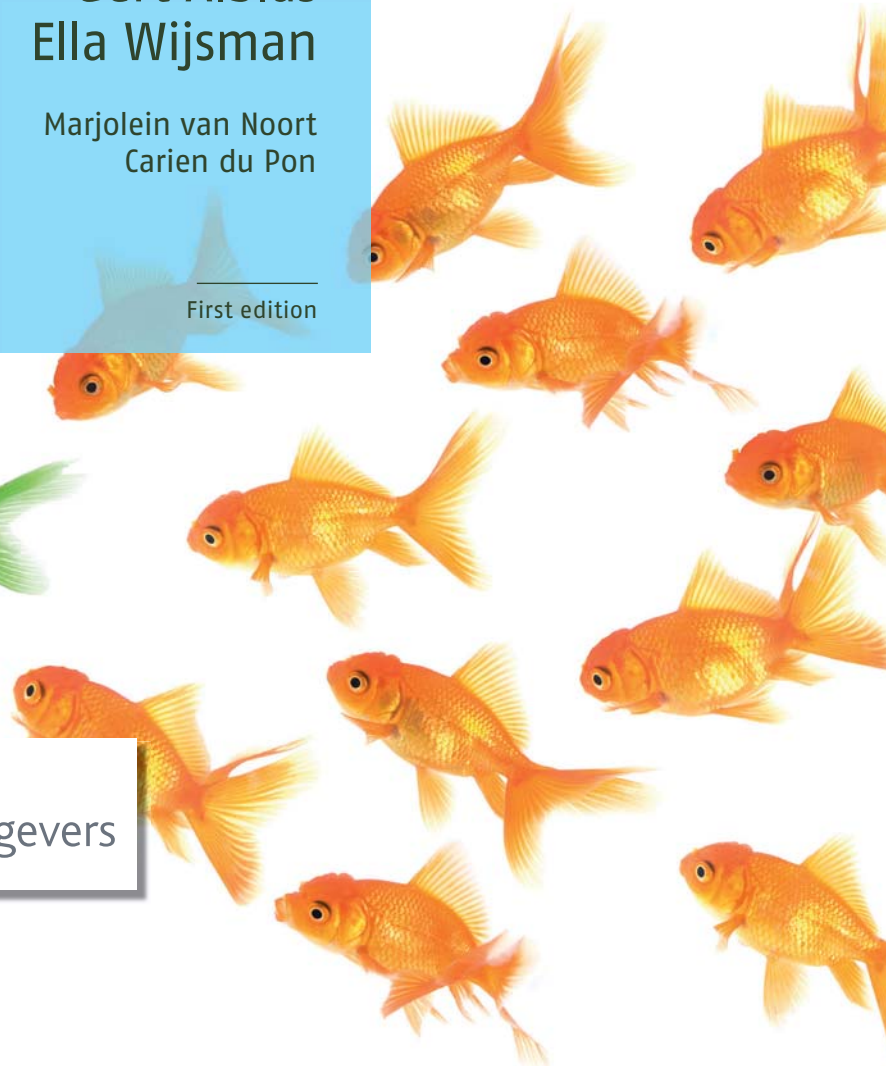

Organisational Behaviour

Gert Alblas
Ella Wijsman

Marjolein van Noort
Carien du Pon

First edition



Noordhoff Uitgevers

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Preface

This book is an introduction to organisational psychology. It presents the psychological and organisational theory in terms of which the behaviour of people in organisations can be described and explained. This knowledge can be used by management to recruit the right staff, induct them, train them, motivate them to perform satisfactorily and retain them.

In chapter 1, the relationship between the individual and the organisation is discussed. What motivates people to invest their time and energy in their work? What do they receive in return? How equitable do they find the relationship between their efforts and the income that results from them? What is their involvement with the organisation?

In chapter 2, we describe how employees are recruited and selected and subsequently integrated into the organisation. We also show how they can be motivated to contribute positively to the organisation.

In chapter 3, we show that employees almost always belong to one or more groups. What does it mean to be a member of a group and how is one's own behaviour influenced by this?

In chapter 4, we explore the functioning of groups in greater depth. We indicate how consultation and collaboration within groups can be improved. We also show how problems within and among groups can be resolved.

In chapter 5, we describe how communication takes place within organisations, what problems can occur in this area and how communication can be improved.

Power and leadership are central themes in chapter 6. How are the balances of power managed within organisations? In what ways is power used to exercise influence? How is leadership exercised and what is effective leadership?

In chapter 7, we describe how the structure of an organisation comes into being. How is a permanent, manageable and predictable system of collaboration achieved? What are the different types of structure? What type of structure fits the given circumstances best?

In chapter 8, we show how collaboration between people in organisations follows certain patterns. We describe a number of characteristics of these patterns, the factors that can influence them and how the uniqueness of an organisation in terms of collaboration patterns – the organisational culture – is created.

In chapter 9, decision-making in organisations is discussed. What types of decision must be made? What is the decision-making process? What problems can occur within decision-making and how can decision-making be improved?

In chapter 10, we investigate the psychological and physical health of employees. What problems are there in this area and how can they be resolved? Conflicts at work are also discussed and we indicate the types of conflict management that can be used to resolve them.

Organisational change is the central topic of chapter 11. For what reasons should the functioning of an organisation be changed? How can changes be effected so that resistance to change is negated or minimised and the process is smooth and successful?

Theory as well as practice

Examples from practice make the book accessible for students. Besides this, each chapter concludes with practical tips for managers, focusing on sources of conflict and conflict management.

The book is accompanied by a comprehensive website. This contains tests for students on each chapter, supplementary material (in the form of case studies) and a glossary. Links are provided to additional information, tests and videos. Teachers, too, can find supporting material on the website.

Acknowledgement

We would like to thank Wouter Molendijk for his close reading of the text, substantive contributions and constructive suggestions, which have made the book more attractive and accessible.

We would also like to thank Suzan Bosch for her pertinent test questions, which appear on the website, and Henk Hoogkamer (municipality of Delft) for the excellent recruitment material.

Finally, we would like to thank our publisher, Ageeth Bergsma, for her guidance and the many teachers who have supplied critical commentaries.

Groningen, summer 2011

Gert Alblas
Ella Wijsman

Contents

1 Individual and organisation 11

- 1.1 Motivation 13
- 1.2 Abilities and competences 24
- 1.3 Personality 25
- 1.4 Attitudes 27
- 1.5 The relationship between individual and organisation 29
- 1.6 Instrumental attitude 31
- 1.7 Emotional commitment 33
- 1.8 Work satisfaction 33
- 1.9 Equitability 35
 - Tips for managers 38
 - Summary 39
 - Assignments 40

2 Integration and motivation 43

- 2.1 Recruitment and selection 45
- 2.2 Integration 57
- 2.3 Methods of integration 60
- 2.4 Motivation 63
- 2.5 Effects of motivation 69
- 2.6 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: conclusions 72
- 2.7 Retaining people in an organisation 72
 - Tips for managers 74
 - Summary 76
 - Assignments 77

3 Groups in organisations 81

- 3.1 The group concept 83
- 3.2 The organisation as a collection of groups 84
- 3.3 Types of groups in organisations 85
- 3.4 Functions of groups 89
- 3.5 The group as a social environment 92
- 3.6 Phases in group development 95
- 3.7 Structural characteristics of groups 99
- 3.8 Relationships between groups 109
 - Tips for managers 115
 - Summary 116
 - Assignments 117

4 Effective collaboration and decision-making 119

- 4.1 Effective group performance 121
- 4.2 Conditions for effective performance 122
- 4.3 Process losses in executive groups 127
- 4.4 Effective decision-making in groups 130
- 4.5 Advantages and disadvantages of a group approach 130
- 4.6 Criteria for effective decision-making in a group context 132
- 4.7 Process losses in decision-making 133
- 4.8 Improving decision-making in groups 139
- 4.9 Leadership in decision-making 144
- 4.10 Collaboration and consultation in self-managing teams 145
- 4.11 Conditions for effective collaboration in self-managing teams 146
 - Tips for managers 148
 - Summary 150
 - Assignments 151

