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**ОРГАНИЗАЦИОННОЕ ПОВЕДЕНИЕ
на английском языке**

ЮНИТА 4

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

UNIT 4

**BASIC MOTIVATION CONCEPTS
COMMUNICATION: A PROCESS VIEW**

МОСКВА 1999

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Course:

Unit 1. Foundations of Organizational Behavior.

Unit 2. Organizational Behavior and Culture.

Unit 3. Perception. Perception and Individual Decision Making.

Unit 4. Basic Motivation Concepts. Communication: A Process View.

Unit 5. Foundations of Group Behavior. Communication and Group
Decision Making.

Unit 6. Leadership and Power.

UNIT 4

Basic Motivation Concepts. Communication: A Process View

This unit is dedicated to so important subject as organizational behavior. It consists of methodological section (test-training, role-play, situations for discussion) and file of materials for study.

For the students of the Modern University for the Humanities.

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СГУ №2

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ТЕМАТИЧЕСКИЙ ПЛАН

Basic motivation concepts. Early theories of motivation: Hierarchy of Needs Theory. Theory X and Theory Y. Motivation-Hygiene Theory. Contemporary theories of motivation: ERG Theory. McClelland's Theory of Needs. Cognitive Evaluation Theory. Task Characteristics Theories. Requisite. Task Attributes Theory. The Job Characteristics Model. Social Information-Processing Model. Goal-Setting Theory. Reinforcement Theory. Equity Theory. Expectancy Theory. Integrating Contemporary Theories of Motivation.

Motivation: From concepts to applications. Management by objectives. Behavior modification. Participative management. Performance - based compensation. Flexible benefits. Comparable worth. Alternative work schedules. OB Redesign.

Communication: A Process View. Communication Elements and Processes. Types of Communication. Models of Communication. The Melting Pot Myth. Communication Across Difference. Subcultures. Gender.

ЛИТЕРАТУРА

Базовый учебник

- *1. Robbins S. Organizational Behavior. Prentice Hall. Any edition.

Дополнительная

2. Carley H. Dodd. Dynamics of Intercultural Communication. Wm. C. Brown Publishers; Third edition.

3. Anita Taylor, Arthur C. Meyer, Teresa Rosequant, B. Thomas Samples. Communicating, Prentice Hall; Sixth edition.

Примечание. Знаком (*) отмечены работы, на основе которых составлен научный обзор.

I. BASIC MOTIVATION CONCEPTS

1. WHAT IS MOTIVATION?

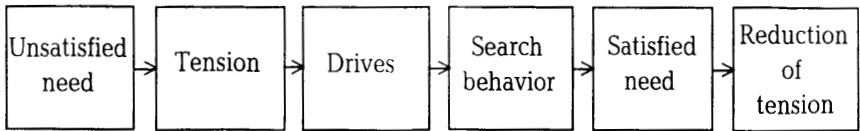
Maybe the place to begin is to say what motivation isn't. Many people incorrectly view motivation as a personal trait—that is, some have it and others don't. In practice, some managers label employees who seem to lack motivation as lazy. Such a label assumes that an individual is always lazy or is lacking in motivation. Our knowledge of motivation tells us that this just isn't true. What we know is that motivation is the result of the interaction of the individual and the situation. Certainly, individuals differ in their basic motivational drive. But the same employee who is quickly bored when pulling the lever on his drill press may pull the lever on a slot machine in Las Vegas for hours on end without the slightest hint of boredom. You may read a complete novel at one sitting, yet find it difficult to stay with a textbook for more than twenty minutes. It's not necessarily you—it's the situation. So as we analyze the concept of motivation, keep in mind that level of motivation varies both between individuals and within individuals at different times.

We'll define **motivation** as the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need. While general motivation is concerned with effort toward any goal, we'll narrow the focus to organizational goals in order to reflect our singular interest in work-related behavior. The three key elements in our definition are effort, organizational goals, and needs.

The effort element is a measure of intensity. When someone is motivated, he or she tries hard. But high levels of effort are unlikely to lead to favorable job performance outcomes unless the effort is channeled in a direction that benefits the organization. Therefore, we must consider the quality of the effort as well as its intensity. Effort that is directed toward, and consistent with, the organization's goals is the kind of effort that we should be seeking. Finally, we will treat motivation as a need-satisfying process. This is depicted in Figure 1.

* Жирным шрифтом выделены новые понятия, которые необходимо усвоить, знание этих понятий будет проверяться при тестировании.

FIGURE 1. The Motivation Process



A **need**, in our terminology, means some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive. An unsatisfied need creates tension that stimulates drives within the individual. These drives generate a search behavior to find particular goals that, if attained, will satisfy the need and lead to the reduction of tension.

