

Reinforcement

Occurs when a consequence makes it more likely the response/behavior will be repeated in the future.

Extinction

Occurs when a consequence makes it less likely the response/behavior will be repeated in the future.

Positive Reinforcement

A desirable consequence that satisfies an active need or that removes a barrier to need satisfaction.

Negative Reinforcement

Occurs when a behavior causes something undesirable to be removed, increasing the likelihood of the behavior reoccurring.

2. Equity Theory

Suppose you have worked for a company for several years. Your performance has been excellent, you have received regular pay increases, and you get along with your boss and coworkers. One day you come to work to find that a new person has been hired to work at the same job that you do. You are pleased to have the extra help. Then, you find out the new person is making $100 more per week than you, despite your longer service and greater experience. How do you feel? If you're like most of us, you're quite unhappy. Your satisfaction has just evaporated. Nothing about your job has changed—you receive the same pay, do the same job, and work for the same supervisor. Yet, the addition of one new employee has transformed you from a happy to an unhappy employee. This feeling of unfairness is the basis for equity theory.

Equity theory states that motivation is affected by the outcomes we receive for our inputs compared to the outcomes and inputs of other people (Adams, 1965). This theory is concerned with the reactions people have to outcomes they receive as part of a "social exchange." According to equity theory, our reactions to the outcomes we receive from others (an employer) depend both on how we value those outcomes in an absolute sense and on the circumstances surrounding their receipt. Equity theory suggests that our reactions will be influenced by our perceptions of the "inputs" provided in order to receive these outcomes ("Did I get as much out of this as I put into it?"). Even more important is our comparison of our inputs to what we believe others received for their inputs ("Did I get as much for my inputs as my coworkers got for theirs?").

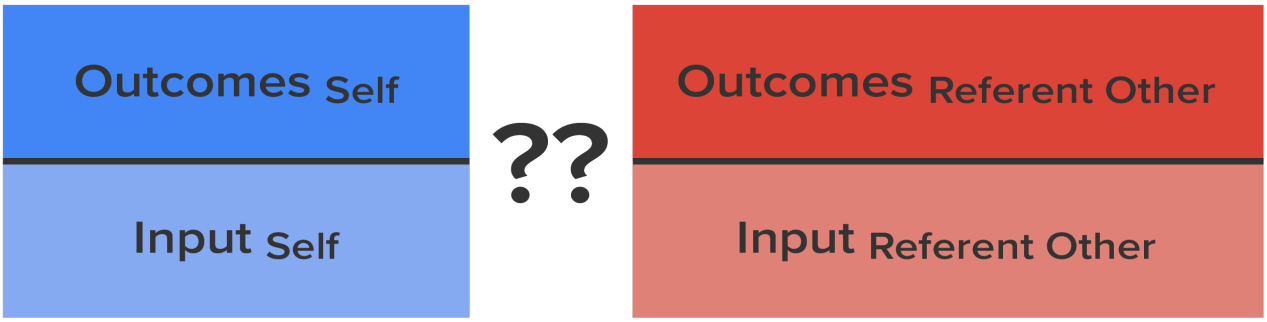
TERM TO KNOW

Equity Theory

States that human motivation is affected by the outcomes people receive for their inputs, compared to the outcomes and inputs of other people.

2a. The Basic Equity Model

The fundamental premise of equity theory is that we continuously monitor the degree to which our work environment is "fair." In determining the degree of fairness, we consider two sets of factors, inputs and outcomes (see diagram below). **Inputs** are any factors we contribute to the organization that we feel have value and are relevant to the organization. Note that the value attached to an input is based on our perception of its relevance and value. Whether or not anyone else agrees that the input is relevant or valuable is unimportant to us. Common inputs in organizations include time, effort, performance level, education level, skill levels, and bypassed opportunities. Since any factor we consider relevant is included in our evaluation of equity, it is not uncommon for factors to be included that the organization (or even the law) might argue are inappropriate (such as age, sex, ethnic background, or social status).



Outcomes are anything we perceive as getting back from the organization in exchange for our inputs. Again, the value attached to an outcome is based on our perceptions and not necessarily on objective reality. Common outcomes from organizations include pay, working conditions, job status, feelings of achievement, and friendship opportunities. Both positive and negative outcomes influence our evaluation of equity. Stress, headaches, and fatigue are also potential outcomes. Since any outcome we consider relevant to the exchange influences our equity perception, we frequently include unintended factors (peer disapproval, family reactions).

Equity theory predicts that we will compare our outcomes to our inputs in the form of a ratio. On the basis of this ratio we make an initial determination of whether or not the situation is equitable. If we perceive that the outcomes we receive are commensurate with our inputs, we are satisfied. If we believe that the outcomes are not commensurate with our inputs, we are dissatisfied. This dissatisfaction can lead to ineffective behaviors for the organization if they continue. The key feature of equity theory is that it predicts that we will compare our ratios to the ratios of other people. It is this comparison of the two ratios that has the strongest effect on our equity perceptions. These other people are called referent others because we "refer to" them when we judge equity. Usually, referent others are people we work with who perform work of a similar nature. That is, **referent others** perform jobs that are similar in difficulty and complexity to the employee making the equity determination (see previous diagram).

Three conditions can result from this comparison. Our outcome-to-input ratio could equal the referent other's. This is a **state of equity**. A second result could be that our ratio is greater than the referent other's. This is a state of **overreward inequity**. The third result could be that we perceive our ratio to be less than that of the referent other. This is a state of **underreward inequity**. Equity theory has a lot to say about basic human tendencies. The motivation to compare our situation to that of others is strong.

> ↱ EXAMPLE What is the first thing you do when you get an exam back in class? Probably look at your score and make an initial judgment as to its fairness. For a lot of people, the very next thing they do is look at the scores received by fellow students who sit close to them. A 75 percent score doesn't look so bad if everyone else scored lower! This is equity theory in action.

Most workers in the United States are at least partially dissatisfied with their pay (Adams, 1965). Equity theory helps explain this. Two human tendencies create feelings of inequity that are not based in reality. One is that we tend to overrate our performance levels.

The second human tendency that leads to unwarranted perceptions of inequity is our tendency to *overrate* the outcomes of others (Lawler, 1972). Many employers keep the pay levels of employees a "secret." Still other employers actually forbid employees to talk about their pay. This means that many employees don't know for certain how much their colleagues are paid. And, because most of us overestimate the pay of others, we tend to think that they're paid more than they actually are, and the unjustified perceptions of inequity are perpetuated.

The bottom line for employers is that they need to be sensitive to employees' need for equity. Employers

need to do everything they can to prevent feelings of inequity because employees engage in effective behaviors when they perceive equity and engage in ineffective behaviors when they perceive inequity.

TERMS TO KNOW

Inputs

Any personal qualities that a person views as having value and that are relevant to the organization.

Outcomes

Anything a person perceives as getting back from an organization in exchange for the person's inputs.

Referent Others

Workers that a person uses to compare inputs and outcomes, and who perform jobs similar in difficulty and complexity to the employee making an equity determination.

State of Equity

Occurs when people perceive their outcome/input ratio to be equal to that of their referent other.

Overreward Inequity

Occurs when people perceive their outcome/input ratio to be greater than that of their referent other.

Underreward Inequity

Occurs when people perceive their outcome/input ratio to be less than that of their referent other.

2b. Implications of Equity Theory

Equity theory is widely used, and its implications are clear. In the vast majority of cases, employees experience (or perceive) underreward inequity rather than overreward. As discussed above, few of the behaviors that result from underreward inequity are good for employers. Thus, employers try to prevent unnecessary perceptions of inequity. They do this in a number of ways. They try to be as fair as possible in allocating pay. That is, they measure performance levels as accurately as possible, then give the highest performers the highest pay increases. Second, most employers are no longer secretive about their pay schedules. People are naturally curious about how much they are paid relative to others in the organization. This doesn't mean that employers don't practice discretion—they usually don't reveal specific employees' exact pay. But they do tell employees the minimum and maximum pay levels for their jobs and the pay scales for the jobs of others in the organization. Such practices give employees a factual basis for judging equity.

Supervisors play a key role in creating perceptions of equity. "Playing favorites" ensures perceptions of inequity. Employees want to be rewarded on their merits, not the whims of their supervisors. In addition, supervisors need to recognize differences in employees in their reactions to inequity. Some employees are highly sensitive to inequity, and a supervisor needs to be especially cautious around them (Huseman et al., 1987). Everyone is sensitive to reward allocation (Bies, 1987). But "equity sensitives" are even more sensitive. A major principle for supervisors, then, is simply to implement fairness. Never base punishment or reward on whether or not you like an employee. Reward behaviors that contribute to the organization, and discipline those that do not. Make sure employees understand what is expected of them, and praise them when they do it. These practices make everyone happier and your job easier.

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3. Goal Theory

No theory is perfect. If it was, it wouldn't be a theory. It would be a set of facts. Theories are sets of propositions that are right more often than they are wrong, but they are not infallible. However, the basic propositions of goal theory come close to being infallible. Indeed, it is one of the strongest theories in organizational behavior.

Goal theory states that people will perform better if they have difficult, specific, accepted performance goals or objectives (Locke, 1978; Pinder, 1994).

The first and most basic premise of goal theory is that people will attempt to achieve those goals that they *intend* to achieve. Thus, if we intend to do something (like get an A on an exam), we will exert effort to accomplish it. Without such goals, our effort at the task (studying) required to achieve the goal is less. Students whose goals are to get As study harder than students who don't have this goal—we all know this. This doesn't mean that people without goals are unmotivated. It simply means that people with goals are more motivated. The intensity of their motivation is greater, and they are more directed.

The second basic premise is that *difficult* goals result in better performance than easy goals. This does not mean that difficult goals are always achieved, but our performance will usually be better when we intend to achieve harder goals. Your goal of an A in Classical Mechanics at Cal Tech may not get you your A, but it may earn you a B+, which you wouldn't have gotten otherwise. Difficult goals cause us to exert more effort, and this almost always results in better performance.

Another premise of goal theory is that *specific* goals are better than vague goals. We often wonder what we need to do to be successful. Have you ever asked a professor, "What do I need to do to get an A in this course?" If he or she responded, "Do well on the exams," you weren't much better off for having asked. This is a vague response. Goal theory says that we perform better when we have specific goals. Had your professor told you the key thrust of the course, to turn in all the problem sets, to pay close attention to the essay questions on exams, and to aim for scores in the 90s, you would have something concrete on which to build a strategy.

A key premise of goal theory is that people must *accept* the goal. Usually we set our own goals. But sometimes others set goals for us. Your professor telling you your goal is to "score at least a 90 percent on your exams" doesn't mean that you'll accept this goal. Maybe you don't feel you can achieve scores in the 90s. Or, you've heard that 90 isn't good enough for an A in this class. This happens in work organizations quite often. Supervisors give orders that something must be done by a certain time. The employees may fully understand what is wanted, yet if they feel the order is unreasonable or impossible, they may not exert much effort to accomplish it. Thus, it is important for people to accept the goal. They need to feel that it is also their goal. If they do not, goal theory predicts that they won't try as hard to achieve it.

Goal theory also states that people need to *commit* to a goal in addition to accepting it. **Goal commitment** is the degree to which we dedicate ourselves to achieving a goal. Goal commitment is about setting priorities. We can accept many goals (go to all classes, stay awake during classes, take lecture notes), but we often end up doing only some of them. In other words, some goals are more important than others. And we exert more effort for certain goals. This also happens frequently at work. A software analyst's major goal may be to write a new program. His or her minor goal may be to maintain previously written programs. It is minor because maintaining old programs is boring while writing new ones is fun. Goal theory predicts that his or her commitment, and thus his or her intensity, to the major goal will be greater.

Allowing people to participate in the goal-setting process often results in higher goal commitment. This has to do with ownership. And when people participate in the process, they tend to incorporate factors they think will make the goal more interesting, challenging, and attainable. Thus, it is advisable to allow people some input into the goal-setting process. Imposing goals on them from the outside usually results in less

commitment (and acceptance).

The process starts with our values. Values are our beliefs about how the world should be or act, and often include words like “should” or “ought.” We compare our present conditions against these values.

> ↗ EXAMPLE Randi holds the value that everyone should be a hard worker. After measuring her current work against this value, Randi concludes that she doesn’t measure up to her own value. Following this, her goal-setting process begins. Randi will set a goal that affirms her status as a hard worker.

Goal theory can be a tremendous motivational tool. In fact, many organizations practice effective management by using a technique called “management by objectives” (MBO). MBO is based on goal theory and is quite effective when implemented consistently with goal theory’s basic premises.

Despite its many strengths, several cautions about goal theory are appropriate. Locke has identified most of them (Locke, 1979). First, setting goals in one area can lead people to neglect other areas. It is important that goals be set for most major duties. Second, goal setting sometimes has unintended consequences.

Some managers use goal setting in unethical ways. They may manipulate employees by setting impossible goals. This enables them to criticize employees even when the employees are doing superior work and, of course, causes much stress. Goal setting should never be abused. Perhaps the key caution about goal setting is that it often results in too much focus on quantified measures of performance. Qualitative aspects of a job or task may be neglected because they aren’t easily measured. Managers must keep employees focused on the qualitative aspects of their jobs as well as the quantitative ones. Finally, setting individual goals in a teamwork environment can be counterproductive (Mitchell & Silver, 1990). Where possible, it is preferable to have group goals in situations where employees depend on one another in the performance of their jobs.

The cautions noted here are not intended to deter you from using goal theory. We note them so that you can avoid the pitfalls. Remember, employees have a right to reasonable performance expectations and the rewards that result from performance, and organizations have a right to expect high performance levels from employees. Goal theory should be used to optimize the employment relationship. Goal theory holds that people will exert effort to accomplish goals if those goals are difficult to achieve, accepted by the individual, and specific in nature.