5 Communication in organisations 153

- 5.1 Communication 155
- 5.2 The communication process 160
- 5.3 Aspects of communication 161
- 5.4 Types of communication 163
- 5.5 Impediments to communication 169
- 5.6 Problems in formal communication 174
- 5.7 Improving communication 176
 - Tips for managers 182
 - Summary 183
 - Assignments 184

6 Power and leadership 187

- 6.1 Power and influence 189
- 6.2 Sources of power 189
- 6.3 Use of power 194
- 6.4 Effects of use of power 196
- 6.5 Use of power for 'political' purposes 197
- 6.6 Abuse of power 199
- 6.7 Leadership in organisations 200
- 6.8 Leadership styles 202
- 6.9 Leadership and effectiveness 204
- 6.10 Improving leadership 211
- 6.11 Influence of leadership 218
 - Tips for managers 220
 - Summary 221
 - Assignments 222

7 Organisational structure 225

- 7.1 Creating structure 227
- 7.2 Distribution of work 229
- 7.3 Coordination 235
- 7.4 Responsibilities and relationships 243
- 7.5 Project groups and matrices 249
- 7.6 Designing communication channels 251
- 7.7 Organic and mechanistic structures 251
- 7.8 Developments in structural design 254
 - Tips for managers 259
 - Summary 260
 - Assignments 261

8 Organisational culture 265

- 8.1 The concept of culture 267
- 8.2 The organisational culture 269
- 8.3 Types of organisational culture 270
- 8.4 Healthy and neurotic organisational cultures 274
- 8.5 Establishing the culture of organisations 276
- 8.6 The development of organisational culture 281
- 8.7 Transmitting organisational culture 283
- 8.8 Organisational culture and nationality 284
- 8.9 Cultural bias 289
- 8.10 Changing the organisational culture 290
 - Tips for managers 294
 - Summary 295
 - Assignments 269

9 Decision-making in organisations 299

- 9.1 Characteristics of problems 301
- 9.2 Areas of decision-making in organisations 303
- 9.3 Problems in decision-making 308
- 9.4 Impediments to decision-making 313
- 9.5 Decision-making models 316
- 9.6 Removing impediments to strategic decision-making 321
- 9.7 Model for strategy formulation 322
- 9.8 Organisation of strategic decision-making 326
 - Tips for managers 327
 - Summary 328
 - Assignments 329

10 Stress and conflict 333

- 10.1 Psychological load 335
- 10.2 Work-related causes of stress and burn-out 337
- 10.3 Person-related causes of stress and burn-out 342
- 10.4 Preventing or combating stress and burn-out 346
- 10.5 Physical load 350
- 10.6 Reducing the physical load 351
- 10.7 Conflicts at work 352
- 10.8 Conflict management 356
- 10.9 Escalation of conflicts 360
- 10.10 Organisational intervention in conflict resolution 361
 - Tips for managers 366
 - Summary 368
 - Assignments 369

11 Organisational change 373

- 11.1 Necessity for change 375
- 11.2 Causes of change 376
- 11.3 Implementing organisational change 379
- 11.4 Planned organisational change 380
- 11.5 Types of change 385
- 11.6 Two approaches to planned change 388
- 11.7 Impediments to change 391
- 11.8 The role of management in change processes 393
- 11.9 Creating a structure for handling change 396
- 11.10 Reducing resistance and increasing support 398
 - Tips for managers 400
 - Summary 402
 - Assignments 403

Bibliography 405

Picture credits 415

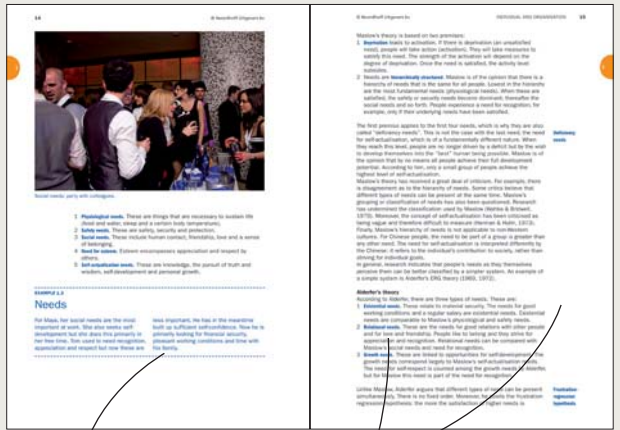
Article credits 415

Index 417

Effective studying



Chapter introductions setting out questions and the most important concepts in the chapter



Many examples from practice

Key words, listed in the index



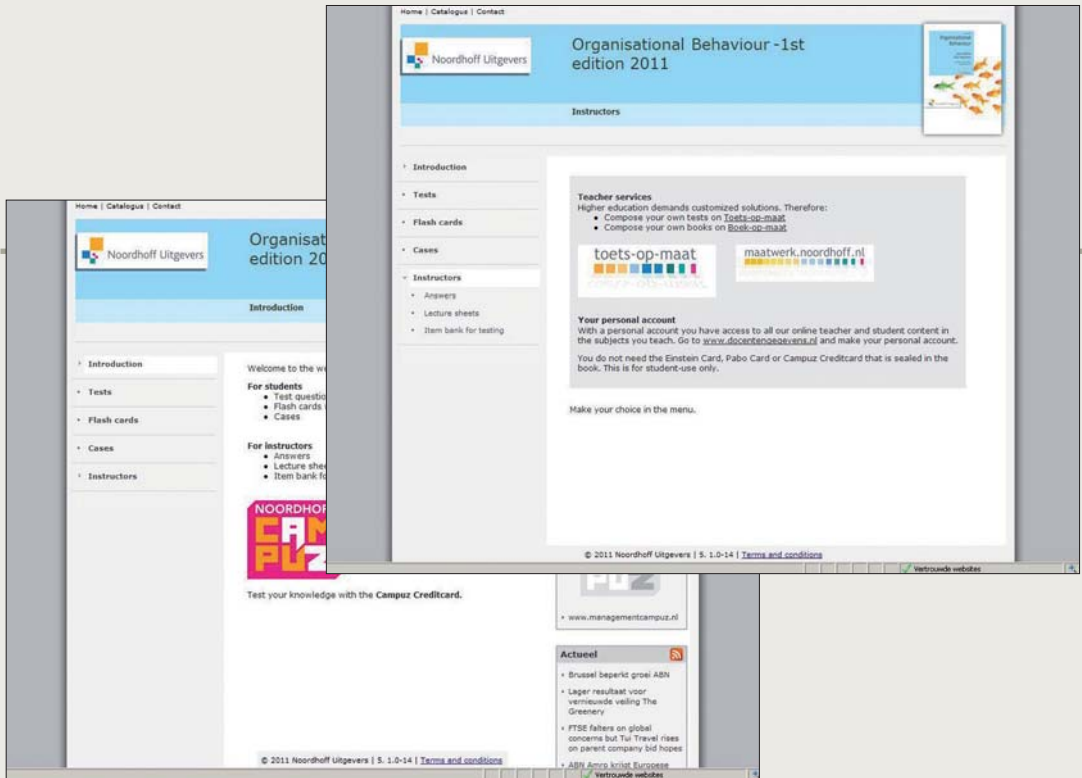
Tips for managers at the end of each chapter



Chapter summaries



Assignments



Related website, www.organisationalbehaviour.noordhoff.nl, including the following features:

- tests with feedback and study advice;
- glossary;
- case studies;
- entertaining short films about behaviour in organisations.





1

Individual and organisation

- What motives do people have for working?
- How does motivation differ between people?
- What other personal characteristics play a role at work?
- What is the nature of the relationship between individual and organisation?
- What attitudes do people have towards work?

Motivation 13

Needs 13

Conditioning 18

Expectancy theory 19

Attribution theory 21

Self-image 22

Abilities 24

Competences 24

Personality 25

Attitude 27

Commitment 31

Instrumental attitude 31

Work satisfaction 33

Equitability 35

Maya applies for a job

1

Maya applied for a job as assistant receptionist with a large transport company. She was very enthusiastic about the interview. She found the interviewers friendly and open. Unfortunately, during the guided tour of the building she saw many older people. She also found the building

gloomy and poorly maintained. However, her positive contact with the staff made her decide to accept the job. In an interview for the company magazine she says: "I like working with people and I can work 36 hours in four days. I then have a day free for my training at the college."