So we can say that motivated employees are in a state of tension. To relieve this tension, they exert effort. The greater the tension, the higher the effort level. If this effort successfully leads to the satisfaction of the need, tension is reduced. But since we are interested in work behavior, this tension-reduction effort must also be directed toward organizational goals. Therefore, inherent in our definition of motivation is the requirement that the individual's needs be compatible and consistent with the organization's goals. Where this does not occur, we can have individuals exerting high levels of effort that actually run counter to the interests of the organization. This, incidentally, is not so unusual. For example, some employees regularly spend a lot of time talking with friends at work in order to satisfy their social needs. There is a high level of effort, only it's being unproductively directed.

2. EARLY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The 1950s were a fruitful period in the development of motivation concepts. Three specific theories were formulated during this period, which, though heavily attacked and now questionable in terms of validity, are probably the best known explanations for employee motivation. These are the hierarchy of needs theory, Theories X and Y, and the motivation-hygiene theory. As you'll see later in this chapter, we have since developed more valid explanations of motivation, but you should know these early theories for at least two reasons: (1) they represent a foundation from which contemporary theories have grown, and (2) practicing managers regularly use these theories and their terminology in explaining employee motivation.

2.1. Hierarchy of Needs Theory

It's probably safe to say that the most well-known theory of motivation is Abraham Maslow's **hierarchy of needs**. He hypothesized that within

every human being there exists a hierarchy of five needs. These needs are:

1. *Physiological*: Includes hunger, thirst, shelter, sex, and other bodily needs;
2. *Safety*: Includes security and protection from physical and emotional harm;
3. *Social*: Includes affection, belongingness, acceptance, and friendship;
4. *Esteem*: Includes internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement; and external esteem factors such as status, recognition, and attention;
5. **Self-actualization**: The drive to become what one is capable of becoming; includes growth, achieving one's potential, and self-fulfillment.

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

Maslow separated the five needs into higher and lower orders. Physiological and safety needs were described as *lower-order* and social, esteem, and self-actualization as **higher-order** needs. The differentiation between the two orders was made on the premise that higher-order needs are satisfied internally (within the person), whereas lower-order needs are predominantly satisfied externally (by such things as money wages, union contracts, and tenure). In fact, the natural conclusion to be drawn from Maslow's classification is that in times of economic plenty, almost all permanently employed workers have their lower-order needs substantially met.

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

Old theories, especially ones that are intuitively logical, apparently die hard. One researcher reviewed the evidence and concluded that "although of great societal popularity, need hierarchy as a theory continues to receive little empirical support." Further, the researcher stated that the "available research should certainly generate a reluctance to accept unconditionally the implication of Maslow's hierarchy." Another review came to the same conclusion. Little support was found for the prediction that need structures are organized along the dimensions proposed by Maslow, that unsatisfied

needs motivate, or that a satisfied need activates movement to a new need level.

2.2. Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor proposed two distinct views of human beings: one basically negative, labeled **Theory X**, and the other basically positive, labeled **Theory Y**. After viewing the way in which managers dealt with employees, McGregor concluded that a manager's view of the nature of human beings is based on a certain grouping of assumptions and that he or she tends to mold his or her behavior toward subordinates according to these assumptions. Under Theory X, the four assumptions held by managers are:

1. Employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.
2. Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.
3. Employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible.
4. Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work and will display little ambition.

In contrast to these negative views about the nature of human beings, McGregor listed the four positive assumptions that he called Theory Y:

1. Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play.
2. People will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives.
3. The average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility.
4. The ability to make innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the sole province of those in management positions.

What are the motivational implications if you accept McGregor's analysis? The answer is best expressed in the framework presented by Maslow. Theory X assumes that lower-order needs dominate individuals. Theory Y assumes that higher-order needs dominate individuals. McGregor himself held to the belief that Theory Y assumptions were more valid than Theory X. Therefore, he proposed such ideas as participation in decision making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations as approaches that would maximize an employee's job motivation.

Unfortunately, there is no evidence to confirm that either set of assumptions is valid or that accepting Theory Y assumptions and altering one's actions accordingly will lead to more motivated workers. As will become evident later in this chapter, either Theory X or Theory Y assumptions may be appropriate in a particular-situation.

2.3. Motivation-Hygiene Theory

The **motivation-hygiene theory** was proposed by psychologist Frederick Herzberg. In the belief that an individual's relation to his or her work is a basic one and that his or her attitude toward this work can very well determine the individual's success or failure, Herzberg investigated the question, "What do people want from their jobs?" He asked people to describe, in detail, situations when they felt exceptionally good and bad about their jobs. These responses were tabulated and categorized. Factors affecting job attitudes as reported in twelve investigations conducted by Herzberg are illustrated in Figure 2.