TERMS TO KNOW

Goal Theory

States that people will perform better if they have difficult, specific, accepted performance goals or objectives.

Goal Commitment

The degree to which people dedicate themselves to achieving a goal.

4. Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory posits that we will exert much effort to perform at high levels so that we can obtain valued outcomes. It is the motivation theory that many organizational behavior researchers find most intriguing, in no small part because it is currently also the most comprehensive theory. Expectancy theory ties together many of the concepts and hypotheses from the theories discussed earlier in this Challenge. In addition, it points to factors that other theories miss. Expectancy theory has much to offer the student of management and

organizational behavior.

Expectancy theory is sufficiently general that it is useful in a wide variety of situations. Choices between job offers, between working hard or not so hard, between going to work or not—virtually any set of possibilities can be addressed by expectancy theory. Basically, the theory focuses on two related issues:

1. When faced with two or more alternatives, which will we select?
2. Once an alternative is chosen, how motivated will we be to pursue that choice?

Expectancy theory thus focuses on the two major aspects of motivation, *direction* (which alternative?) and *intensity* (how much effort to implement the alternative?). The attractiveness of an alternative is determined by our "expectations" of what is likely to happen if we choose it. The more we believe that the alternative chosen will lead to positively valued outcomes, the greater its attractiveness to us.
Expectancy theory states that, when faced with two or more alternatives, we will select the most attractive one. And, the greater the attractiveness of the chosen alternative, the more motivated we will be to pursue it. Our natural hedonism, discussed earlier in this Challenge, plays a role in this process. We are motivated to maximize desirable outcomes (a pay raise) and minimize undesirable ones (discipline). Expectancy theory goes on to state that we are also logical in our decisions about alternatives. It considers people to be *rational*. People evaluate alternatives in terms of their "pros and cons," and then choose the one with the most "pros" and fewest "cons."

TERM TO KNOW

Expectancy Theory

Posits that people will exert high effort levels to perform at high levels so that they can obtain valued outcomes.

4a. The Basic Expectancy Model

The three major components of expectancy theory reflect its assumptions of hedonism and rationality: effort-performance expectancy, performance-outcome expectancy, and valences.

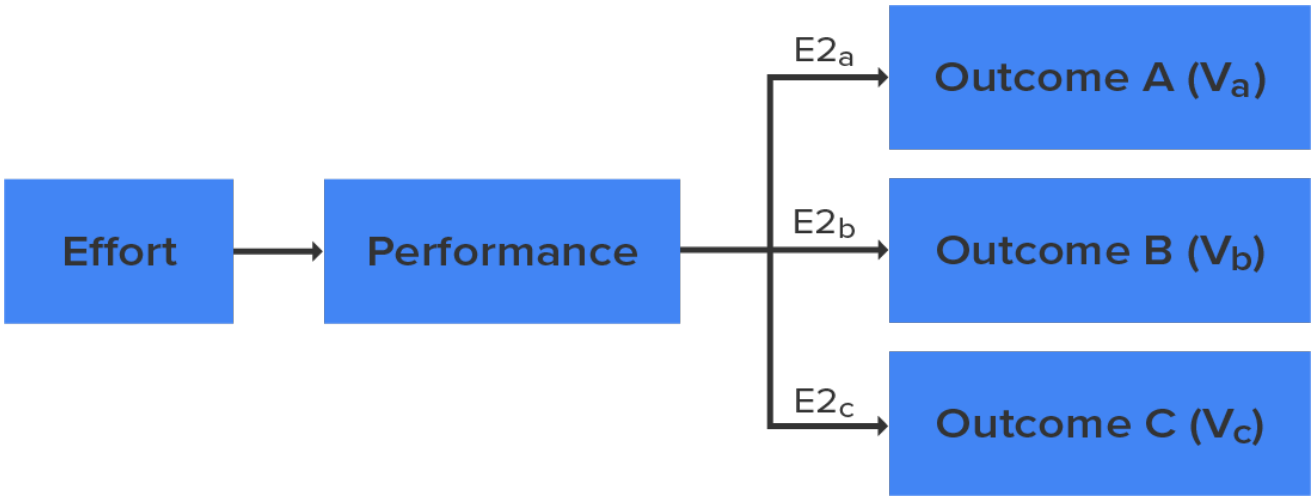
The **effort-performance expectancy**, abbreviated E1, is the perceived probability that effort will lead to performance (or E ➡ P). Performance here means anything from doing well on an exam to assembling 100 toasters a day at work. Sometimes people believe that no matter how much effort they exert, they won't perform at a high level. They have weak E1s. Other people have strong E1s and believe the opposite—that is, that they can perform at a high level if they exert high effort. You all know students with different E1s—those who believe that if they study hard they'll do well, and those who believe that no matter how much they study they'll do poorly. People develop these perceptions from prior experiences with the task at hand, and from self-perceptions of their abilities. The core of the E1 concept is that people don't always perceive a direct relationship between effort level and performance level.

The **performance-outcome expectancy**, E2, is the perceived relationship between performance and outcomes (or P ➡ O). Many things in life happen as a function of how well we perform various tasks. E2 addresses the question, "What will happen if I perform well?" Let's say you get an A in your Classical Mechanics course at Cal Tech. You'll be elated, your classmates may envy you, and you are now assured of that plum job at NASA. But let's say you got a D. Whoops, that was the last straw for the dean. Now you've flunked out, and you're reduced to going home to live with your parents (perish the thought!). Likewise, E2 perceptions develop in organizations, although hopefully not as drastically as your beleaguered career at Cal Tech. People with strong E2s believe that if they perform their jobs well, they'll receive desirable outcomes—good pay increases, praise from their supervisor, and a feeling that they're really contributing. In the same situation, people with weak E2s will have the opposite perceptions—that high performance levels don't result

in desirable outcomes and that it doesn't really matter how well they perform their jobs as long as they don't get fired.

Valences are the easiest of the expectancy theory concepts to describe. Valences are simply the degree to which we perceive an outcome as desirable, neutral, or undesirable. Highly desirable outcomes (e.g., a 25 percent pay increase) are positively valent. Undesirable outcomes (being disciplined) are negatively valent. Outcomes that we're indifferent to (i.e., where you must park your car) have neutral valences. Positively and negatively valent outcomes abound in the workplace—pay increases and freezes, praise and criticism, recognition and rejection, promotions and demotions. And as you would expect, people differ dramatically in how they value these outcomes. Our needs, values, goals, and life situations affect what valence we give an outcome. Equity is another consideration we use in assigning valences. We may consider a 10 percent pay increase desirable until we find out that it was the lowest raise given in our work group.

The diagram below summarizes the three core concepts of expectancy theory. The theory states that our perceptions about our surroundings are essentially predictions about "what leads to what." We perceive that certain effort levels result in certain performance levels. We perceive that certain performance levels result in certain outcomes. Outcomes can be **extrinsic**, in that others (e.g., our supervisor) determine whether we receive them, or **intrinsic**, in that *we* determine if they are received (i.e., our sense of achievement). Expectancy theory predicts that we will exert effort that results in the maximum amount of positive-valence outcomes. If our E1 or E2 is weak, or if the outcomes are not sufficiently desirable, our motivation to exert effort will be low. Stated differently, an individual will be motivated to try to achieve the level of performance that results in the most rewards.



1. Effort ➡ Performance Expectancy (E ➡ P; E1)
2. Performance ➡ Outcome Expectancy (P ➡ O; E2)
3. Valences (V) of Outcomes (Vo)

TERMS TO KNOW

Effort-Performance Expectancy

E1, the perceived probability that effort will lead to performance (or E ➡ P).

Performance-Outcome Expectancy

E2, the perceived relationship between performance and outcomes (or P ➡ O).

Valences

The degree to which a person perceives an outcome as being desirable, neutral, or undesirable.

4b. Implications of Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory has major implications for the workplace. Basically, expectancy theory predicts that employees will be motivated to perform well on their jobs under two conditions. The first is when employees believe that a reasonable amount of effort will result in good performance. The second is when good performance is associated with positive outcomes and low performance is associated with negative outcomes. If neither of these conditions exists in the perceptions of employees, their motivation to perform will be low.

Why might an employee perceive that positive outcomes are not associated with high performance? Or that negative outcomes are not associated with low performance? That is, why would employees develop weak E2s? This happens for a number of reasons. The main one is that many organizations subscribe too strongly to a principle of equality (not to be confused with equity). They give all of their employees equal salaries for equal work, equal pay increases every year (these are known as across-the-board pay raises), and equal treatment wherever possible. Equality-focused organizations reason that some employees "getting more" than others leads to disruptive competition and feelings of inequity.

In time, employees in equality-focused organizations develop weak E2s because no distinctions are made for differential outcomes. If the best and the worst salespeople are paid the same, in time they will both decide that it isn't worth the extra effort to be a high performer. Needless to say, this is not the goal of competitive organizations and can cause the demise of the organization as it competes with other firms in today's global marketplace.

Expectancy theory states that to maximize motivation, organizations must make outcomes contingent on performance. This is the main contribution of expectancy theory: it makes us think about *how* organizations should distribute outcomes. If an organization, or a supervisor, believes that treating everyone "the same" will result in satisfied and motivated employees, they will be wrong more times than not. From equity theory we know that some employees, usually the better-performing ones, will experience underreward inequity. From expectancy theory we know that employees will see no difference in outcomes for good and poor performance, so they will not have as much incentive to be good performers. Effective organizations need to actively encourage the perception that good performance leads to positive outcomes (bonuses, promotions) and that poor performance leads to negative ones (discipline, termination). Remember, there is a big difference between treating employees equally and treating them equitably.

What if an organization ties positive outcomes to high performance and negative outcomes to low performance? Employees will develop strong E2s. But will this result in highly motivated employees? The answer is maybe. We have yet to address employees' E1s. If employees have weak E1s, they will perceive that high (or low) effort does *not* result in high performance and thus will not exert much effort. It is important for managers to understand that this can happen despite rewards for high performance.

Task-related abilities are probably the single biggest reason why some employees have weak E1s.**Self-efficacy** is our belief about whether we can successfully execute some future action or task, or achieve some result. High self-efficacy employees believe that they are likely to succeed at most or all of their job duties and responsibilities. And as you would expect, low self-efficacy employees believe the opposite. Our efficacy expectations at a given point in time determine not only our initial decision to perform (or not) a task, but also the amount of effort we will expend and whether we will persist in the face of adversity (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy has a strong impact on the E1 factor. As a result, self-efficacy is one of the strongest determinants of performance in any particular task situation (Gardner & Pierce, 1998).

Employees develop weak E1s for two reasons. First, they don't have sufficient resources to perform their jobs. Resources can be internal or external. Internal resources include what employees bring to the job (such as prior training, work experience, education, ability, and aptitude) and their understanding of what they need to do to be considered good performers. The second resource is called role perceptions—how employees

believe their jobs are done and how they fit into the broader organization. If employees don't know how to become good performers, they will have weak E1s. External resources include the tools, equipment, and labor necessary to perform a job. The lack of good external resources can also cause E1s to be weak.

The second reason for weak E1s is an organization's failure to measure performance accurately. That is, performance *ratings* don't correlate well with actual performance levels. How does this happen? Have you ever gotten a grade that you felt didn't reflect how much you learned? This also happens in organizations. Why are ratings sometimes inaccurate? Supervisors, who typically give out ratings, well, they're human. Perhaps they're operating under the mistaken notion that similar ratings for everyone will keep the team happy. Perhaps they're unconsciously playing favorites. Perhaps they don't know what good and poor performance levels are. Perhaps the measurements they're expected to use don't fit their product/team/people. Choose one or all of these. Rating people is rarely easy.

Whatever the cause of rating errors, some employees may come to believe that no matter what they do they will never receive a high performance rating. They may in fact believe that they are excellent performers but that the performance rating system is flawed. Expectancy theory differs from most motivation theories because it highlights the need for accurate performance measurement. Organizations cannot motivate employees to perform at a high level if they cannot identify high performers.

TERM TO KNOW

Self-efficacy

A belief about the probability that one can successfully execute some future action or task, or achieve some result.

REFLECT

1. Understand the process theories of motivation: operant conditioning, equity, goal, and expectancy theories.
2. Describe the managerial factors managers must consider when applying motivational approaches.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned about the four major process theories which try to explain why behaviors are initiated. You learned about **operant conditioning theory**, which states that people will do those things for which they are rewarded and will avoid doing things for which they are punished. **The basic operant model** involves three distinct steps: a stimulus, a response, and a consequence. According to this theory, we learn to behave in a particular fashion because of consequences that resulted from our past behaviors; extinction occurs when a consequence makes it less likely the response/behavior will be repeated in the future, and reinforcement (positive or negative) occurs when a consequence makes it more likely the response/behavior will be repeated in the future. You learned about **equity theory**, which states that motivation is affected by the outcomes we receive for our inputs compared to the outcomes and inputs of other people. **The basic equity model** is based on the premise that we continuously monitor the degree to which our work environment is "fair," determined by two sets of factors, inputs and outcomes. This theory predicts that we will compare our outcomes to our inputs in the form of a ratio, and on the basis of this ratio we make an initial determination of whether or not the situation is equitable. However, as you learned in the discussion of **implications of equity theory**, many employees experience (or perceive) underreward inequity rather than overreward; therefore, employers should try to prevent unnecessary perceptions of inequity. You also learned about **goal**

theory, one of the strongest theories in organizational behavior, which posits that people will perform better if they have difficult, specific, accepted performance goals or objectives The basic goal-setting model starts with an individual's values—beliefs about how the world should be or act—and his or her present conditions are compared against these values. Lastly, you learned about **expectancy theory**, which posits that we will exert much effort to perform at high levels so that we can obtain valued outcomes. **The basic expectancy model** consists of three major components: effort-performance expectancy (E1), performance-outcome expectancy (E2), and valences; to maximize motivation, organizations must make outcomes contingent on performance. In the discussion of **implications of expectancy theory**, you learned that it is important for organizations to cultivate an environment where employees can develop strong E1s and E2s.