Tom is looking for security

After ten years of working in industry, Tom is looking for a job in the non-profit sector. Now that Alma is pregnant with their second child, he wants to be at home more. He is looking for a less hectic job with shorter working hours. It seems sensible to him to

choose a job with more security, especially now that Alma is taking the risk of starting a business. His eye is caught by an advertisement. Perhaps he can work for the municipality in IT?

Positive contact with the staff
made her decide to accept
the job

1.1 Motivation

In the first example, Maya accepts a job offer because her future colleagues seem to be friendly and open. In the second example, Tom opts for a new job because it provides more security. Maya and Tom have different motives for choosing a certain job. These motives have to do with their motivation for working.

Motivation means the sum total of motives that are operative within an individual that are operative at a certain time. These motives can lead to the willingness to make certain efforts. Motivation is derived from the Latin word “movere”, which means: put into motion.

Motivation

There are different theories as to the origin of motivation. These can be divided into three categories:

- Internal forces (needs).
- External forces (situation).
- A desire to balance internal and external forces.

1.1.1 Motivation through internal forces

Since ancient times, people have been seeking answers to the questions: Why do we behave in a certain way? What inspires us? Is it gods or spirits? Or is it primitive forces within ourselves?

Freud, the founder of psychoanalysis, calls these internal forces “tendencies”. These tendencies are inborn, have a physical origin. They are the mainsprings of behaviour. Modern psychologists usually call internal forces “needs”.

Needs

There are different theories about needs. Here we will outline the theories of Maslow, Alderfer and McLelland.

Maslow's theory

Maslow (1943, 1954) argues that five needs form the basis for every person's behaviour (see figure 1.1):

FIGURE 1.1 Maslow's needs pyramid



Source: Maslow, 1943, 1954



Social needs: party with colleagues.

- 1 **Physiological needs.** These are things that are necessary to sustain life (food and water, sleep and a certain body temperature).
- 2 **Safety needs.** These are safety, security and protection.
- 3 **Social needs.** These include human contact, friendship, love and a sense of belonging.
- 4 **Need for esteem.** Esteem encompasses appreciation and respect by others.
- 5 **Self-actualisation needs.** These are knowledge, the pursuit of truth and wisdom, self-development and personal growth.

EXAMPLE 1.2

Needs

For Maya, her social needs are the most important at work. She also seeks self-development but she does this primarily in her free time. Tom used to need recognition, appreciation and respect but now these are

less important. He has in the meantime built up sufficient self-confidence. Now he is primarily looking for financial security, pleasant working conditions and time with his family.

Maslow's theory is based on two premises:

- 1 **Deprivation** leads to activation. If there is deprivation (an unsatisfied need), people will take action (activation). They will take measures to satisfy this need. The strength of the activation will depend on the degree of deprivation. Once the need is satisfied, the activity level subsides.
- 2 Needs are **hierarchically structured**. Maslow is of the opinion that there is a hierarchy of needs that is the same for all people. Lowest in the hierarchy are the most fundamental needs (physiological needs). When these are satisfied, the safety or security needs become dominant; thereafter the social needs and so forth. People experience a need for recognition, for example, only if their underlying needs have been satisfied.

The first premise applies to the first four needs, which is why they are also called "deficiency needs". This is not the case with the last need, the need for self-actualisation, which is of a fundamentally different nature. When they reach this level, people are no longer driven by a deficit but by the wish to develop themselves into the "best" human being possible. Maslow is of the opinion that by no means all people achieve their full development potential. According to him, only a small group of people achieve the highest level of self-actualisation.

**Deficiency
needs**

Maslow's theory has received a great deal of criticism. For example, there is disagreement as to the hierarchy of needs. Some critics believe that different types of needs can be present at the same time. Maslow's grouping or classification of needs has also been questioned. Research has undermined the classification used by Maslow (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976). Moreover, the concept of self-actualisation has been criticised as being vague and therefore difficult to measure (Herman & Hulin, 1973). Finally, Maslow's hierarchy of needs is not applicable to non-Western cultures. For Chinese people, the need to be part of a group is greater than any other need. The need for self-actualisation is interpreted differently by the Chinese: it refers to the individual's contribution to society, rather than striving for individual goals.

In general, research indicates that people's needs as they themselves perceive them can be better classified by a simpler system. An example of a simple system is Alderfer's ERG theory (1969, 1972).

Alderfer's theory

According to Alderfer, there are three types of needs. These are:

- 1 **Existential needs**. These relate to material security. The needs for good working conditions and a regular salary are existential needs. Existential needs are comparable to Maslow's physiological and safety needs.
- 2 **Relational needs**. These are the needs for good relations with other people and for love and friendship. People like to belong and they strive for appreciation and recognition. Relational needs can be compared with Maslow's social needs and need for recognition.
- 3 **Growth needs**. These are linked to opportunities for self-development. The growth needs correspond largely to Maslow's self-actualisation needs. The need for self-respect is counted among the growth needs by Alderfer, but for Maslow this need is part of the need for recognition.

Unlike Maslow, Alderfer argues that different types of need can be present simultaneously. There is no fixed order. Moreover, he posits the frustration-regression hypothesis: the more the satisfaction of higher needs is

**Frustration-
regression
hypothesis**

ERG theory

frustrated, the more important the lower-level needs become. Like Maslow, Alderfer is of the opinion that deprivation of needs will lead to activation. People are primarily motivated to action if they perceive a deficit. American research based on the ERG theory yields interesting data (Hellriegel et al., 1989). People whose parents had higher education turn out to have stronger growth needs than people whose parents had less education. Men turn out to have more existential needs and fewer relational needs than women. Women have more relational needs than existential needs.

McLelland's theory

In every organisation, differences can be seen in the effort made by employees. There are people who slack and others who always work hard. One person is ambitious and wants to get ahead while another is satisfied with what he has. According to McLelland (1971, 1976), every individual develops his own profile of needs in the first years of life. In such a profile there is a dominant need and this dominant need determines the person's orientation, independently of the situation in which that person finds himself. It becomes a stable characteristic. McLelland identifies three needs profiles:

- 1 **Need for achievement.** If this need is dominant, the person is primarily focused on performing well. He will seek out challenging situations in which he can show what he can do.
- 2 **Need for power.** People in whom this need is dominant strive for influence and control over others. They try to attain positions in which these can be achieved.
- 3 **Need for affiliation.** If this need is dominant, people are focused on the creation of good relationships with others.

The dominance of a certain need has been established through research. Andrews (1967) found that among middle and senior management the need for power is primarily dominant. Kotter (1982) carried out research among 15 higher managers and found strong achievement and power needs in them. Among lower-level management the need for affiliation is dominant (Kolb, Rubin & McIntyre, 1984). The question is whether the results of these studies prove that people have a stable dominant need. At first sight, it seems as though people ascend to a management position in an organisation due to a strong need for power. However, the situation can be looked at the other way round. Through being in a higher position, people obtain power and consider it important for exercising their authority. This situation makes their orientation on power dominant. Lower-level management generally has little power. To achieve anything, they must enter into good relationships with their subordinates. They can then use these good relationships as a source of influence.

This reasoning fits in with McLelland's view that the dominant need is learned. In the learning process, the rewarding of behaviour (law of effect) plays a major role. A manager who achieves something by exercising power will have the tendency to repeat this approach. If 'being friendly' produces the desired effect, this style of approach can become dominant.

Unlike the preceding theories, McLelland's assumes that needs are not innate but learned. He does, however, assume that learning takes place at a young age and that the dominant pattern, once developed, thereafter

Profile of needs

remains stable. This is open to question. What has been learned can be changed – for example, by training managers in a different approach. Research is necessary to provide a decisive answer to this question.