Best of luck in your learning!

Source: Access for free at **https://openstax.org/books/principles-management/pages/1-introduction**

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TERMS TO KNOW

Effort-Performance Expectancy
E1, the perceived probability that effort will lead to performance (or E ➡ P).

Equity Theory
States that human motivation is affected by the outcomes people receive for their inputs, compared to the outcomes and inputs of other people.

Expectancy Theory
Posits that people will exert high effort levels to perform at high levels so that they can obtain valued outcomes.

Extinction
Occurs when a consequence makes it less likely the response/behavior will be repeated in the future.

Goal Commitment
The degree to which people dedicate themselves to achieving a goal.

Goal Theory

States that people will perform better if they have difficult, specific, accepted performance goals or objectives.

Inputs

Any personal qualities that a person views as having value and that are relevant to the organization.

Negative Reinforcement

Occurs when a behavior causes something undesirable to be removed, increasing the likelihood of the behavior reoccurring.

Operant Conditioning

Indicates that learning results from our “operating on” the environment.

Operant Conditioning Theory

Posits that people learn to behave in a particular fashion as a result of the consequences that followed their past behaviors.

Outcomes

Anything a person perceives as getting back from an organization in exchange for the person’s inputs.

Overreward Inequity

Occurs when people perceive their outcome/input ratio to be greater than that of their referent other.

Performance-Outcome Expectancy

E2, the perceived relationship between performance and outcomes (or P ➨ O).

Positive Reinforcement

A desirable consequence that satisfies an active need or that removes a barrier to need satisfaction.

Punishment

An aversive consequence that follows a behavior and makes it less likely to reoccur.

Referent Others

Workers that a person uses to compare inputs and outcomes, and who perform jobs similar in difficulty and complexity to the employee making an equity determination.

Reinforcement

Occurs when a consequence makes it more likely the response/behavior will be repeated in the future.

Self-efficacy

A belief about the probability that one can successfully execute some future action or task, or achieve some result.

State of Equity

Occurs when people perceive their outcome/input ratio to be equal to that of their referent other.

Underreward Inequity

Occurs when people perceive their outcome/input ratio to be less than that of their referent other.

Valences

The degree to which a person perceives an outcome as being desirable, neutral, or undesirable.

Teamwork in the Workplace

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson you will learn the practices that make an effective team in the workplace. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Focus on Teamwork in the Workplace
2. Defining Workplace Teams
3. Practices for Effective Teams

1. Focus on Teamwork in the Workplace

Much of the work that is performed today in organizations requires a focus on teamwork. The ability to work successfully as a team member, as well as the ability to lead teams, is an ultimate advantage within the workforce. Teams themselves must be managed, in addition to managing just the individuals, to be successful. We've all heard the quote originally coined by Aristotle that states that "the whole is greater than the sum of its parts." This captures the nature of the team perfectly—there is such a synergy that comes from a team that the individuals alone are not able to create. This Challenge details the importance of and benefits that you may derive from working as a team, as well as some of the ways we can make our teams more successful.

2. Defining Workplace Teams

Teamwork has never been more important in organizations than it is today. Whether you work in a manufacturing environment and utilize self-directed work teams, or if you work in the "**knowledge economy**" and derive benefits from collaboration within a team structure, you are harnessing the power of a team.

A team, according to Katzenbach and Smith in their *Harvard Business Review* (HBR) article "The Discipline of Teams," is defined as "people organized to function cooperatively as a group" (Katzenbach & Smith, 2005). The five elements that make teams function are:

- Common commitment and purpose
- Specific performance goals
- Complementary skills
- Commitment to how the work gets done
- Mutual accountability

A team has a specific purpose that it delivers on, has shared leadership roles, and has both individual and mutual accountabilities. Teams discuss, make decisions, and perform real work together, and they measure their performance by assessing their collective work products. This is very different from the classic **working**

group in an organization (usually organized by functional area) in which there is a focused leader, individual accountabilities and work products, and a group purpose that is the same as the broader organizational mission. Think of the finance organization or a particular business unit in your company—these are, in effect, larger working groups that take on a piece of the broader organizational mission. They are organized under a leader, and their effectiveness is measured by its influence on others within the business (e.g., financial performance of the business.)

TERMS TO KNOW

Knowledge Economy

The information society, using knowledge to generate tangible and intangible values.

Working Group

Group of experts working together to achieve specific goals; performance is made up of the individual results of all members.

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3. Practices for Effective Teams

So, what makes a team truly effective? According to Katzenbach and Smith's "Discipline of Teams," there are several practices that the authors have observed in successful teams. These practices include:

Establish urgency, demanding performance standards, and direction: Teams work best when they have a compelling reason for being, and it is thus more likely that the teams will be successful and live up to performance expectations. We've all seen the teams that are brought together to address an "important initiative" for the company, but without clear direction and a truly compelling reason to exist, the team will lose momentum and wither.

Select members for their skill and skill potential, not for their personality: This is not always as easy as it sounds for several reasons. First, most people would prefer to have those with good personalities and positive attitudes on their team in order to promote a pleasant work environment. This is fine, but make sure that those individuals have the skill sets needed (or the potential to acquire/learn them) for their piece of the project. The second caveat here is that you don't always know what skills you need on a project until you really dig in and see what's going on. Spend some time upfront thinking about the purpose of the project and the anticipated deliverables you will be producing, and think through the specific types of skills you'll need on the team.

Pay particular attention to first meetings and actions: This is one way of saying that first impressions mean a lot—and it is just as important for teams as for individuals. Teams will interact with everyone from functional subject-matter experts all the way to senior leadership, and the team must look competent and be perceived as competent. Keeping an eye on your team's level of **emotional intelligence** is very important and will enhance your team's reputation and ability to navigate stakeholders within the organization.

Set some clear rules of behavior. For example, many meetings and team situations have rushed through "**ground rules**" because it felt like they were obvious—and everyone always came up with the same list. It is so critical that the team takes the time upfront to capture their own rules of the road in order to keep the team in check. Rules that address areas such as attendance, discussion, confidentiality, project approach, and conflict are key to keeping team members aligned and engaged appropriately.

Set and seize upon a few immediate performance-oriented tasks and goals: What does this mean? Have some

quick wins that make the team feel that they're really accomplishing something and working together well. This is very important to the team's confidence, as well as just getting into the practices of working as a team. Success in the larger tasks will come soon enough, as the larger tasks are really just a group of smaller tasks that fit together to produce a larger deliverable.

Challenge the group regularly with fresh facts and information. That is, continue to research and gather information to confirm or challenge what you know about your project. Don't assume that all the facts are static and that you received them at the beginning of the project. Often, you don't know what you don't know until you dig in. The pace of change is so great in the world today that new information is always presenting itself and must be considered in the overall context of the project.

Spend lots of time together. Here's an obvious one that is often overlooked. People are so busy that they forget that an important part of the team process is to spend time together, think together, and bond. Time in person, time on the phone, time in meetings—all of it counts and helps to build camaraderie and trust.

Exploit the power of positive feedback, recognition, and reward Positive reinforcement is a motivator that will help the members of the team feel more comfortable contributing. It will also reinforce the behaviors and expectations that you're driving within the team. Although there are many extrinsic rewards that can serve as motivators, a successful team begins to feel that its own success and performance is the most rewarding.

Collaboration is another key concept and method by which teams can work together very successfully. Bringing together a team of experts from across the business would seem to be a best practice in any situation. However, Gratton and Erickson, in their article *Eight Ways to Build Collaborative Teams*, found that collaboration seems to decrease sharply when a team is working on complex project initiatives. In their study, they examined 55 larger teams and identified those with strong collaboration skills, despite the level of complexity. There were eight success factors for having strong collaboration skills:

- "Signature" relationship practices
- Role models of collaboration among executives
- Establishment of "gift" culture, in which managers mentor employees
- Training in relationship skills
- A sense of community
- Ambidextrous leaders—good at task and people leadership
- Good use of heritage relationships
- Role clarity and task ambiguity (Gratton & Erickson, 2007)

As teams grow in size and complexity, the standard practices that worked well with small teams don't work anymore. Organizations need to think about how to make collaboration work, and they should leverage the above best practices to build relationships and trust.

1. What is the definition of a team?
2. Name some practices that can make a team more successful.

Emotional Intelligence

The capability of individuals to recognize their own emotions and others' emotions.

Ground Rules

Basic rules or principles of conduct that govern a situation or endeavor.

Collaboration

The action of working with someone to produce or create something.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned that much of the work performed in organizations requires a **focus on teamwork in the workplace,** since the ability to work successfully as a team member—and the ability to lead teams—is an ultimate advantage within the workforce. You learned that **workplace teams are defined** as "people organized to function cooperatively as a group," with a specific purpose that they deliver on, shared leadership roles, and both individual and mutual accountabilities. You also learned about several **practices for effective teams,** including the importance of collaboration as a method by which teams can work together successfully.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Collaboration

The action of working with someone to produce or create something.

Emotional Intelligence

The capability of individuals to recognize their own emotions and others' emotions.

Ground Rules

Basic rules or principles of conduct that govern a situation or endeavor.

Knowledge Economy

The information society, using knowledge to generate tangible and intangible values.

Working Group

Group of experts working together to achieve specific goals; performance is made up of the individual results of all members.

Team Development Over Time

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson you will learn how teams develop over time. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. The Four Stages of Team Development

1. The Four Stages of Team Development

If you have been a part of a team—as most of us have—then you intuitively have felt that there are different "stages" of team development. Teams and team members often start from a position of friendliness and excitement about a project or endeavor, but the mood can sour and the team dynamics can go south very quickly once the real work begins. In 1965, educational psychologist Bruce Tuckman at Ohio State University developed a four-stage model to explain the complexities that he had witnessed in team development.

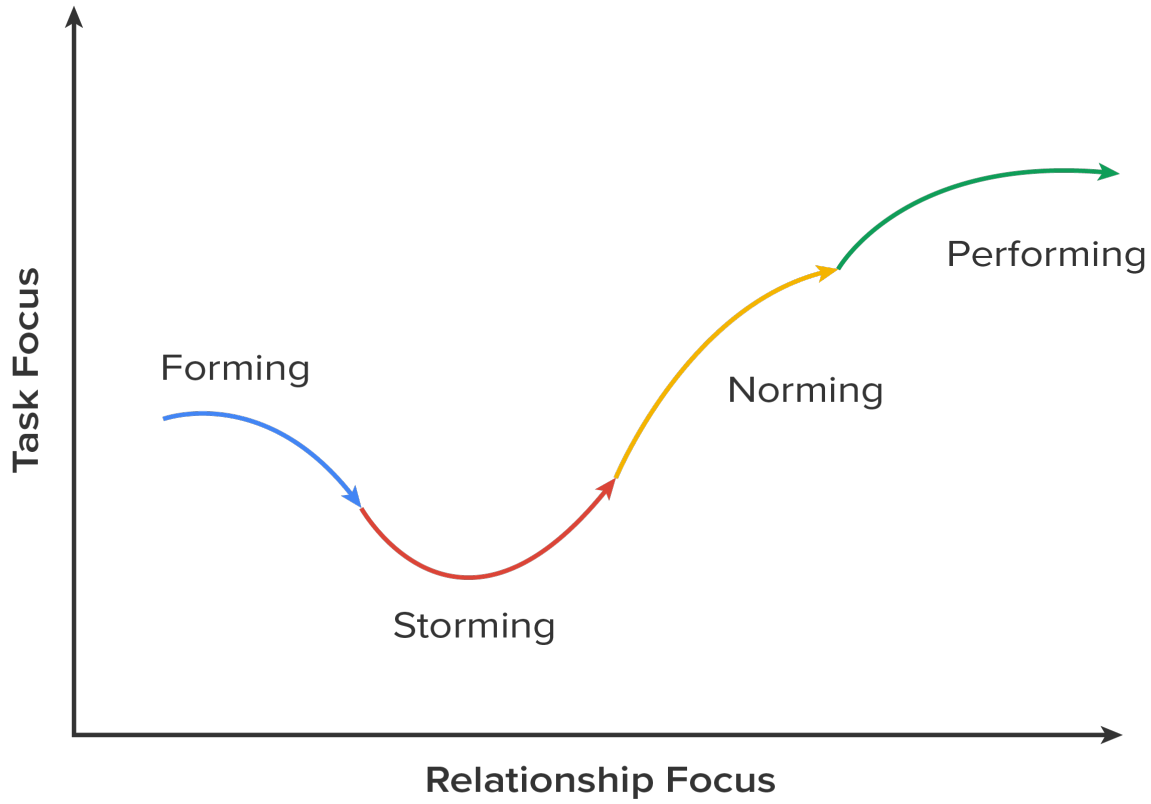
DID YOU KNOW

The original model was called Tuckman's Stages of Group Development, and he added the fifth stage of "Adjourning" in 1977 to explain the disbanding of a team at the end of a project.

The four stages of the original Tuckman model are (Tuckman, 1965):

- Forming
- Storming
- Norming
- Performing

The stages are depicted in the following diagram.

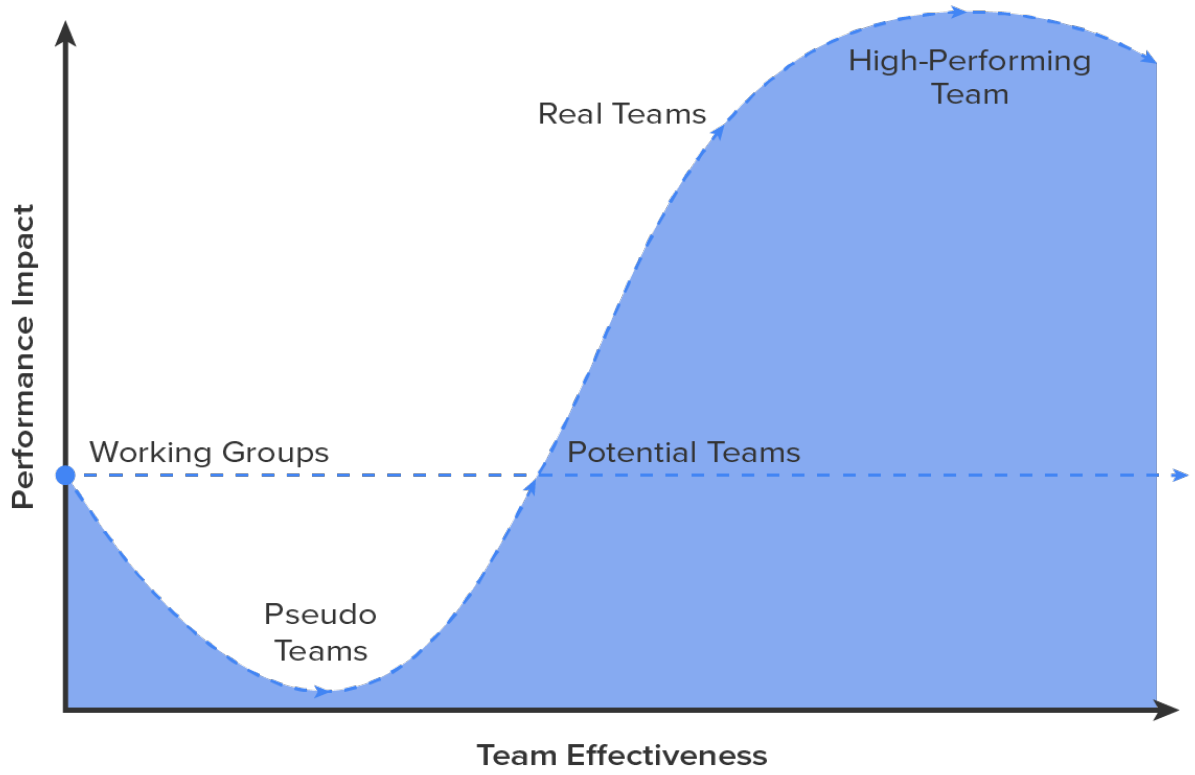


The **Forming** stage begins with the introduction of team members. This is known as the “polite stage” in which the team is mainly focused on similarities and the group looks to the leader for structure and direction. The team members at this point are enthusiastic, and issues are still being discussed on a global, ambiguous level. This is when the informal pecking order begins to develop, but the team is still friendly.

The **Storming** stage begins as team members begin vying for leadership and testing the group processes. This is known as the “win-lose” stage, as members clash for control of the group and people begin to choose sides. The attitude about the team and the project begins to shift to negative, and there is frustration around goals, tasks, and progress.

After what can be a very long and painful Storming process for the team, slowly the**Norming** stage may start to take root. During Norming, the team is starting to work well together, and buy-in to group goals occurs. The team is establishing and maintaining ground rules and boundaries, and there is willingness to share responsibility and control. At this point in the team formation, members begin to value and respect each other and their contributions.

Finally, as the team builds momentum and starts to get results, it is entering the**Performing** stage. The team is completely self-directed and requires little management direction. The team has confidence, pride, and enthusiasm, and there is a congruence of vision, team, and self. As the team continues to perform, it may even succeed in becoming a high-performing team. High-performing teams have optimized both task and people relationships—they are maximizing performance and team effectiveness. Katzenberg and Smith, in their study of teams, have created a “team performance curve” that graphs the journey of a team from a working group to a high-performing team. The team performance curve is illustrated in the graph below.



The process of becoming a high-performance team is not a linear process. Similarly, the four stages of team development in the Tuckman model are not linear, and there are also factors that may cause the team to regress to an earlier stage of development. When a team member is added to the group, this may change the dynamic enough and be disruptive enough to cause a backwards slide to an earlier stage. Similarly, if a new project task is introduced that causes confusion or anxiety for the group, then this may also cause a backwards slide to an earlier stage of development. Think of your own experiences with project teams and the backslide that the group may have taken when another team member was introduced. You may have personally found the same to be true when a leader or project sponsor changes the scope or adds a new project task. The team has to regroup and will likely re-Storm and re-Form before getting back to Performing as a team.

REFLECT

1. What are the four stages of team development?
2. What can cause a team to regress in its development?

TERMS TO KNOW

Forming

The first stage of team development—the positive and polite stage.

Storming

The second stage of team development—when people are pushing against the boundaries.

Norming

The third stage of team development—when the team resolves its differences and begins making

progress.

Performing
The fourth stage of team development—when hard work leads to the achievement of the team's goal.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned how teams develop over time. You learned about **the four stages of team development**, developed by educational psychologist Bruce Tuckman (the original model was called Tuckman's Stages of Group Development): Forming, Storming, Norming, and Performing. You learned that teams that succeed in maximizing performance and team effectiveness are known as high-performing teams; this evolution from a working group to a high-performing team is illustrated by the "team performance curve" created by Katzenberg and Smith in their study of teams. It is important to note that the process of becoming a high-performance team is not a linear process, nor are the four stages of team development in the Tuckman model. In addition, there are factors (e.g., addition of a new team member, introduction of a new project task) that may cause the team to regress to an earlier stage of development.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Forming
The first stage of team development—the positive and polite stage.

Norming
The third stage of team development—when the team resolves its differences and begins making progress.

Performing
The fourth stage of team development—when hard work leads to the achievement of the team's goal.

Storming
The second stage of team development—when people are pushing against the boundaries.

Things to Consider When Managing Teams

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson you will learn some key considerations in managing teams. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Key Considerations When Managing Teams
2. Managing Team Boundaries

1. Key Considerations When Managing Teams

For those of us who have had the pleasure of managing or leading a team, we know that it can feel like a dubious distinction. Leading a team is fulfilling—especially if the task or organizational mandate at hand is so critical to the organization that people are happy to be a part of the team that drives things forward. It can also be an exercise in frustration, as the charge is to lead a group composed of various individuals, which at various times will act both like a group and like a bunch of individuals. Managing teams is no small feat, and the most experienced managers truly understand that success ultimately depends on their ability to build a strong and well-functioning team. In J.J. Gabarro's *The Dynamics of Taking Charge* (HBS Press, 1987, pp. 85–87), he quotes a manager who had successfully worked to turn around a number of organizations (Gabarro, 1987):

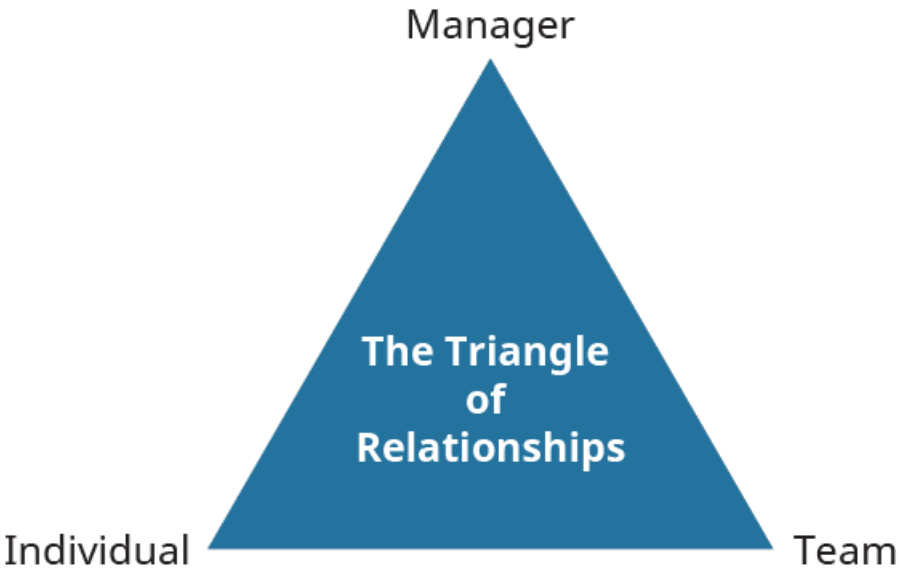
"People have to want to work together; they have to see how to do it. There has to be an environment for it and that takes time. It's my highest priority right now but I don't write it down anywhere because it's not like other priorities. If I told corporate that building a team was my prime goal they'd tell me, so what? They'd expect that as part of making things better."

This quotation is so indicative of the state of most organizations today. The focus is on corporate goals and priorities—very task-driven and outcome-driven—but it is the people dynamics and how people work together in the company and in TEAMS that can make a real difference to the goals and outcome.

In Linda A. Hill's *Harvard Business Review* article "Managing Your Team" (Hill, 1995), she discusses that managing a team means managing paradox. **Paradox** exists in the fact that teams have both individual and collective identities and goals. Each individual has goals and ideas as to what he wants to accomplish—on the project, in one's career, and in life. The team itself, of course, has goals and success metrics that it needs to meet in order to be successful. Sometimes these can be in conflict with each other. Competition may arise among team members, and a win-loss attitude may take place over a collaborative and problem-solving team dynamic. The team manager may need to step in to help integrate all of the individual differences to enable them to productively pursue the team goal. Therein lies the primary paradox—balancing individual differences and goals AND the collective identity and goals. Other paradoxes include:

- Fostering support AND confrontation among team members
- Focusing on performance AND learning and development

- Balancing managerial authority AND team member discretion and autonomy
- Balancing the Triangle of Relationships—manager, team, and individual



TERM TO KNOW

Paradox

A self-contradictory statement or situation.

2. Managing Team Boundaries

Managing a team also means managing its boundaries. Managing the team's **boundaries**—or the space between the team and its external forces, stakeholders, and pressures—is a delicate balance of strategy, stakeholder management, and organizational behavior. The team manager must serve, in part, as a **buffer** to these external factors so that they don't derail or distract the team from its goals. However, the manager must also understand enough about the external environment and have enough emotional intelligence to understand which forces, players, or situations must be synthesized within the team for its own benefit. Think about any medium or large-scale change initiative that you have been a part of in your career. Ideally, there is generally a vision for change and a level of sponsorship at the senior levels of the organization that is supposed to pave the way for that change to take root. The project team is officially "blessed" to kick off the team, create a charter, and identify the needed actions to drive the initiative to successful completion.

The dynamic that ensues after the kickoff is really what will determine the success of the team. There are numerous stakeholders in any organization, and many will be pro-change initiative, but others may be against the initiative—either due to lack of understanding or concerns about losing power, territory, etc. The external environment and business strategy may not be particularly well suited for a change initiative to take place, and so there may be the feeling of forces opposing the project team efforts. A strong team manager needs to manage these "boundaries" with the organization to help the team navigate through and with the organizational complexities, goals, nuances, and egos that are a part of any organization. In Linda A. Hill's *Harvard Business Review* article "Exercising Influence" (Hill, 1994), she states that "managers also need to manage relationships with those who are outside their team but inside their organizations. To do so, they must understand the power dynamics of the larger organization and invest time and energy in building and maintaining relationships with those on whom the team is dependent." With all of the potential external influences on a team, managing a team's boundaries can truly mean the difference between success and

failure.

The final element of managing a team is to manage the team itself—both the people elements and the process elements, or task at hand. The process-focused elements include managing the work plan to reach the overall goal, as well as the incremental meetings and milestones that are a part of the team's journey to reach the longer-term goal. Keeping the team focused on its objectives—beginning with setting agendas all the way to managing project tasks and celebrating milestones—assures that the team will stay on track. Projects and initiatives vary in size, scope, and complexity, and so the project management tools shouldn't be prescribed in a general sense. The important takeaway here is to choose an approach and a tool that works for the culture of the team and the organization, and that helps the team understand where they are, where they need to go, and what resources are a part of that process.

In managing the team members and interpersonal dynamics, there is the important element of selecting the right team members, shaping the team's norms and culture (i.e., how are decisions made, what are our rules, how do we manage conflict, etc.), and coaching the team. Defining the right skill sets, functions, perspectives, and expertise of the members will ensure a solid foundation. Helping the team to identify and formalize the ground rules for team engagement will help manage in the face of adversity or team conflict in the future. Finally, playing a role as a **supportive coach** will help both the individual team members and the group entity think through issues and make progress towards goals. A coach doesn't solve the individual/team problem, but helps the team think through a solution and move forward. Teams may need guidance on how to work things out within the team, and the manager must provide feedback and hold team members accountable for their behavior and contribution. Continuous improvement is the name of the game. A team may not start out as high-performing, but they can certainly achieve that goal if everyone is focused on incremental improvements to communication, collaboration, and performance.

REFLECT

1. Discuss the paradox(es) of a team.
2. How can a leader manage team boundaries?

TERM TO KNOW

Boundaries

Lines that make the limits of an area; team boundaries separate the team from its external stakeholders.

Buffer

The distance a manager creates between the team and its external forces, stakeholders, and pressures to prevent these external factors from derailing or distracting the team from meeting its goals.

Supportive Coach

A team management role that helps both the individual team members and the group entity think through issues and make progress towards goals.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned about some **key considerations when managing teams**, including the understanding that managing a team means managing paradox—such as the paradox that exists in the fact that teams have both individual and collective identities and goals. A successful team

manager may need to help integrate all of the individual differences within his or her team to enable them to productively pursue the team goal, balancing individual differences and goals as well as the collective identity and goals. You learned that managing a team also means **managing team boundaries**, or the space between the team and its external forces, stakeholders, and pressures. The team manager must serve as a buffer to these external factors yet also understand which forces, players, or situations must be synthesized within the team for its own benefit. Lastly, you learned that an important element of managing a team is to manage the team itself, which includes selecting the right team members, shaping the team's norms and culture, and playing the role of supportive coach.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Boundaries
Lines that make the limits of an area; team boundaries separate the team from its external stakeholders.