1.1.2 Motivation through external forces (the situation)

Behaviour is driven not only by need but also by the situation a person is in. The growing child still has much to discover and learn before it can function purposefully. This learning partly takes place by trial and error, through a process of guessing and failing. In order to achieve something, the child will try out different behaviours. This does not always produce the desired results but sometimes it does. Behaviour that is followed by the desired effect is more likely to be adopted the next time in a similar situation than behaviour that elicits no effect or a negative effect. In this way, even a baby can learn that it can get attention simply by crying loudly. Thorndike calls this the law of effect: the consequences of an action determine whether someone has the inclination to repeat the action or not. If the consequences are attractive, there is positive reinforcement. If the consequences are unattractive, there is negative reinforcement.

Trial and error

Law of effect
Positive reinforcement
Negative reinforcement



Crying often has an effect.

EXAMPLE 1.3

Positive and negative reactions

Maya makes jokes during her first progress meeting with her new colleagues. Her colleagues look offended and do not respond to the jokes. They do respond,

however, when she delivers a substantive contribution to the discussion. Maya stops making jokes after a while and acts in a more businesslike manner.

A certain action that is always followed by positive reinforcement will after a time automatically be taken in the same situation. This action is then conditioned and included in the behavioural repertoire. However, this action will not produce the same effect in every situation.

Conditioned

1

EXAMPLE 1.4

Modifying behaviour

Maya discovers that she should not make jokes during the progress meeting. However, during coffee and lunch breaks, this behaviour is very much appreciated.

Stimuli

What consequences a certain action produces is dependent on the characteristics of the situation. These characteristics are called stimuli.

Conditioning

The new employee learns to distinguish between a consultation situation and a coffee break. In the first case, serious behaviour is elicited and in the second case making jokes. In the process of conditioning, a link is first created between a stimulus (situation) and a response (action). If such a link is made, the situation automatically elicits the conditioned action. A large part of human behaviour is automatically elicited by the situation.

EXAMPLE 1.5

Automatic behaviour

William has worked on a milling machine for years. When he arrives in the morning, he has a long list of set actions, which must take place in a fixed order. First, he goes to the changing room. There, he takes overalls from his locker and changes into them. Subsequently, he greets his colleagues,

chats with them, gets a cup of coffee from the machine and goes to the milling machine. There are all the order tickets for the orders he has to complete. He goes through them and subsequently programmes his machine.

What behaviour is and is not elicited by a given situation is connected with the process of reinforcement. The consequences of the behaviour of employees in an organisation impinge on their colleagues and their line manager. The latter can elicit the desired behaviour or eliminate undesired behaviour by their positive or negative reactions. Positive reactions are, for example, attention, compliments, smiling, help, information, more assignments, more freedom to organise work and promotion. Negative reactions are taking no notice, giving disapproving glances, criticism or low assessments, anger or nagging.

By means of systematic reinforcement, the behaviour of an employee can be conditioned. In organisations, use can be made of this learning process to make sure that (new) employees behave in the correct manner and so make a worthwhile contribution to the team.

1.1.3 Motivation through a desire to balance internal and external forces

The first two motivations for behaviour are in a sense opposites. On the one hand, people can display behaviour because this is elicited by the situation. This is a pulling force. On the other hand, they are encouraged into behaviour by their needs. This is a pushing force. Both approaches suggest that people have no choice: either they follow their needs or they are conditioned into certain behaviour by the situation. In a number of cases, however, the behaviour that people display is the outcome of a process of consideration and choice. In this, both the needs of the person and the possibilities that the situation offers play an important role.

Pulling force
Pushing force

1

EXAMPLE 1.6

Ambition

Maya is very ambitious and wants to advance a step in her career. The question is how she should proceed. Are there in fact higher positions to be attained within the bank where she now works? If so, how might she attain them? By working even

harder and above all by establishing better relationships with the senior managers? By networking informally? Or would it be better to apply for a higher position somewhere else?

Before people make a choice, they consider the situation they are in and the opportunities it affords for them to achieve certain goals or results. They also estimate the likely consequences of certain behaviour. The motivation to display or not to display certain behaviour is the result of a process of deliberation. Two theories describe the considerations that form the basis of behavioural choice: the expectancy theory and the attribution theory.

Expectancy theory

The process of deliberation that determines a certain behaviour is described by Vroom (1964) in his expectancy theory. According to this theory, whether people are inclined to make an effort in their work depends on various considerations:

Expectancy theory

- 1 The **connection between effort and performance**. This is the estimated likelihood that a certain effort will lead to good performance.
- 2 The **connection between performance and returns**. This is the extent to which someone believes that good performance will actually lead to attractive returns. Sometimes that connection is clear, because there is a clear reward system, but in many cases it is a question of waiting to see if certain efforts will lead to more appreciation, job security and promotion, for example.
- 3 The **value of the returns** that certain efforts produce. Work can provide various positive returns, such as good pay, high status, good social contacts and possibilities for growth. There can also be negative returns, such as frustration, physical discomfort, conflict and stress. The value of the returns is the sum of the advantages and disadvantages these extra efforts produce. Extra hard work can lead to a positive evaluation from

the boss but a poorer relationship with colleagues, because they see it as showing off. Promotion can produce more salary and status but also more work pressure, worries and responsibility.

The value of the results of work is not the same for everyone. As we discuss in section 1.2, for some employees salary is the most important return, while for other employees challenging work, responsibility and appreciation have a high value. Research has shown that simply having work contributes to people's happiness (see the following example).

MARSHALL EN KELLY GOLDSMITH, BUSINESSWEEK, DECEMBER 21ST 2009

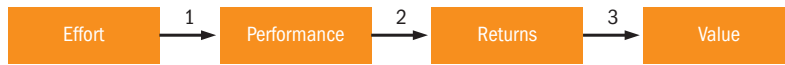
How Adults Achieve Happiness

How does an adult achieve a high level of contentment while living a frenetic and distraction-packed life? The two of us have just reviewed results from our new survey designed to elicit insights into short-term satisfaction (happiness) and long-term benefit (meaning) – both at work and away from it. Our respondents weren't randomly chosen. They're well-educated managers, entrepreneurs, and professionals, numbering over 3,000. Our findings were in many cases unexpected but clear-cut. There is an incredibly high correlation between people's happiness and meaning at work and at home. In other words, those who experience happiness and meaning at

work tend also to experience them outside of work.(...) Overall satisfaction at work increased only if both the amount of happiness and meaning experienced by employees simultaneously increased. (...) What can companies do differently? They might stop asking, "What can the company do to increase employees' experience of happiness and meaning at work?" which encourages dependency. Instead, managers can encourage employees to ask themselves, "What can I do to increase my experience of happiness and meaning at work?" This strategy may produce a higher return in employee commitment – and do so at a lower cost.

According to the expectancy theory, the greater people estimate the likelihood of achieving positive returns and the more valuable they consider those returns, the greater the effort they will make. A student works hard for her exams, for example. She thinks that by so doing she will pass (effort–outcome expectancy) and expects to have more chance of obtaining work (outcome–return expectancy). Obtaining work has a high value (valence) for her. If passing the exams is not a means to obtaining more attractive work and earning more, she will ask herself if it makes sense to make any effort for the exams. Success is then not connected to attractive returns.

The relationship between effort, returns and values is shown in figure 1.7.

FIGURE 1.7 The expectation model

The motivation for someone to make an effort is a function of:

- 1 Effort-performance expectation
- 2 Performance-returns expectation
- 3 Value of the returns

Employees within an organisation would like to know whether their efforts will lead to positive outcomes and thereby to other returns they consider valuable. How the organisation can take advantage of this and thus increase the motivation to perform will be discussed in chapter 2.

It would seem as though Vroom's expectancy theory is about the more or less objective consideration of the chances of success and the value of returns. This is, however, not the case. It is primarily about subjective considerations and estimates – in particular:

- 1 the extent to which the relationship between effort and returns (equitability) is thought to be reasonable
- 2 the extent to which people regard themselves as capable of producing good performance (self-image).

Attribution theory

The attribution theory (Vroom, 1964; Kelley, 1972) explains why people are willing to make efforts. If they think that they can achieve success with their efforts, they will make them. They are less willing to make an effort if they think that they will not achieve positive results whatever they do. How do people arrive at a positive estimation of their potential? This occurs through attribution. Attribution is a process by which people try to find out the causes of their own behaviour and the behaviour of others. A manager of a large export company, for example, is annoyed to find that his excellently prepared proposal receives no support at all at a meeting. He has spent more than six months putting his plans on paper, and now everything seems to have failed. How is that possible? The manager will seek causes for the painful situation he finds himself in. The first thing he will ask himself is: "Is it due to me or to factors other than myself?" People will try to find out the causes of their failure or success. They do this by comparing themselves with others in the same situation and considering whether there is possibly a set pattern to their failure or success. In determining the causes of their success or failure, they take the following into consideration:

- Whether they frequently fail or succeed in similar situations. This enables them to establish whether there is a fixed pattern (when I go out of the door, I always forget to turn off the lights) or whether it happens only occasionally.
- Whether others fail or succeed in the same situations. If others make the same mistakes, it must be because of the circumstances – for example, because it is very difficult to do well. If only they make mistakes, it will be because they are not as good as others.
- Whether they fail or succeed in many situations.

Attribution theory

Attribution

The results of the considerations above determine whether a person should seek the cause of their success or failure in themselves or in the circumstances. If someone comes to the conclusion that he is the only one who does something wrong or does it well, and that this is frequently the case, then he will seek the cause in himself. We call this internal attribution.

Internal attribution

If others also regularly fail in comparable circumstances, then the causes should rather be sought outside oneself. The task was too difficult, for example, or there was too little time. There is external attribution if people ascribe their success or failure to circumstances.

External attribution

When people ascribe their success or failure to themselves, this influences their self-image. Self-image consists in the characteristics that people assign to themselves. For example, someone can consider himself sporty, jovial, modest or intelligent. If someone is regularly better than others in a certain area, e.g. sprinting, that person will ascribe this to his own ability. This produces a positive self-image in this area and thus gives self-confidence. The person will not avoid new situations involving sprinting and trusts that he will again perform well. Someone with self-confidence does not avoid challenges. Someone who always performs poorly in certain situations in comparison to others will feel incompetent in that area and will have a tendency to fight shy of those situations.

Self-image

Self-confidence

Since people prefer to have a positive self-image, their internal attribution will not always be entirely objective. They will have a tendency to be selective and attribute positive characteristics to themselves and negative characteristics to environmental factors. We call this a self-serving bias. In addition to this self-serving bias, there is fundamental attribution error. This error arises from the tendency to attribute other people's behaviour to their characteristics rather than to external circumstances. If a manager finds that an employee is delivering an assignment late again, he will tend to attribute this to certain characteristics of the employee (laziness, inefficiency) rather than to circumstances (pressure, lack of data and suchlike).

Self-serving bias Fundamental attribution error

If managers wish to motivate employees to produce good results, they must ensure that a situation arises in which the employees have a positive self-image regarding their work abilities. People strive for a positive self-image because this satisfies their need to feel competent. It is therefore important to create a work situation that gives people the opportunity to show what they can do. This improves their self-image and increases their motivation to make an effort.

Self-image also plays a large part in the ramifications of Vroom's expectancy theory. After all, Vroom posits that the motivation to exert oneself is dependent on one's effort-performance expectancy, among other things. Self-image influences this expectancy. Someone who feels competent will expect his efforts to generate better results than someone who does not feel competent.

1.1.4 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

To motivate people to perform well, it is important to have insight into their motives. What motives play a role in the work situation? We can identify two types of motive: intrinsic and extrinsic.

Work-intrinsic motives to perform well relate to the challenge posed by the work itself and to satisfaction in the work. People do not do their best because they expect to be rewarded with greater recognition, a bonus or promotion, for example. They do their best because they like the work and derive satisfaction from performing well. To them it is more about the game than the marbles that can be won. Intrinsic motivation is connected to the previously mentioned need for self-development, the need to be good at something and the need for independence and responsibility.

Work-intrinsic motives

Work-extrinsic motives to perform well relate to the returns that can be achieved, such as money, rewards, good working conditions, high status and promotion. It is more about the marbles that can be won than about the game.

Work-extrinsic motives

Guzzo et al. (1985) analysed more than a hundred studies and came to the conclusion that work-intrinsic motives have a greater motivational effect in organisations than work-extrinsic motives. Organisations can take advantage of this (see also chapter 2).

EXAMPLE 1.8

Needs for different life phases

Tom has a need for financial security, favourable employment terms and good working conditions in this phase of his life. This is because Alma has become self-employed and has no protection against dismissal, no right to unemployment benefit, no pension fund, no collective

labour agreement, no sickness benefit and no limitation of liability in the event of losses. She doesn't mind this because she likes being independent, wants to take responsibility for her own work and finds the work challenging. The challenge of Tom's work is also important for him.

As seen in example 1.8, both types of motive can be present at the same time.

Employees who are primarily work-extrinsically motivated have an instrumental attitude towards their work. People used to say: "Work means bread on the table." We describe this attitude in section 1.6.

People have different needs and interests (motives). All kinds of factors affect these, such as their health, the psychological and relational problems with which they are confronted, their social environment and culture. Motives can also change during one's lifetime. When you are 60 years old, you usually have different needs from when you were 20. If you are 35 years old, you cannot postpone the decision about having children much longer. Having a family changes your needs and interests.

How people function in organisations is dependent not only on their needs but also on their abilities and competences, personality, attitudes and values.

1.2 Abilities and competences

Employees can be motivated to get a job or acquire a better position, but if they are not sufficiently competent, their effort will fail. Intelligent people and people who are skilled socially and communicatively often have an advantage.

Abilities

Intelligence

People can have specific abilities, but there is a more general ability: intelligence. People differ in intelligence. Some learn more easily than others. Intelligent people are often quicker at resolving difficult problems and understanding situations. Intelligence is established with an IQ test. A high score in an IQ test suggests that a person will be able to learn a new job quickly, for example, and be successful at work (see also chapter 2). Nevertheless, an IQ score does not tell you everything: it establishes only the person's ability for reasoning, absorbing and processing information, thinking logically and analytically and having spatial awareness. For success at work, other abilities are often also important. An employee should have specific knowledge and skills, for example.

EXAMPLE 1.9

Knowledge and competences

As a journalist, Alma has produced many reports on Eastern Europe. She speaks several Slavic languages, engages with people easily and is able to put her

thoughts into words accurately. Now that she has started her own communications consultancy, these skills come in very handy.

Competence

Competence is not only about the specific knowledge and skills that are necessary to perform well at work. Other abilities, personality traits and motives also play an important part (Kessels, 2001).

As a journalist, Alma's competence in Slavic languages comes in very handy. Speaking and writing skills are also important and she also needs to be motivated to get along with clients.

The skills that are required for a certain position are often listed in job advertisements in newspapers.

EXAMPLE 1.10

Job application?

Tom reads an advertisement in the newspaper which clearly specifies the abilities he must possess. He is expected to be able to work in a team, to be persuasive, to be independent and to be

good at problem-solving. He thinks he has three of these four abilities. Teamwork is not his strongest point: he would rather work solo. He detests 'chatty' people who prevent him from getting rapid results.

1.3 Personality

People can differ greatly from one another. Some are impulsive, cheerful and exuberant, while others are serious and cannot express themselves easily.

EXAMPLE 1.11

Clashing personalities

Tom is easily irritated by his colleagues, who he calls 'chatty'. These cheerful and exuberant colleagues are in turn irritated by

Tom's serious behaviour. They also think that he shouldn't work so hard.

The pattern of characteristic thoughts, feelings and behaviours by which one person distinguishes himself from another, and which remains fairly constant over time and in different situations, is called his personality.

Personality

Attempts have been made to describe the individuality of a person in terms of a number of personal characteristics, also called 'traits'. In terms of what personal characteristics can people be adequately described? Cattell (1973, 1982) identified 16 traits. Nowadays the Big Five, an internationally known personality test (Goldberg, 1992), is widely used to establish a person's character. As its name suggests, this personality test has five dimensions:

1 *Extraversion*

At one extreme of this dimension is extraversion and at the other introversion. Extravert people are talkative, spontaneous and exuberant. They like to laugh and touch others. Introverted people are closed and taciturn. They keep their distance. Extravert people can cope with many stimuli. They like dealing with others. Introverted people screen themselves off from too many stimuli. They want to work in peace and quiet.