Buffer
The distance a manager creates between the team and its external forces, stakeholders, and pressures to prevent these external factors from derailing or distracting the team from meeting its goals.

Paradox
A self-contradictory statement or situation.

Supportive Coach
A team management role that helps both the individual team members and the group entity think through issues and make progress towards goals.

Managing Virtual Teams

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson you will learn how virtual teams differ from traditional teams and some of the challenges involved in managing virtual teams. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Managing Virtual Teams
2. Challenges of Managing Virtual Teams

1. Managing Virtual Teams

Virtual teams have become much more common in recent years. Widespread high-speed access to the global Internet, in addition to cloud-based file sharing and web conferencing software, have made virtual teams an everyday reality for many organizations. This is particularly true in industries where work can be performed remotely with relative ease, including most knowledge-based professional work. It has become as easy to work from a home office (or easier) than from a centralized office location. A virtual team is simply a team which works remotely using the Internet and various means of electronic or digital communication and coordination.

Recent events like the COVID-19 pandemic of 2020-2021 have accelerated this process. Many organizations who had not already adapted at least part of their operations around virtual teams had to quickly adapt to virtual teaming in order to survive the global pandemic. Indeed, many of those organizations which failed to adapt did not survive. It is now expected that hybrid forms of work where one offices at home part-time and offices at a central location part-time will become the norm.

TERM TO KNOW

Virtual Team

A team which works remotely using the Internet and various means of electronic or digital communication and coordination.

2. Challenges of Managing Virtual Teams

With all their advantages related to flexibility and resilience to external shocks like the pandemic, managing virtual teams or forming virtual organizations is not without its own unique set of challenges. There are issues associated with worker isolation, career mobility and visibility, motivation, and performance. For example, how does a manager know for sure that an employee who is “working from home” on any given day is not simply out walking their dog or going for a run at the company’s expense? Some jobs provide the ability for closely monitoring time working remotely using special software (e.g., customer service and some data entry positions), but many do not. Further, is everyone a good fit for working from home on their own? Some workers are, and some are not.

All said, hiring and staffing for virtual work is paramount when it comes to managing and leading virtual teams. There must be a high degree of trust between the manager and workers that the job will get done as required. Otherwise, there can be a tendency for workers to "hide" while they are supposed to be working, and managers to micromanage or overmanage which can be highly demotivating and self-destructive for managers and workers alike.

Managers need to be especially careful when hiring and staffing virtual teams. They need to be certain that virtual team members have the discipline and technical expertise/tools to get the job done on time and within budget. Many people like to think that they can work from home. But, in reality, only individuals who have demonstrated their ability to do so effectively and reliably should be considered for a virtual team or when staffing a virtual organization.

Establishing clear deadlines is necessary when managing virtual teams, since otherwise, it is just too easy and tempting to let the work slip. Home offices are, after all, "home"—where there are often many distractions. The most successful members of a virtual team approach their jobs as if they were going into a centralized office every day. They adhere to specific work hours, maintain detailed daily task or "to-do" lists, and have a designated work space—ideally separated from the rest of their home, if possible. They also tend to have above-average technical skills, since there is usually no readily available IT support team in one's home!

While virtual teams and traditional teams do share many of the same group dynamics and basic characteristics, they can differ greatly in terms of team performance if not properly staffed and managed. The work has to be done, whether in a virtual team or a traditional team. And if the work is not done, the entire organization suffers.

Managers can make virtual teams more effective by understanding the basic principles of team dynamics, combined with careful staffing of virtual teams with members who have the "right stuff" to work virtually, combined with some basic performance monitoring tools in the form of productivity software (depending on the nature of the job) or even simply by establishing clear expectations and accountability for meeting important deadlines.

In this lesson, you learned that widespread high-speed access to the global Internet, in addition to cloud-based file sharing and web conferencing software, have made virtual teams—a team which works remotely using the Internet and various means of electronic or digital communication and coordination—an everyday reality for many organizations. Therefore, **managing virtual teams** is an everyday reality for many managers as well. However, you learned that there are some unique **challenges of managing virtual teams**, involving issues associated with worker isolation, career mobility and visibility, motivation, and performance. Managers need to carefully staff virtual teams with members who have the discipline and technical expertise/tools to work virtually, as well as set clear expectations and deadlines for their team members.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Virtual Team

A team which works remotely using the Internet and various means of electronic or digital communication and coordination.

Opportunities and Challenges to Team Building

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson you will learn the benefits of team conflict. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Costs and Benefits of Team Conflict
2. Individual Responses to Conflict

1. Costs and Benefits of Team Conflict

There are many sources of conflict for a team, whether it is due to a communication breakdown, competing views or goals, power struggles, or conflicts between different personalities. The perception is that conflict is generally bad for a team and that it will inevitably bring the team down and cause them to spiral out of control and off-track. Conflict does have some potential costs. If handled poorly, it can create distrust within a group, it can be disruptive to group progress and morale, and it could be detrimental to building lasting relationships. It is generally seen as a negative, even though constructive conflicts and constructive responses to conflicts can be an important developmental milestone for a team. Some potential benefits of conflict are that it encourages a greater diversity of ideas and perspectives and helps people to better understand opposing points of view. It can also enhance a team's problem-solving capability and can highlight critical points of discussion and contention that need to be given more thought.

Another key benefit or outcome of conflict is that a team that trusts each other—its members and members' intentions—will arise from conflict being a stronger and higher-performing team. Patrick Lencioni, in his bestselling book, *The Five Dysfunctions of a Team* (Lencioni, 2002, p. 188), writes:

"*The first dysfunction is an absence of trust among team members. Essentially, this stems from their unwillingness to be vulnerable within the group. Team members who are not genuinely open with one another about their mistakes and weaknesses make it impossible to build a foundation for trust. This failure to build trust is damaging because it sets the tone for the second dysfunction: fear of conflict. Teams that lack trust are incapable of engaging in unfiltered and passionate debate of ideas. Instead, they resort to veiled discussions and guarded comments.*"

Lencioni also asserts that if a team doesn't work through its conflict and air its opinions through debate, team members will never really be able to buy in and commit to decisions. (This lack of commitment is Lencioni's third dysfunction.) Teams often have a fear of conflict so as not to hurt any team members' feelings. The downside of this avoidance is that conflicts still exist under the surface and may resurface in more insidious and back-channel ways that can derail a team. How can a team overcome its fear of conflict and move the team forward? Lencioni names a few strategies that teams can use to make conflict more common and productive. **Mining** is a technique that can be used in teams that tend to avoid conflict. This technique requires that one team member "assume the role of a 'miner of conflict'—someone who extracts buried disagreements within the team and sheds the light of day on them. They must have the courage and confidence to call out sensitive issues and force team members to work through them." **Real-time permission** is another technique to "recognize when the people engaged in conflict are becoming uncomfortable with the

level of discord, and then interrupt to remind them that what they are doing is necessary." This technique can help the group to focus on the points of conflict by coaching the team not to sweep things under the rug.

The team leader plays a very important role in the team's ability to address and navigate successfully through conflicts. Sometimes a leader will have the attitude that conflict is a derailer and will try to stymie it at any cost. This ultimately leads to a team culture in which conflict is avoided and the underlying feelings are allowed to accumulate below the surface of the discussion. The leader should, by contrast, model the appropriate behavior by constructively addressing conflict and bringing issues to the surface to be addressed and resolved by the team. This is key to building a successful and effective team.

TERMS TO KNOW

Mining

To delve in to extract something of value; a technique for generating discussion instead of burying it.

Real-time Permission

A technique for recognizing when conflict is uncomfortable, and giving permission to continue.

2. Individual Responses to Conflict

There are a variety of individual responses to conflict that you may see as a team member. Some people take the constructive and thoughtful path when conflicts arise, while others may jump immediately to destructive behaviors. In *Managing Conflict Dynamics: A Practical Approach*, Capobianco, Davis, and Kraus (2005) recognized that there are both constructive and destructive responses to conflict, as well as active and passive responses that we need to recognize. In the event of team conflict, the goal is to have a constructive response in order to encourage dialogue, learning, and resolution (Capobianco et al., 2005). Responses such as perspective taking, creating solutions, expressing emotions, and reaching out are considered active and constructive responses to conflict. Reflective thinking, delay responding, and adapting are considered passive and constructive responses to conflict. The following table provides a visual representation of the constructive responses, as well as the destructive responses, to conflict.

	Constructive	Destructive
Active	• Perspective taking • Creating solutions • Expressing emotions • Reaching out	• Winning • Displaying anger • Demeaning others • Retaliating
Passive	• Reflective thinking • Delay responding • Adapting	• Avoiding • Yielding • Hiding emotions • Self-criticizing

In summary, conflict is never easy for an individual or a team to navigate through, but it can and should be done. Illuminating the team about areas of conflict and differing perspectives can have a very positive impact on the growth and future performance of the team, and it should be managed constructively.

REFLECT

1. What are some techniques to make conflict more productive?
2. What are some destructive responses to conflict?

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned that despite the perception that conflict is generally bad for a team, there are potential benefits. When conflict is handled poorly, the **costs of team conflict** include distrust within a group and disruption of group progress and morale. However, you learned that potential **benefits of team conflict** are that it encourages a greater diversity of ideas and perspectives and helps people to better understand opposing points of view; it enhances a team's problem-solving capability and can highlight critical points of discussion and contention that need to be addressed. You learned about several of Patrick Lencioni's dysfunctions of a team, as well as a few strategies that teams can use to make conflict more common and productive, such as mining and real-time permission. You also learned about a variety of **individual responses to conflict** that you may see as a team member, which can be constructive and destructive, as well as active and passive. Keep in mind that while conflict is never easy for an individual or team, navigating through conflict is key to building a successful and effective team.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Mining
To delve in to extract something of value; a technique for generating discussion instead of burying it.

Real-time Permission
A technique for recognizing when conflict is uncomfortable, and giving permission to continue.

Team Diversity

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson you will learn how team diversity enhances decision-making and problem-solving. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. The Impact of Team Diversity on Problem-Solving
2. The Impact of Team Diversity on Innovation

1. The Impact of Team Diversity on Problem-Solving

Decision-making and problem-solving can be much more dynamic and successful when performed in a diverse team environment. The multiple diverse perspectives can enhance both the understanding of the problem and the quality of the solution. Experience has shown that team activities and projects that intentionally bring diverse individuals together create the best environments for problem-solving. Diverse leaders from a variety of functions, from across the globe, at varying stages of their careers and experiences with and outside the company have the most robust discussions and perspectives. Diversity is a word that is very commonly used today, but the importance of diversity and building diverse teams can sometimes get lost in the normal processes of doing business. Let's discuss why we need to keep these principles front of mind.

In the *Harvard Business Review* article "Why Diverse Teams are Smarter," David Rock and Heidi Grant support the idea that increasing workplace diversity is a good business decision (Rock & Grant, 2016). A 2015 McKinsey report on 366 public companies found that those in the top quartile for ethnic and racial diversity in management were 35% more likely to have financial returns above their industry average, and those in the top quartile for gender diversity were 15% more likely to have returns above the industry average. Similarly, in a global analysis conducted by Credit Suisse, organizations with at least one female board member yielded a higher return on equity and higher net income growth than those that did not have any women on the board.

Additional research on diversity has shown that diverse teams are better at decision-making and problem-solving because they tend to focus more on facts, per the Rock and Grant article (Rock & Grant, 2016). A study published in the *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* showed that people from diverse backgrounds "might actually alter the behavior of a group's social majority in ways that lead to improved and more accurate group thinking." It turned out that in the study, the diverse panels raised more facts related to the case than homogenous panels and made fewer factual errors while discussing available evidence. Another study noted in the article showed that diverse teams are "more likely to constantly reexamine facts and remain objective. They may also encourage greater scrutiny of each member's actions, keeping their joint cognitive resources sharp and vigilant. By breaking up workforce homogeneity, you can allow your employees to become more aware of their own potential biases—entrenched ways of thinking that can otherwise blind them to key information and even lead them to make errors in decision-making processes." In other words, when people are among homogeneous and like-minded (nondiverse) teammates, the team is susceptible to groupthink and

may be reticent to think about opposing viewpoints since all team members are in alignment. In a more diverse team with a variety of backgrounds and experiences, the opposing viewpoints are more likely to come out and the team members feel obligated to research and address the questions that have been raised. Again, this enables a richer discussion and a more in-depth fact-finding and exploration of opposing ideas and viewpoints in order to solve problems.

2. The Impact of Team Diversity on Innovation

Diversity in teams also leads to greater innovation. A Boston Consulting Group article entitled "The Mix That Matters: Innovation Through Diversity" explains a study in which BCG and the Technical University of Munich conducted an empirical analysis to understand the relationship between diversity in managers (all management levels) and innovation. The key findings of this study show that (Lorenzo et al., 2017):

- The positive relationship between management diversity and innovation is statistically significant—and thus companies with higher levels of diversity derive more revenue from new products and services.
- The innovation boost isn't limited to a single type of diversity. The presence of managers who are either female or are from other countries, industries, or companies can cause an increase in innovation.
- Management diversity seems to have a particularly positive effect on innovation at complex companies—those that have multiple product lines or that operate in multiple industry segments.
- To reach its potential, gender diversity needs to go beyond tokenism. In the study, innovation performance only increased significantly when the workforce included more than 20% women in management positions. Having a high percentage of female employees doesn't increase innovation if only a small number of women are managers.
- At companies with diverse management teams, openness to contributions from lower-level workers and an environment in which employees feel free to speak their minds are crucial for fostering innovation.

When you consider the impact that diverse teams have on decision-making and problem-solving—through the discussion and incorporation of new perspectives, ideas, and data—it is no wonder that the BCG study shows greater innovation. Team leaders need to reflect upon these findings during the early stages of team selection so that they can reap the benefits of having diverse voices and backgrounds.