2 *Agreeableness*

At one extreme of this dimension is agreeableness and at the other self-absorption and disagreeableness. Agreeable people are gentle, kind-hearted, obliging and peaceful. Disagreeable people are unbending, unyielding and stubborn. Agreeable people are focused on the needs and interests of other people. Disagreeable people push for their own way and cut discussions short.

3 *Conscientiousness*

At one extreme of this dimension is conscientiousness and at the other laziness. Conscientious people are scrupulous, orderly, precise and careful. They work systematically and purposefully. They like to turn up on time. Lazy people are disordered, careless and frivolous. They lose things and do their work at the last minute.

EXAMPLE 1.12

Creative and immune to stress

Carlo has achieved a low score for conscientiousness in the Big Five test. It's true that he is a bit nonchalant, he says. He likes change and is not very focused on

details. He begins all sorts of projects but is not so good at finishing them. Carlo can take on a lot of tasks at once without suffering any stress. He likes to improvise.

4 *Emotional stability*

At one end of this dimension is emotional stability and at the other end emotional instability (neuroticism). Emotionally stable people are imperturbable and cool-headed. They can detach themselves from problems and are immune to stress. Emotionally unstable people are panicky, anxious and emotional. They can quickly be overcome by emotion and have vivid imaginations.

5 *Openness to experience*

At one end of this dimension are people who are open to experience and at the other people who shut themselves off from new experiences. People who are open to experience are imaginative, creative and reflective. People who shut themselves off are over-polite and will not undertake anything on their own initiative. They agree with everything.

EXAMPLE 1.13

Social and careful

Natasha has not scored highly on openness to experience. It is not surprising. On the one hand, she doesn't like surprises and prefers a predictable environment. On the

other hand, however, she does like variety. This can cause difficulty because the two desires are often incompatible.

What is the purpose of this personality test?

For the individual employee, self-knowledge is important for making the right choices when selecting a profession or career and for personal development. People who are highly introverted and score low on agreeableness would be unwise to choose a profession in which they have to be around people. Examples are the caring professions, sales and management positions.

Big Five scores can also be used by employers in the selection process, to establish who is the right person for a certain position. The candidate must score highly on the characteristics that are required for the position (see chapter 2).

1.4 Attitudes

EXAMPLE 1.14

Car pooling?

Stimulated by some remarks made by his manager, Duncan is considering car pooling. He makes a list of positive factors: it saves costs; it is good for the environment (and the organisation wants to improve its performance in this respect); his manager is in favour of it.

But he also thinks: car pooling doesn't suit me because I don't want to sit in a car with the same colleague every day; I would rather be on my own; I want to be able to decide for myself when I travel; the organisation can't force me to car pool. I therefore won't do it.

The position that Duncan adopts with regard to car pooling can be called an attitude. An attitude is a reasonably stable position with regard to other (groups of) people, types of behaviour, things or ideas.

Attitude

How do people arrive at a certain attitude? Two factors play a part. In listing the advantages and disadvantages of car pooling, Duncan is using cognitive considerations. In allowing his feelings to come into play – for example, his reluctance to be forced – he is using affective or emotional considerations. Emotional considerations are often decisive in the attitudes that people adopt.

Cognitive considerations
Affective or emotional considerations

Attitudes elicit behaviour. If Duncan adopts a positive attitude to car pooling, there is a good chance that he will join in. However, the relationship between attitude and behaviour is not a direct one. Other factors intervene between desire and action.

EXAMPLE 1.15

Impediments

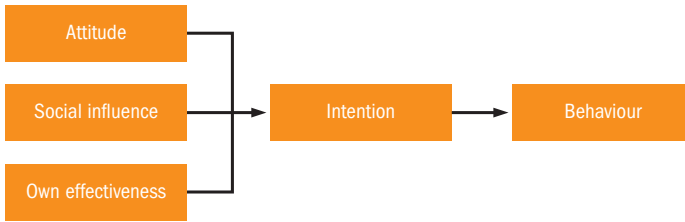
In principle, Duncan intends to start car pooling, but in practice nothing comes of it because he has flexible working hours, so it is difficult to make regular arrangements

with others. It is also difficult to find colleagues who can pick him up without having to make a big detour. The issue therefore remains problematic.

As the example shows, an attitude produces only a tendency to adopt certain behaviour. We call this a behavioural intention. Whether someone actually transforms this behavioural intention into behaviour is dependent on several factors. Three factors are set out in Kok's ASE model (De Vries, Mudde and Strecher, 1991): one's own attitude, the influence of the environment (society) and one's own effectiveness, i.e. the perceived likelihood of impediments to the adoption of the intended behaviour (see figure 1.16).

Behavioural intention

FIGURE 1.16 The ASE model



According to the ASE model, the likelihood of adopting certain behaviour, such as car pooling, will increase if:

- Duncan has a positive attitude towards car pooling;
- his social environment also has a positive attitude and pressure is put upon him to join in (e.g. if the majority of his colleagues do it and they emphasise how good it is for your wallet and for the environment and how it helps reduce traffic jams);
- Duncan finds that he can make the necessary arrangements with his colleagues. When this turns out to be difficult, he quickly gives up.

Cognitive dissonance

People can experience uneasiness if their attitudes and behaviour are contradictory. This creates cognitive dissonance. For example, Duncan wants to help the environment and should therefore start car pooling, but at the same time he would like to decide for himself how he goes to work.

Aline considers gossiping to be negative but she still does it regularly. Cognitive dissonance causes uneasiness and tension. This creates a need for 'dissonance reduction' and the brain attempts to reduce this dissonance.

EXAMPLE 1.17

How do you eliminate cognitive dissonance?

Duncan knows that he should start car pooling, but he doesn't do it. He combats his uneasiness about this by telling himself that sharing a car with a colleague doesn't

make much difference to the environment, or that he is actually not particularly in favour of car pooling.

What attitudes do people have towards the organisation in which they work? What determines their attitude to work and the work situation?

1.5 The relationship between individual and organisation

People generally like to be part of an organisation. This often produces a great deal of value, such as income, status and social contacts. These rewards do not just happen: people have to invest time and energy into the work that they do and they must adapt to the demands the organisation makes on them.

EXAMPLE 1.18

Interests of the organisation

Carla, the head of the Marketing and Sales Department, is happy with her new employee, Johan, because he has a lively personality and the right skills. But she also wants Johan to exhibit appropriate behaviour and, for example, give the right impression to clients and external contacts.

The relationship between individual and organisation has the character of an exchange relationship. The employee helps to achieve organisational goals through his contribution. He makes an effort, contributes time and energy to his work and places his physical and mental abilities at the organisation's disposal. The organisation can profit from his abilities, skills, personality and motivation. It gives rewards (benefits) in return. The organisation ensures that he has a good salary, interesting work, agreeable colleagues and attractive prospects, for example.

**Exchange
relationship**

Table 1.19 shows what can be exchanged between employees and organisations. For employees, the benefits are essentially of two types: economic and affective.

TABLE 1.19 Contribution and benefits of people in organisations

Contribution	Benefits
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time • Effort • Knowledge • Skills • Social support 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Salary and perks • Interesting work • Social contacts • Appreciation and status • Training, education and career prospects

People will turn the situation as much as possible to their own advantage in order to make the exchange as favourable as possible for themselves. March and Simon (1958) therefore posit that the individual decides to work for an organisation on the basis of a negotiated contract (see chapter 2).

A result of the exchange relationship is mutual dependence. Individual and organisation need each other to achieve their goals. The organisation can function well only if it has employees who are prepared to achieve the desired

**Mutual
dependence**



Taking breaks from work.

results. The employee needs the organisation to achieve his individual goals, such as a good salary, meaningful work and self-development.

The mutual dependence is not complete. People can leave the organisation if the exchange no longer suits them. Organisations can replace people with other people. An employee spends only a certain amount of his time in the organisation; he has time to do other things, which may also bring him rewards.

EXAMPLE 1.20

Leisure activities

Tom goes jogging with a neighbour twice a week and every Thursday evening he plays music in a band. In addition, he tries to find

time to go swimming and play with his daughter every week. And perhaps he should do that dance course with Alma?

Partial commitment

An employee devotes not only some of his time to the organisation, but also some of his knowledge and skills. It is possible for someone to gain extensive management experience in volunteer work during his free time and develop into an excellent chairman. These abilities cannot always be used at work. From the organisation's point of view, there is also partial

commitment. Not all of a person's abilities are always relevant to the position. The organisation has an interest in the employee making as much effort as possible, but too much personal investment in his work can lead to problems. The organisation uses people for part of their time and part of their potential. The relationship is therefore characterised by partial commitment on both sides.

This explanation of the exchange relationship suggests that people's commitment to organisations is based solely on economic considerations. This is not always the case. According to Etzioni (1961), three types of commitment are possible:

Commitment

- 1 **Obligation.** The employee's contribution is made under obligation. This can be the case in prisons or in the army.
- 2 **Use.** The employee's contribution leads to the results that the organisation wishes to achieve.
- 3 **Norms and values.** The employee's contribution is made for ideological or religious reasons. This is the case in a political organisation, for example.

The commitment of people to organisations can of course be based on several considerations. These considerations determine their attitudes towards their work and the organisation.

1.6 Instrumental attitude

People have different attitudes towards their work and the organisation. Some have an emotional involvement with the organisation, while others have a more instrumental attitude, focused on their work.

For people with an instrumental attitude:

- work is a means and not an end in itself. They seek satisfaction in things outside work;
- there is a strong distinction between work and private life;
- they work for economic reasons. If, for example, they can earn more somewhere else, they leave;
- work is not central to their lives. Their personal commitment to the organisation is low and their work is not a source of self-development.

Research into English factory workers in the 1970s showed that these workers usually had an instrumental attitude towards their work. Work was not central in their life. Can this attitude also be found in other professions and social strata?

Dubin (1976) and colleagues have developed a questionnaire to establish to what extent work belongs to someone's central life interests. They interviewed employees belonging to different professional groups.

Central life interests

From this research it emerged that the percentage of people for whom work is central varies by profession. Among truck drivers, for example, 12% considered work to be central and among nurses and some groups of managers more than 80%. It also turned out that people for whom work was central felt more committed to the organisation. For them it was also important that their work was challenging, that they had responsibility and



In some managerial groups, work is 80% central in their lives.

that they saw opportunities for advancement. People for whom work did not occupy a central place focused primarily on the number of hours they had to work, the number of days' holiday they got and their working conditions.

From this research it is clear that there is a connection between the position that someone has in an organisation and their attitude towards their work. The higher the position, the more central a role their work plays. Factors such as challenge and responsibility become more important. If these are incorporated into the work, the person is motivated to perform better (see the following example). For people at a lower level in the organisation, work often plays a less important role.

DAN KADLEC, WWW.TIME.COM, MAY 29TH 2009

Finding a new boom amid the bust

When it comes to what makes us happy at work, job-satisfaction surveys have been showing for years that the size of our paycheck is losing ground to intangibles like autonomy, mobility, flexible hours, job security, paid time off and other benefits. Does pay matter? Of course it does. But workers have begun to come to grips with what that means (...): in many cases saying bye-bye to generous and automatic pay raises across industries. The recession has only deepened this trend. Workers who are elated to simply have a job aren't squawking about money, and according to

a Randstad survey, they now name job security and benefits among the top factors in their happiness. Competitive pay is moving down the scale. Another expediter is demographics. Yet boomers are determined to scale back hours, and some at least are happy to trade a big salary for work with meaning and which allows for a better work/life balance, as long as the bills still get paid. Increasingly, our job market will also reward those who place a higher value on intangibles, and it will do so without relegating those people to a life of need. (...)

It could be that the differences found in the attitudes of people towards their work are more the result of differences in the nature of the work than the result of differences in the nature of the workers. The lower someone is in an organisation, the greater the chance that the work is dull, presents few challenges and provides few opportunities for development and responsibility. Under these circumstances an instrumental attitude is to be expected. Work that is varied, challenging and interesting and calls heavily on initiative will take a more central place and be done less exclusively for economic reasons.

Dutch research among 2,400 people published in InterviewNSS (2007) revealed that highly educated people find different things important in their work than people with a lower level of education.

Highly educated people opt for challenging work and an attractive corporate culture. They find it important to have a positive attitude towards the employer's product or service. For people with a lower level of education, such matters are less important. They are attracted more strongly by a short travelling distance and flexible working hours. Among this group, a common reason for leaving an organisation is poor working conditions. Highly educated people more often leave because of poor management.

1.7 Emotional commitment

People can be highly committed to the work they do. Commitment refers to the bond that exists between a person and an organisation. Different forms of commitment are discussed in the literature (Meyer and Allen, 1997). The strongest form is emotional or affective commitment. This is the emotional bond that someone has with their organisation. Employees with deep commitment are often more prepared to work overtime (Ellemers, Gilder and Van den Heuvel, 1998). They also report sick less readily, they stay with the organisation longer and their level of effort is high.

Commitment

How can emotional commitment be stimulated?

There are indications that appreciation by colleagues and management can contribute to this (Danseraux, 1995; Sleebos & Ellemers, 2000).

1.8 Work satisfaction

If commitment describes the extent to which someone feels bound to an organisation, work satisfaction means the extent to which someone perceives their work and working conditions as pleasant or enjoyable (Locke, 1976). How positively people view their work and working conditions is connected with the following factors:

- 1 **Characteristics of the work.** How someone perceives their work is often dependent on the extent to which the work is dull or varied, the extent to which it appeals to their own character, the extent to which it is possible for them to influence the way in which the work is done, and the social status of the work.
- 2 Nature of the **social environment.** The social environment comprises colleagues and management. They can be pleasant or unpleasant to work with. They can also provide or fail to provide **social support** in situations where there is a need for it (see also subsection 10.4.2).

Quite a few professions are hazardous or require emotional commitment. One thinks of police officers, firemen, prison warders, nurses, social workers and teachers. In these professions, employees can be exposed to harassment, aggression, violence, accidents, illness and death. In these situations social support helps the employee to achieve acceptance. But social support can also be beneficial in less serious situations, such as periods of work overload.

- 3 Nature of the **reward**. If the employee considers that the reward they derive from their work is commensurate with the effort that has to be made to carry out the work, there is said to be equitability (see also section 1.9).



Social support: a safety officer monitors the welfare of his colleagues as they extinguish a fire.

Research shows that it is primarily the characteristics of the work itself that influence work satisfaction (Judge and Hulin, 1993; Taber and Alliger, 1995). People with a high degree of work satisfaction have a high affective commitment to the organisation in which they work, have less inclination to leave the organisation, and perform better than people with low satisfaction (Arnold et al., 1998; Meyer et al., 1993).

1.9 Equitability

The attitude of people towards their work and the commitment that results from it are partly determined by the relationship between their efforts on behalf of the organisation (costs) and the results obtained (rewards). People make a cost-benefit analysis and strive for equitability.

Cost-benefit analysis

Equitability means that the efforts people make must be in proportion to the rewards they obtain. When people make a great deal of effort, they expect greater rewards than when they invest much less effort. But what is a fair relationship between costs and rewards? In general, it is difficult to establish this objectively.

Equitability

EXAMPLE 1.21

Comparing oneself with others

William earns a modal average income. He finds that he has to work hard in comparison with people in public service. They have it a lot easier, in his view. Still, he

is reasonably satisfied with his salary, certainly if he compares his job with others that are physically more demanding, which sometimes pay even less.

What an employee considers a fair relationship between his efforts and his rewards is often arrived at by comparison. The process involves two types of comparison (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959):

- **General comparison level.** This arises from comparison with other people. It produces a norm that indicates the lower limit of a fair relationship between costs and benefits.
- **Comparison level for alternatives.** The cost-benefit relationship of the employee's current position is then compared with that of available alternatives.