REFLECT

1. Why do diverse teams focus more on data than homogeneous teams?
2. How are diversity and innovation related?

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned about the importance of team diversity for effective problem-solving, decision-making, and innovation. You learned about the positive **impact of team diversity on problem-solving**, understanding that the multiple diverse perspectives can enhance both the understanding of the problem and the quality of the solution. A homogeneous and like-minded (nondiverse) team is more susceptible to groupthink and may be less open to opposing viewpoints since all team members are in alignment. However, in a more diverse team with a variety of backgrounds and experiences, the opposing ideas and viewpoints are more likely to come out and be addressed, with members tending to reexamine facts and remain objective. You also learned about **the impact of**

team diversity on innovation, exploring research demonstrating that diversity in teams leads to greater innovation, through the discussion and incorporation of new perspectives, ideas, and data.

Best of luck in your learning!

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Multicultural Teams

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson you will learn how to articulate challenges and best practices for managing and working with multicultural teams. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Key Practices for Working With Multicultural Teams
2. The Role of Cultural Intelligence in Teams
3. Four Best Practices for Honing Cross-Cultural Skills

1. Key Practices for Working With Multicultural Teams

As globalization has increased over the last decades, workplaces have felt the impact of working within multicultural teams. The earlier lesson on team diversity outlined some of the highlights and benefits of working on diverse teams, and a multicultural group certainly qualifies as diverse. However, there are some key practices that are recommended to those who are leading multicultural teams so that they can parlay the diversity into an advantage and not be derailed by it.

People may assume that communication is the key factor that can derail multicultural teams, as participants may have different languages and communication styles. In the *Harvard Business Review* article "Managing Multicultural Teams," the authors point out four key cultural differences that can cause destructive conflicts in a team (Brett et al., 2006). The first difference is *direct versus indirect communication*. Some cultures are very direct and explicit in their communication, while others are more indirect and ask questions rather than pointing out problems. This difference can cause conflict because, at the extreme, the direct style may be considered offensive by some, while the indirect style may be perceived as unproductive and passive-aggressive in team interactions.

The second difference that multicultural teams may face is *trouble with accents and fluency*. When team members don't speak the same language, there may be one language that dominates the group interaction—and those who don't speak it may feel left out. The speakers of the primary language may feel that those members don't contribute as much or are less competent. The next challenge is when there are *differing attitudes toward hierarchy*. Some cultures are very respectful of the hierarchy and will treat team members a certain way based on that hierarchy. Other cultures are more egalitarian and don't observe hierarchical differences to the same degree. This may lead to clashes if some people feel that they are being disrespected and not treated according to their status. The final difference that may challenge multicultural teams is *conflicting decision-making norms*. Different cultures make decisions differently, and some will apply a great deal of analysis and preparation beforehand. Those cultures that make decisions more quickly (and need just enough information to make a decision) may be frustrated with the slow response and relatively longer thought process.

These cultural differences are good examples of how everyday team activities (decision-making, communication, interaction among team members) may become points of contention for a multicultural team if there isn't adequate understanding of everyone's culture. The authors propose that there are several potential interventions to try if these conflicts arise. One simple intervention is **adaptation**, which is working with or around differences. This is best used when team members are willing to acknowledge the cultural differences and learn how to work with them. The next intervention technique is **structural intervention**, or reorganizing to reduce friction on the team. This technique is best used if there are unproductive subgroups or cliques within the team that need to be moved around. **Managerial intervention** is the technique of making decisions by management and without team involvement. This technique is one that should be used sparingly, as it essentially shows that the team needs guidance and can't move forward without management getting involved. Finally, **exit** is an intervention of last resort, and is the voluntary or involuntary removal of a team member. If the differences and challenges have proven to be so great that an individual on the team can no longer work with the team productively, then it may be necessary to remove the team member in question.

TERMS TO KNOW

Adaptation

Working with or around differences.

Structural Intervention

Reorganizing to reduce friction on the team.

Managerial Intervention

Technique of making decisions by management and without team involvement.

Exit

Technique of last resort—removal of a team member.

2. The Role of Cultural Intelligence in Teams

There are some people who seem to be innately aware of and able to work with cultural differences on teams and in their organizations. These individuals might be said to have **cultural intelligence**. Cultural intelligence is a competency and a skill that enables individuals to function effectively in cross-cultural environments. It develops as people become more aware of the influence of culture and more capable of adapting their behavior to the norms of other cultures. In the IESE Insight article entitled "Cultural Competence: Why It Matters and How You Can Acquire It," the authors assert that "multicultural leaders may relate better to team members from different cultures and resolve conflicts more easily (Li & Liao, 2015). Their multiple talents can also be put to good use in international negotiations." Multicultural leaders don't have a lot of "baggage" from any one culture, and so are sometimes perceived as being culturally neutral. They are very good at handling diversity, which gives them a great advantage in their relationships with teammates.

TERM TO KNOW

Cultural Intelligence

A skill that enables individuals to function effectively in cross-cultural environments.

3. Four Best Practices for Honing Cross-Cultural Skills

In order to help employees become better team members in a world that is increasingly multicultural, there are a few best practices for honing cross-cultural skills.

1. *Broaden your mind:* The first is to broaden your mind—expand your own cultural channels (travel, movies, books) and surround yourself with people from other cultures. This helps to raise your own awareness of the cultural differences and norms that you may encounter.
2. *Develop your cross-culutral skills through practice:* Another best practice is to develop your cross-cultural skills through practice and experiential learning. You may have the opportunity to work or travel abroad—but if you don't, then getting to know some of your company's cross-cultural colleagues or foreign visitors will help you to practice your skills. Serving on a cross-cultural project team and taking the time to get to know and bond with your global colleagues is an excellent way to develop skills.
3. *Boost your cultural metacognition:* Once you have a sense of the different cultures and have started to work on developing your cross-cultural skills, another good practice is to "boost your cultural metacognition" and monitor your own behavior in multicultural situations. When you are in a situation in which you are interacting with multicultural individuals, you should test yourself and be aware of how you act and feel. Observe both your positive and negative interactions with people, and learn from them.
4. *Developing cognitive complexity:* Developing **cognitive complexity** is the final best practice for boosting multicultural skills. This is the most advanced, and it requires being able to view situations from more than one cultural framework. In order to see things from another perspective, you need to have a strong sense of emotional intelligence, empathy, and sympathy, and be willing to engage in honest communications.

TERM TO KNOW

Cognitive Complexity

The ability to view situations from more than one cultural framework.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned how to articulate challenges and best practices for managing and working with multicultural teams. You learned about some **key practices for working with multicultural teams** that allow team leaders to parlay diversity into an advantage. You learned about the four key cultural differences that can cause destructive conflicts in a team—direct versus indirect communication, trouble with accents and fluency, differing attitudes toward hierarchy, and conflicting decision-making norms—as well as several interventions to try if these conflicts arise, such as adaptation, structural intervention, managerial intervention, and exit (used as a last resort). You also learned about the importance of **the role of cultural intelligence in teams**, referring to team members developing a competency and a skill that enables them to function effectively in cross-cultural environments. Lastly, you learned the **four best practices for honing cross-cultural skills** to help you become a better team member in an increasingly multicultural world: 1) broaden your mind; 2) develop your cross-cultural skills through practice and experiential learning; 3) boost your cultural metacognition; and 4) develop cognitive complexity.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Adaptation
Working with or around differences.

Cognitive Complexity
The ability to view situations from more than one cultural framework.

Cultural Intelligence
A skill that enables individuals to function effectively in cross-cultural environments.

Exit
Technique of last resort—removal of a team member.

Managerial Intervention
Technique of making decisions by management and without team involvement.

Structural Intervention
Reorganizing to reduce friction on the team.

The Process of Managerial Communication

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson you will learn about the managerial communication process. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. Introduction to the Communication Process
2. Interpersonal Communication
   a. Encoding and Decoding
   b. Feedback
   c. Noise

1. Introduction to the Communication Process

We will distinguish between communication between two individuals and communication amongst several individuals (groups) and communication outside the organization. We will show that managers spend a majority of their time in communication with others. We will examine the reasons for communication and discuss the basic model of interpersonal communication, the types of interpersonal communication, and major influences on the communication process. We will also discuss how organizational reputation is defined by communication with stakeholders.

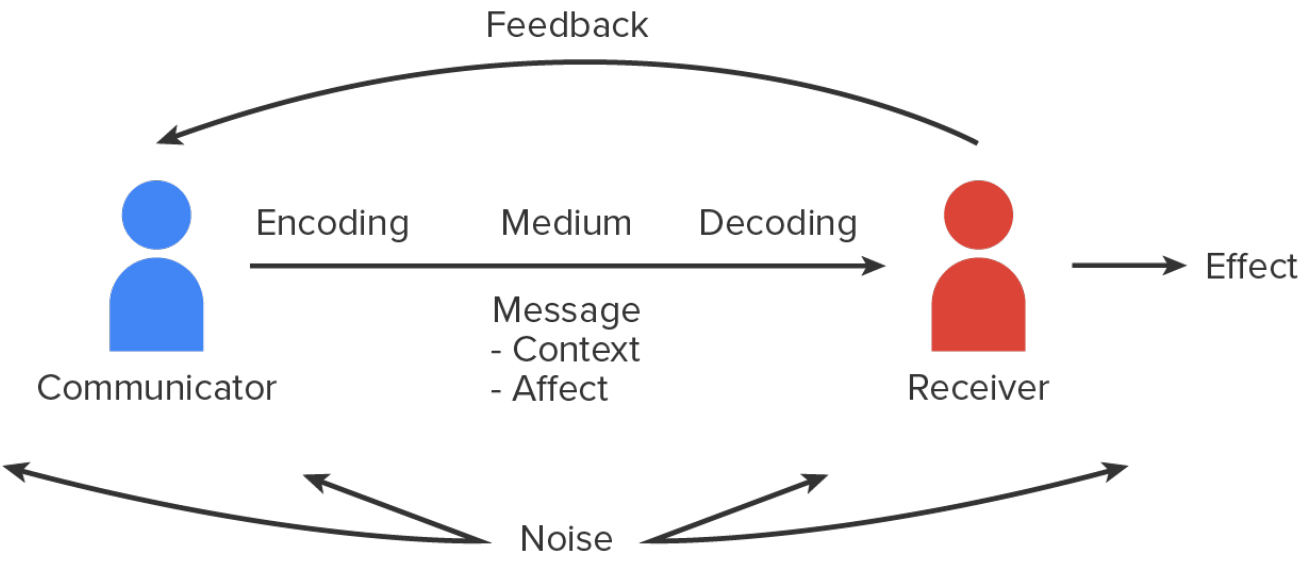
2. Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication is an important part of being an effective manager:

- It influences the opinions, attitude, motivation, and behaviors of others.
- It expresses our feelings, emotions, and intentions to others.
- It is the vehicle for providing, receiving, and exchanging information regarding events or issues that concern us.
- It reinforces the formal structure of the organization by such means as making use of formal channels of communication.

Interpersonal communication allows employees at all levels of an organization to interact with others, to secure desired results, to request or extend assistance, and to make use of and reinforce the formal design of the organization. These purposes serve not only the individuals involved, but the larger goal of improving the quality of organizational effectiveness.
The model that we present here is an oversimplification of what really happens in communication, but this model will be useful in creating a diagram to be used to discuss the topic. The following diagram illustrates a simple communication episode where a **communicator** encodes a message and a **receiver** decodes the

message (Shannon & Weaver, 1948).



TERMS TO KNOW

Communicator

The individual, group, or organization that needs or wants to share information with another individual, group, or organization.

Receiver

The individual, group, or organization for which information is intended.

2a. Encoding and Decoding

Two important aspects of this model are **encoding** and **decoding**. Encoding is the process by which individuals initiating the communication translate their ideas into a systematic set of symbols (language), either written or spoken. Encoding is influenced by the sender's previous experiences with the topic or issue, her emotional state at the time of the message, the importance of the message, and the people involved. Decoding is the process by which the recipient of the message interprets it. The receiver attaches meaning to the message and tries to uncover its underlying intent. Decoding is also influenced by the receiver's previous experiences and frame of reference at the time of receiving the message.

TERMS TO KNOW

Encoding

Translating a message into symbols or language that a receiver can understand.

Decoding

Interpreting and understanding and making sense of a message.

2b. Feedback

Several types of feedback can occur after a message is sent from the communicator to the receiver. Feedback can be viewed as the last step in completing a communication episode and may take several forms, such as a verbal response, a nod of the head, a response asking for more information, or no response at all. As with the initial message, the response also involves encoding, medium, and decoding.

There are three basic types of feedback that occur in communication (Quinn et al., 2015). These are informational, corrective, and reinforcing. In informational feedback, the receiver provides non-evaluative information to the communicator. An example is the level of inventory at the end of the month. In corrective

feedback, the receiver responds by challenging the original message. The receiver might respond that it is not their responsibility to monitor inventory. In reinforcing feedback, the receiver communicated that they have clearly received the message and its intentions. For instance, the grade that you receive on a term paper (either positive or negative) is reinforcing feedback on your term paper (your original communication).

2c. Noise

There are, however, a variety of ways that the intended message can get distorted. Factors that distort message clarity are **noise**. Noise can occur at any point along the model shown in the diagram above, including the decoding process.

REFLECT

1. Describe the communication process.
2. Why is feedback a critical part of the communication process?

TERM TO KNOW

Noise
Anything that interferes with the communication process.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you covered an **introduction to the communication process**, distinguishing the different types of communication, the reasons for communication, and major influences on the communication process. You learned that **interpersonal communication** is an important part of being an effective manager, allowing employees at all levels to interact with others, to secure desired results, to request or extend assistance, and to make use of and reinforce the formal design of the organization. You also explored the basic model of communication, which involves a communicator **encoding** a message and a receiver **decoding** the message. You learned that there are three basic types of**feedback** that can occur after a message is sent from the communicator to the receiver—informational, corrective, and reinforcing—and that the intended message can get distorted by **noise**.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Communicator
The individual, group, or organization that needs or wants to share information with another individual,

group, or organization.