Everyone has their own norms for determining whether their efforts are reasonable for the rewards they receive. These norms are primarily created by comparison with other people. From that process of comparison a lower limit for the cost-benefit ratio is established. If the costs are too high or the benefits too low, people will perceive the relationship as unfair. If the relationship between costs and benefits is more favourable or reasonable, then people see it as fair. People not only apply general norms, but also look at what alternatives are on offer.

EXAMPLE 1.22

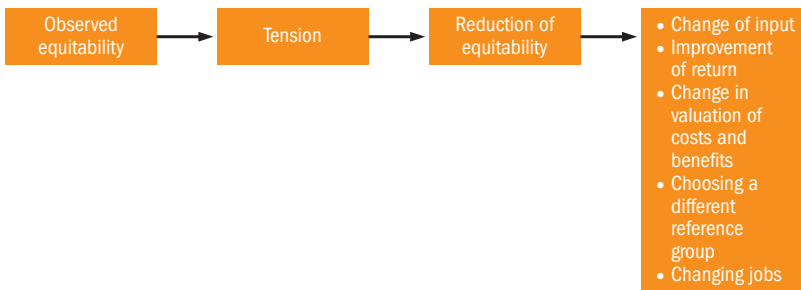
Alternatives

William has heard that in another factory employees doing the same work have better conditions and more opportunities to

progress to a higher position. This alternative is thus more attractive in terms of the cost–benefit ratio.

Balance theory The equitability theory can be regarded as a balance theory. If a lack of equitability is perceived, a feeling of tension arises. People will try to reduce this tension until a new balance is achieved (see figure 1.23).

FIGURE 1.23 Reduction of equitability



Source: Thibaut & Kelley, 1959

When people perceive a lack of equitability, they can act in various ways:

- **Adaptation of effort.** If the rewards obtained are too low, they can decide to make less effort, thereby making the relationship between costs and rewards more equitable. If people find that they are getting too many rewards, they can increase their efforts.
- **Improving the rewards.** People can try to obtain better rewards, for example by asking for the working environment to be improved by reducing noise nuisance or providing better ventilation. Demands for pay increases are another example of this type of action.
- **Change of appreciation.** A lack of equitability can also be countered by a different appreciation of costs and rewards. People can, for example, perceive a lack of equitability because more rewards are obtained than is reasonable. In this case, they are overpaid. This can lead to a re-evaluation of the situation. The employee can convince himself and others of the special value of his contribution to the organisation. The employee may also consider the contributions of his colleagues. He can raise or lower his evaluation of their contributions until he finds it reasonable that they receive more or fewer rewards than he does.
- **Choosing a different reference group.** An employee can choose different people to compare himself with. He may realise that it is not realistic to keep comparing himself with colleagues who used to work with him in the department, for example. These colleagues now have very different tasks and are categorised at different functional levels.

- **Leaving or changing jobs.** If an employee continues to perceive a strong sense of a lack of equitability, he can opt to look for another job and resign.

In general, people are inclined to act sooner when they perceive themselves to be disadvantaged by a lack of equitability than when they perceive their rewards to be too great.

Tips for managers

1

As a manager you have an interest in motivating employees. By holding regular performance appraisals, you will obtain an insight into the sources of motivation and needs of your employees.

Obtaining insight into sources of motivation

Ask your employees how they like their work and what their needs are. Ask the following questions:

- Are you instrumentally or emotionally involved committed to your work?
- Are you extrinsically or intrinsically motivated?
- How can I best satisfy your needs?

If you do not know exactly how your employees regard their work or what needs they have, you can ask the following questions:

- Why do you work for this organisation and what would you like to achieve?
- What do you like best about your work and working conditions?
- What do find most annoying in your work and working conditions?

Subsequently, adjust your means of motivation to your employees' preferences and needs.

Giving appreciation

Appreciation seems to be an important reward for just about everyone and it also stimulates emotional involvement. Give regular compliments and social support as a token of appreciation. If you do not know whether that is sufficient, ask, for example, in every performance appraisal:

- What are good tokens of appreciation for you?

Discontented employees – i.e. those who perceive a lack of equitability between their

efforts and their rewards – can be asked the following questions in a performance appraisal:

- To what extent are you satisfied with your salary and the appreciation you receive?
- Do you consider that you are sufficiently rewarded for the work you do here? If this is not the case, ask why.

Motivating discontented employees

If you have a discontented employee, the following applies:

- Take criticism or complaints seriously. Do not brand someone as a 'complainer'. Listen, ask lots of questions and see if anything can be done about the problem. Managers who never listen have complaining employees.
- See whether adjustments to the work are necessary. Does the work need to be more interesting or easier? Is there a lack of tools or facilities?
- Consider whether you yourself should handle the employee differently. Should you provide more appreciation and support? Should you show more interest in his problems? Should you direct your employee less and leave him alone more, or should you make it much clearer what you expect from him?
- Your employees wish to be rewarded equitably. This does not mean giving everyone exactly the same rewards. People are different and thus should be rewarded differently. Rewards can be given in the form of money or promotion, but there are other types of reward that your employees might appreciate, such as compliments, a dinner, flexible working hours or a week's holiday.

Summary

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- ▶ People have different motives for making efforts for an organisation. These motives can result from internal forces, also called needs.
 - ▶ Needs can be:
 - inborn
 - situation-dependent
 - a combination of inborn and situational factors.
 - ▶ The effectiveness of a person in an organisation is dependent on:
 - his personal characteristics
 - his abilities
 - his competences
 - ▶ Attitudes of employees may be:
 - extrinsically motivated (work as a means to an end)
 - intrinsically motivated (work as an end in itself: pleasant, challenging, interesting)
 - ▶ Work satisfaction is determined by:
 - the nature of the work
 - the relationships with colleagues and the manager
 - the rewards
 - ▶ Types of reward are:
 - economic (salary, bonus, company car)
 - affective (appreciation, status, good working relations, meaningful work)
 - ▶ The relationship between the employee and the organisation is an exchange.
 - ▶ The employee's contribution consists of:
 - time
 - energy
 - abilities
 - ▶ The organisation's contribution comprises:
 - provision of work
 - rewards
 - ▶ People strive for an equitable relationship between their efforts and their rewards. A lack of equitability leads to tension.
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Assignments

1

1.1 The table shows an overview of the results of research among American employees, in which they had to indicate what they thought was important in their work. A score of '1' means 'most important', a score of '9' 'least important'.

	Having interesting work	Valuing the work	Being involved in things	Job security	Good salary	Good promotion prospects
Sex						
Male	2	1	3	5	4	6
Female	2	1	3	4	5	6
Age						
Under 31	4	5	6	2	1	3
31-40	2	3	4	1	5	6
41-50	3	2	1	4	5	8
Over 50	1	2	3	-	8	9
Income						
Under \$12,001	5	4	6	2	1	3
\$12,001-\$18,000	2	3	1	4	5	6
\$18,001-\$25,000	1	3	2	4	6	5
Over \$25,000	1	2	4	3	8	-
Type of work						
Unskilled operational work	2	1	5	4	3	6
Skilled operational work	1	6	2	3	4	5
Unskilled office work	1	3	5	-	6	4
Skilled office work	2	1	4	5	6	3
Level in the organisation						
Low	3	4	5	2	1	6
Medium	1	2	3	4	6	5
High	1	2	3	6	8	5

Source: Kovach, 1987

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- a** In what respects do the values of American employees match Maslow's motivation theory?
- b** What shift in values takes place as employees grow older?
- c** What differences in values are there between the highest and the lowest level in the organisation? To what extent do these findings agree with the conclusions of Dubin (1976; see section 1.6) on instrumental attitudes towards work?
- 1.2** Two employees are highly appreciated by their boss. She is very pleased with them and often sings their praises. Employee Jones is very satisfied with this but Smith is not. He does not work just to gain praise but considers that he should be rewarded more. So he works even harder. For Smith, the rewards are therefore not sufficient.
- a** Smith perceives his treatment as inequitable. What criterion did he use? Justify your answer.
- b** There are five ways to correct a lack of equitability. Which does he choose?
- c** Name two other ways he could do so.
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