Decoding

Interpreting and understanding and making sense of a message.

Encoding

Translating a message into symbols or language that a receiver can understand.

Noise

Anything that interferes with the communication process.

Receiver

The individual, group, or organization for which information is intended.

Types of Communications in Organizations

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson you will learn about the types of communication in organizations. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. The Three Types of Communication
   a. Oral Communication
   b. Written Communication
   c. Nonverbal Communication
2. Major Influences on Interpersonal Communication
   a. Social Influences
   b. Perception
   c. Interaction Involvement
   d. Organizational Design

1. The Three Types of Communication

In the Basic Communication Model described in the last tutorial, three types of communication can be used by either the communicator in the initial transmission phase or the receiver in the feedback phase. These three types are discussed next.

1a. Oral Communication

This consists of all messages or exchanges of information that are spoken, and it's the most prevalent type of communication.

1b. Written Communication

This includes e-mail, texts, letters, reports, manuals, and annotations on sticky notes. Although managers prefer oral communication for its efficiency and immediacy, the increase in electronic communication is undeniable. As well, some managers prefer written communication for important messages, such as a change in a company policy, where precision of language and documentation of the message are important.

IN CONTEXT

Dealing With Information Overload

One of the challenges in many organizations is dealing with a deluge of emails, texts, voicemails, and other communication. Organizations have become flatter, outsourced many functions, and

layered technology to speed communication with integrated communication programs such as Slack, which allows users to manage all their communication and access shared resources in one place. This can lead to information overload, and crucial messages may be drowned out by the volume in your inbox.

Add the practice of “reply to all” that many coworkers use, which can add to the volume of communication; this means that you may get five or six versions of an initial email and need to understand all of the responses as well as the initial communication before responding or deciding that the issue is resolved and no response is needed. Here are suggestions for dealing with email overload upward, horizontally, and downward within your organization and externally to stakeholders and customers.

One way to reduce the volume and the time you spend on email is to turn off the spigot of incoming messages. There are obvious practices that help, such as unsubscribing to e-newsletters or turning off notifications from social media accounts such as Facebook and Twitter. Also consider whether your colleagues or direct reports are copying you on too many emails as an FYI. If yes, explain that you only need to be updated at certain times or when a final decision is made.

You will also want to set up a system that will organize your inbox into “folders” that will enable you to manage the flow of messages into groups that will allow you to address them appropriately. Your system might look something like this:

1. **Inbox**: Treat this as a holding pen. Emails shouldn’t stay here any longer than it takes for you to file them into another folder. The exception is when you respond immediately and are waiting for an immediate response.
2. **Today**: This is for items that need a response today.
3. **This week**: This is for messages that require a response before the end of the week.
4. **This month/quarter**: This is for everything that needs a longer-term response. Depending on your role, you may need a monthly or quarterly folder.
5. **FYI**: This is for any items that are for information only and that you may want to refer back to in the future.

This system prioritizes emails based on timescales rather than the emails' senders, enabling you to better schedule work and set deadlines.

Another thing to consider is your outgoing email. If your outgoing messages are not specific, too long, unclear, or are copied too widely, your colleagues are likely to follow the same practice when communicating with you. Keep your communication clear and to the point, and managing your outbox will also help make your inbound emails more manageable.

Sources: (Gallo, 2012) (Chingel, 2018) (Seely, 2017)

BRAINSTORM

1. How are you managing your emails now? Are you mixing personal and school and work-related emails in the same account?

2. How would you communicate to a colleague that is sending too many FYI emails, sending too many unclear emails, or copying too many people on his or her messages?

1c. Nonverbal Communication

There is also the transmission of information without speaking or writing. Some examples of this are things such as traffic lights and sirens as well as factors such as office size and placement, which connote something or someone of importance. As well, things such as body language and facial expression can convey either conscious or unconscious messages to others.

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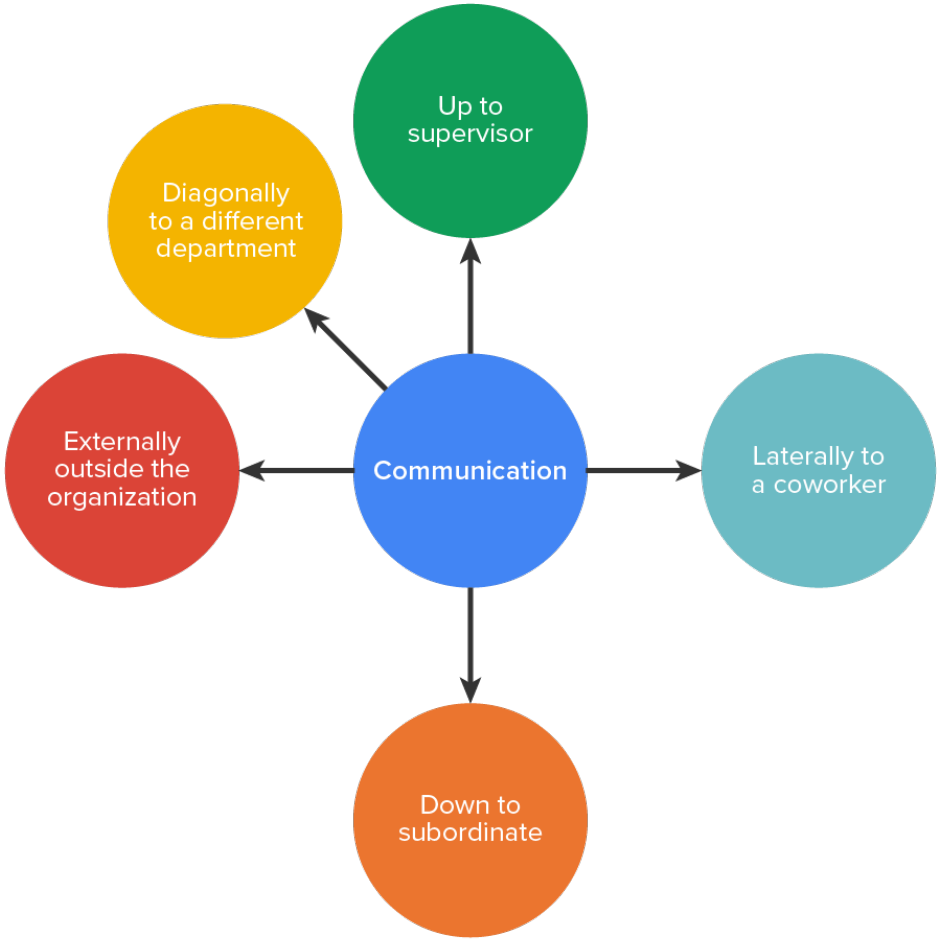
2. Major Influences on Interpersonal Communication

Regardless of the type of communication involved, the nature, direction, and quality of interpersonal communication processes can be influenced by several factors (Jablin & Putnam, 2005).

2a. Social Influences

Communication is a social process, as it takes at least two people to have a communication episode. There are a variety of social influences that can affect the accuracy of the intended message.

> ↱ EXAMPLE Status barriers between employees at different levels of the organization can influence things such as addressing a colleague at a director level as “Ms. Jones” or a coworker at the same level as “Mike.” Prevailing norms and roles can dictate who speaks to whom and how someone responds. The diagram below illustrates a variety of communications that illustrate social influences in the workplace.



2b. Perception

In addition, the communication process is heavily influenced by perceptual processes. The extent to which an employee accurately receives job instructions from a manager may be influenced by his or her perception of the manager, especially if the job instructions conflict with his or her interest in the job or if they are controversial. If an employee has stereotyped the manager as incompetent, chances are that little of what the manager says will be taken seriously. If the boss is well-regarded or seen as influential in the company, everything that he or she says may be interpreted as important.

2c. Interaction Involvement

Communication effectiveness can be influenced by the extent to which one or both parties are involved in conversation. This attentiveness is called **interaction attentiveness** or **interaction involvement** (Worthington & Bodie, 2018). If the intended receiver of the message is preoccupied with other issues, the effectiveness of the message may be diminished. Interaction involvement consists of three interrelated dimensions: responsiveness, perceptiveness, and attentiveness.

TERMS TO KNOW

Interaction Attentiveness/Interaction Involvement

A measure of how the receiver of a message is paying close attention and is alert or observant.

2d. Organizational Design

The communication process can also be influenced by the design of the organization. It has often been argued to decentralize an organization because that will lead to a more participative structure and lead to improved communication in the organization. When messages must travel through multiple levels of an

organization, the possibility of distortion can also occur, which would be diminished with more face-to-face communication.

Smart managers understand that not all of a company's influential relationships appear as part of the organization chart. A web of informal, personal connections exists between workers, and vital information and knowledge pass through this web constantly. Using social media analysis software and other tracking tools, managers can map and quantify the normally invisible relationships that form between employees at all levels of an organization.

REFLECT

1. What are the three major types of communication?
2. How can you manage the inflow of electronic communication?
3. What are the major influences on organizational communication, and how can organizational design affect communication?

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned about **the three types of communication** that can be used by either the communicator in the initial transmission phase or the receiver in the feedback phase: **oral communication**, **written communication**, and **nonverbal communication**. Integrated communication programs and the practice of "reply to all" can lead to information overload—and missing crucial messages—so it is important to deal with email overload both within your organization and externally to stakeholders and customers by managing the flow of messages into and out of your inbox. You also learned about the **major influences on interpersonal communication** that impact the nature, direction, and quality of interpersonal communication processes: **social influences**, **perception**, **interaction involvement**, and **organizational design**.

Best of luck in your learning!

Source: Access for free at **https://openstax.org/books/principles-management/pages/1-introduction**

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TERMS TO KNOW

Interaction Attentiveness/Interaction Involvement

A measure of how the receiver of a message is paying close attention and is alert or observant.

Factors Affecting Communications and the Roles of Managers

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson you will learn how power, status, purpose, and interpersonal skills affect communications in organizations. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. The Roles Managers Play
   a. Interpersonal Roles
   b. Informational Roles
   c. Decisional Roles
2. Method of Communication

1. The Roles Managers Play

In Mintzberg's seminal study of managers and their jobs, he found the majority of them clustered around three core management roles (Mintzberg, 1973, p. 31):

- Interpersonal Roles
- Informational Roles
- Decisional Roles

1a. Interpersonal Roles

Managers are required to interact with a substantial number of people during a workweek. They host receptions; take clients and customers to dinner; meet with business prospects and partners; conduct hiring and performance interviews; and form alliances, friendships, and personal relationships with many others. Numerous studies have shown that such relationships are the richest source of information for managers because of their immediate and personal nature (Mintzberg, 1990, pp. 166-167).

Three of a manager's roles arise directly from formal authority and involve basic interpersonal relationships. First is the **figurehead role**. As the head of an organizational unit, every manager must perform some ceremonial duties. In Mintzberg's study, chief executives spent 12% of their contact time on ceremonial duties; 17% of their incoming mail dealt with acknowledgements and requests related to their status.

Managers are also responsible for the work of the people in their unit, and their actions in this regard are directly related to their role as a leader. The influence of managers is most clearly seen, according to Mintzberg, in the leader role. Formal authority vests them with great potential power. Leadership determines, in large part, how much power they will realize.

Popular management literature has had little to say about the liaison role until recently. This role, in which

managers establish and maintain contacts outside the vertical chain of command, becomes especially important in view of the finding of virtually every study of managerial work that managers spend as much time with peers and other people outside of their units as they do with their own subordinates. Surprisingly, they spend little time with their own superiors. In Rosemary Stewart's (1967) study, 160 British middle and top managers spent 47% of their time with peers, 41% of their time with people inside their unit, and only 12% of their time with superiors. Guest's (1956) study of U.S. manufacturing supervisors revealed similar findings.

TERM TO KNOW

Figurehead Role

A necessary role for a manager who wants to inspire people within the organization to feel connected to each other and to the institution, to support the policies and decisions made on behalf of the organization, and to work harder for the good of the institution.

1b. Informational Roles

Managers are required to gather, collate, analyze, store, and disseminate many kinds of information. In doing so, they become information resource centers, often storing huge amounts of information in their own heads, moving quickly from the role of gatherer to the role of disseminator in minutes. Although many business organizations install large, expensive management information systems to perform many of those functions, nothing can match the speed and intuitive power of a well-trained manager's brain for information processing. Not surprisingly, most managers prefer it that way.

As monitors, managers are constantly scanning the environment for information, talking with liaison contacts and subordinates, and receiving unsolicited information, much of it because of their network of personal contacts. A good portion of this information arrives in verbal form, often as gossip, hearsay, and speculation (Mintzberg, 1990, pp. 166-167).

In the disseminator role, managers pass privileged information directly to subordinates, who might otherwise have no access to it. Managers must decide not only who should receive such information, but how much of it, how often, and in what form. Increasingly, managers are being asked to decide whether subordinates, peers, customers, business partners, and others should have direct access to information 24 hours a day without having to contact the manager directly (Mintzberg, 1990, pp. 166-167).

In the spokesperson role, managers send information to people outside of their organizations: an executive makes a speech to lobby for an organizational cause, or a supervisor suggests a product modification to a supplier. Increasingly, managers are also being asked to deal with representatives of the news media, providing both factual and opinion-based responses that will be printed or broadcast to vast unseen audiences, often directly or with little editing. The risks in such circumstances are enormous, but so too are the potential rewards in terms of brand recognition, public image, and organizational visibility (Mintzberg, 1990, pp. 166-167).

1c. Decisional Roles

Ultimately, managers are charged with the responsibility of making decisions on behalf of both the organization and the stakeholders with an interest in it. Such decisions are often made under circumstances of high ambiguity and with inadequate information. Often, the other two managerial roles—interpersonal and informational—will assist a manager in making difficult decisions in which outcomes are not clear and interests are often conflicting.

In the role of entrepreneur, managers seek to improve their businesses, adapt to changing market conditions, and react to opportunities as they present themselves. Managers who take a longer-term view of their

responsibilities are among the first to realize that they will need to reinvent themselves, their product and service lines, their marketing strategies, and their ways of doing business as older methods become obsolete and competitors gain advantage.

While the entrepreneur role describes managers who initiate change, the disturbance or crisis handler role depicts managers who must involuntarily react to conditions. Crises can arise because bad managers let circumstances deteriorate or spin out of control, but just as often good managers find themselves in the midst of a crisis that they could not have anticipated but must react to just the same (Mintzberg, 1989).

The third decisional role of resource allocator involves managers making decisions about who gets what, how much, when, and why. Resources, including funding, equipment, human labor, office or production space, and even the boss's time, are all limited, and demand inevitably outstrips supply. Managers must make sensible decisions about such matters while still retaining, motivating, and developing the best of their employees.

The final decisional role is that of negotiator. Managers spend considerable amounts of time in negotiations: over budget allocations, labor and collective bargaining agreements, and other formal dispute resolutions. During a week, managers will often make dozens of decisions that are the result of brief but important negotiations between and among employees, customers and clients, suppliers, and others with whom managers must deal (Mintzberg, 1990, pp. 166-167).

2. Method of Communication

The method of communication a manager uses may vary depending on the role they are playing at any given time.

- In the interpersonal role, managers may need to convey empathy and understanding in order to maintain healthy working relationships. Or, they may express gratitude for a job well done. In the interpersonal role, the emphasis is on developing and maintaining productive human relationships.
- A manager in the informational role may use a different approach, perhaps relying more on written forms of communication to convey facts.
- In the decisional role a manager may use more direct communication methods depending on the need and urgency of decisions that must be made and acted upon.

1. What are the major roles that managers play in communicating with employees?
2. Why are negotiations often a component of communications by managers?

In this lesson, you learned about three core **roles managers play**, based upon Mintzberg's seminal study of managers and their jobs. You learned that **interpersonal roles**, comprising the figurehead role, the leader role, and the liaison role, arise directly from formal authority and involve basic interpersonal relationships, which are the richest source of information for managers because of their immediate and personal nature. You learned that managers are required to gather, collate, analyze, store, and disseminate many kinds of information in their **informational roles**, comprising roles such as monitor, disseminator, and spokesperson. Lastly, you learned about **decisional roles** played by

managers who are charged with the responsibility of making decisions on behalf of both the organization and invested stakeholders, including the roles of entrepreneur, crisis handler, resource allocator, and negotiator. Keep in mind that the **method of communication** a manager uses may vary depending on the role they are playing at any given time.

Best of luck in your learning!

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TERMS TO KNOW

Figurehead Role
A necessary role for a manager who wants to inspire people within the organization to feel connected to each other and to the institution, to support the policies and decisions made on behalf of the organization, and to work harder for the good of the organization.

Managerial Communication and Corporate Reputation

by Sophia

WHAT'S COVERED

In this lesson, you will learn how corporate reputations are defined by how an organization communicates to its stakeholders. Specifically, this lesson will cover:

1. The Importance of Language Skills

1. The Importance of Language Skills

Management communication is a central discipline in the study of communication and corporate reputation. An understanding of language and its inherent powers, combined with the skill to speak, write, listen, and form interpersonal relationships, will determine whether companies succeed or fail and whether they are rewarded or penalized for their reputations.

At the midpoint of the twentieth century, Peter Drucker (1954) wrote, “Managers have to learn to know language, to understand what words are and what they mean. Perhaps most important, they have to acquire respect for language as [our] most precious gift and heritage. The manager must understand the meaning of the old definition of rhetoric as ‘the art which draws men’s hearts to the love of true knowledge.’”

Later, Eccles and Nohria (1992) reframed Drucker’s view to offer a perspective of management that few others have seen: “To see management in its proper light, managers need first to take language seriously.” In particular, they argue, a coherent view of management must focus on three issues: the use of rhetoric to achieve a manager’s goals, the shaping of a managerial identity, and taking action to achieve the goals of the organizations that employ us. Above all, they say, “the essence of what management is all about [is] the effective use of language to get things done.” One of the things managers get done is the creation, management, and monitoring of corporate reputation.

The job of becoming a competent, effective manager thus becomes one of understanding language and action. It also involves finding ways to shape how others see and think of you in your role as a manager. Many noted researchers have examined the important relationship between communication and action within large and complex organizations and conclude that the two are inseparable. Without the right words, used in the right way, it is unlikely that the right reputations develop. “Words do matter,” write Eccles and Nohria. “They matter very much. Without words we have no way of expressing strategic concepts, structural forms, or designs for performance measurement systems.” Language, they conclude, “is too important to managers to be taken for granted or, even worse, abused.”

So, if language is a manager’s key to corporate reputation management, the next question is obvious: How good are managers at using language? Managers’ ability to act—to hire a talented workforce, to change an organization’s reputation, to launch a new product line—depends entirely on how effectively they use management communication, both as a speaker and as a listener. Managers’ effectiveness as a speaker and

writer will determine how well they are able to manage the firm's reputation. And their effectiveness as listeners will determine how well they understand and respond to others and can change the organization in response to their feedback.

Management communication is about the movement of information and the skills that facilitate it—speaking, writing, listening, and processes of critical thinking. It's also about understanding who your organization is (identity), who others think your organization is (reputation), and the contributions individuals can make to the success of their business considering their organization's existing reputation. It is also about confidence—the knowledge that one can speak and write well, listen with great skill as others speak, and both seek out and provide the feedback essential to creating, managing, or changing their organization's reputation.

REFLECT

1. How are corporate reputations affected by the communication of managers and public statements?
2. Why is corporate reputation important?

SUMMARY

In this lesson, you learned how corporate reputations are defined by how an organization communicates to its stakeholders. You learned about **the importance of language skills** in determining whether companies succeed or fail and whether they are rewarded or penalized for their reputations, understanding that the job of becoming a competent, effective manager becomes one of understanding language and action, as well as finding ways to shape how others see and think of you in your role as a manager. Put simply, "Words do matter." You also learned that a manager's ability to manage the firm's reputation, understand and respond to others, and effect changes as a result of that feedback is inextricably linked to their effectiveness as a speaker, writer, and listener.

Best of luck in your learning!

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Terms to Know

Adaptation

Working with or around differences.

Boundaries

Lines that make the limits of an area; team boundaries separate the team from its external stakeholders.

Buffer

The distance a manager creates between the team and its external forces, stakeholders, and pressures to prevent these external factors from derailing or distracting the team from meeting its goals.

Charisma

A special magnetic charm and appeal that arouses loyalty and enthusiasm.

Charismatic Leader

A person who possesses legitimate power that arises from “exceptional sanctity, heroism, or exemplary character.”

Cognitive Complexity

The ability to view situations from more than one cultural framework.

Collaboration

The action of working with someone to produce or create something.

Communicator

The individual, group, or organization that needs or wants to share information with another individual, group, or organization.

Consideration

A “relationship-oriented” leader behavior that is supportive, friendly, and focused on personal needs and interpersonal relationships.

Content Motivation Theories

Theories that focus on what motivates people.

Contingency Theory of Leadership

A theory advanced by Dr. Fred E. Fiedler that suggests that different leadership styles are

effective as a function of the favorableness of the leadership situation least preferred.

Cultural Intelligence

A skill that enables individuals to function effectively in cross-cultural environments.

Decoding

Interpreting and understanding and making sense of a message.

Dyadic

A group of two.

ERG Theory

Compresses Maslow's five need categories into three: existence, relatedness, and growth.

Effort-Performance Expectancy

E1, the perceived probability that effort will lead to performance (or E ➡ P).

Emotional Intelligence

The capability of individuals to recognize their own emotions and others' emotions.

Encoding

Translating a message into symbols or language that a receiver can understand.

Equity Theory

States that human motivation is affected by the outcomes people receive for their inputs, compared to the outcomes and inputs of other people.

Exit

Technique of last resort—removal of a team member.

Expectancy Theory

Posits that people will exert high effort levels to perform at high levels so that they can obtain valued outcomes.

Extinction

Occurs when a consequence makes it less likely the response/behavior will be repeated in the future.

Extrinsic Motivation

Occurs when a person performs a given behavior to acquire something that will satisfy a lower-order need.

Figurehead Role

A necessary role for a manager who wants to inspire people within the organization to feel connected to each other and to the institution, to support the policies and decisions made on behalf of the organization, and to work harder for the good of the organization.

Focus of attention

An employee's cognitive orientation while at work.

Forming

The first stage of team development—the positive and polite stage.

Goal Commitment

The degree to which people dedicate themselves to achieving a goal.

Goal Theory

States that people will perform better if they have difficult, specific, accepted performance goals or objectives.

Great Man Theory of Leadership

The belief that some people are born to be leaders and others are not.

Ground Rules

Basic rules or principles of conduct that govern a situation or endeavor.

Hedonism

Assumes that people are motivated to satisfy mainly their own needs (seek pleasure, avoid pain).

Hygienes

Factors in the work environment that are based on the basic human need to "avoid pain."

Initiating Structure

A "task-oriented" leader behavior that is focused on goal attainment, organizing and scheduling work, solving problems, and maintaining work processes.

Inputs

Any personal qualities that a person views as having value and that are relevant to the organization.

Instincts

Our natural, fundamental needs, basic to our survival.

Interaction Attentiveness/Interaction Involvement

A measure of how the receiver of a message is paying close attention and is alert or observant.

Intrinsic Motivation

Arises out of performing a behavior in and of itself, because it is interesting or “fun” to do.

Knowledge Economy

The information society, using knowledge to generate tangible and intangible values.

Leader-member Exchange (LMX) Theory

A relationship-based leadership theory with a focus on the two-way link between a leader and a follower.

Leadership

A social (interpersonal) influence relationship between two or more persons who depend on each other to attain certain mutual goals in a group situation.

Least-preferred Coworker (LPC)

The person with whom the leader least likes to work.

Maintenance Needs

The need for individuals to fit and work together by having, for example, shared norms.

Managerial Intervention

Technique of making decisions by management and without team involvement.

Manifest Need

Whatever need that is motivating a person at a given time.

Mining

To delve in to extract something of value; a technique for generating discussion instead of burying it.

Motivators

Relate to the jobs that people perform and people’s ability to feel a sense of achievement as a result of performing them.

Motive

A source of motivation; the need that a person is attempting to satisfy.

Need

A human condition that becomes energized when people feel deficient in some respect.

Need For Achievement (nAch)

The need to excel at tasks, especially tasks that are difficult.

Need For Affiliation (nAff)

The need to establish and maintain warm and friendly relationships with other people.

Need For Power (nPow)

Reflects a motivation to influence and be responsible for other people.

Negative Reinforcement

Occurs when a behavior causes something undesirable to be removed, increasing the likelihood of the behavior reoccurring.

Noise

Anything that interferes with the communication process.

Norming

The third stage of team development—when the team resolves its differences and begins making progress.

Operant Conditioning

Indicates that learning results from our “operating on” the environment.

Operant Conditioning Theory

Posits that people learn to behave in a particular fashion as a result of the consequences that followed their past behaviors.

Outcomes

Anything a person perceives as getting back from an organization in exchange for the person’s inputs.

Overreward Inequity

Occurs when people perceive their outcome/input ratio to be greater than that of their referent other.

Paradox

A self-contradictory statement or situation.

Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

A theory that posits that leadership is path- and goal-oriented, suggesting that different leadership styles are effective as a function of the task confronting the group.

Performance-Outcome Expectancy

E2, the perceived relationship between performance and outcomes (or P ➡ O).

Performing

The fourth stage of team development—when hard work leads to the achievement of the team's goal.

Positive Reinforcement

A desirable consequence that satisfies an active need or that removes a barrier to need satisfaction.

Process Motivation Theories

Theories that focus on the how and why of motivation.

Punishment

An aversive consequence that follows a behavior and makes it less likely to reoccur.

Real-time Permission

A technique for recognizing when conflict is uncomfortable, and giving permission to continue.

Receiver

The individual, group, or organization for which information is intended.

Referent Others

Workers that a person uses to compare inputs and outcomes, and who perform jobs similar in difficulty and complexity to the employee making an equity determination.

Reinforcement

Occurs when a consequence makes it more likely the response/behavior will be repeated in the future.

Self-efficacy

A belief about the probability that one can successfully execute some future action or task, or achieve some result.

Self-monitoring Personality Trait

Refers to the strength of an individual's ability and willingness to read verbal and nonverbal cues and to alter one's behavior to manage the presentation of the self and the images that others form of the individual.

Situational Control

The degree to which a leader can influence the group process.

State of Equity

Occurs when people perceive their outcome/input ratio to be equal to that of their referent other.

Storming

The second stage of team development—when people are pushing against the boundaries.

Structural Intervention

Reorganizing to reduce friction on the team.

Supportive Coach

A team management role that helps both the individual team members and the group entity think through issues and make progress towards goals.

Task Needs

The need for the group to make progress toward attaining the goal that brought them together.

Transformational Leader

A leader who moves and changes things "in a big way" by inspiring others to perform the extraordinary.

Underreward Inequity

Occurs when people perceive their outcome/input ratio to be less than that of their referent other.

Valences

The degree to which a person perceives an outcome as being desirable, neutral, or undesirable.

Virtual Team

A team which works remotely using the Internet and various means of electronic or digital communication and coordination.

Visionary Leader

A leader who influences others through an emotional and/or intellectual attraction to the leader's dreams of what "can be."

Working Group

Group of experts working together to achieve specific goals; performance is made up of the individual results of all members.