From the categorized responses, Herzberg concluded that the replies people gave when they felt good about their jobs were significantly different from the replies given when they felt bad. As seen in Figure 2, certain characteristics tend to be consistently related to job satisfaction (factors on the right side of the figure), and others to job dissatisfaction (the left side on the figure). Intrinsic factors, such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth, seem to be related to job satisfaction. When those questioned felt good about their work, they tended to attribute these characteristics to themselves. On the other hand, when they were dissatisfied, they tended to cite extrinsic factors, such as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, and working conditions.

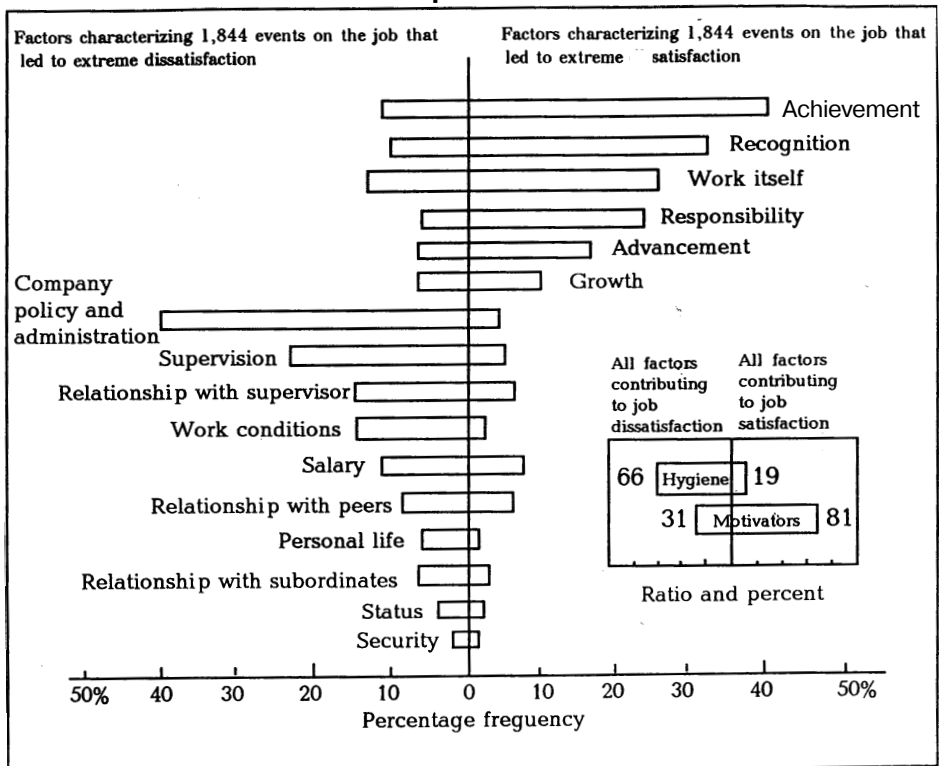
The data suggest, says Herzberg, that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, as was traditionally believed. Removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying. Herzberg proposes that his findings indicate the existence of a dual continuum: The opposite of "Satisfaction" is "No Satisfaction," and the opposite of "Dissatisfaction" is "No Dissatisfaction."

According to Herzberg, the factors leading to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. Therefore, managers who seek to eliminate factors that create job dissatisfaction can bring about peace, but not necessarily motivation. They will be placating their work force rather than motivating them. As a result, such characteristics as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations working conditions, and salary have been characterized by Herzberg as **hygiene factors**. When they are adequate, people will not be dissatisfied; however, neither will they be satisfied. If we want to motivate people on their jobs, Herzberg suggests emphasizing achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and growth. These are the characteristics that people find intrinsically rewarding.

The motivation-hygiene theory is not without its detractors. The criticisms of the theory include the following:

1. The procedure that Herzberg used is limited by its methodology. When things are going well, people tend to take credit themselves. Contrarily, they blame failure on the external environment.
2. The reliability of Herzberg's methodology is questioned. Since raters have to make interpretations, it is possible that they may contaminate the findings by interpreting one response in one manner while treating another similar response differently.
3. The theory, to the degree that it is valid, provides an explanation of job satisfaction. It is not really a theory of motivation.
4. No overall measure of satisfaction was utilized. In other words, a person may dislike part of his or her job, yet still think the job is acceptable.
5. The theory is inconsistent with previous research. The motivation-hygiene theory ignores situational variables.
6. Herzberg assumes that there is a relationship between satisfaction and productivity. But the research methodology he used looked only at satisfaction, not at productivity. To make such research relevant, one must assume a high relationship between satisfaction and productivity.

FIGURE 2. Comparison of Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers



3. CONTEMPORARY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

3.1. ERG Theory

Clayton Alderfer of Yale University has reworked Maslow's need hierarchy to align it more closely with the empirical research. His revised need hierarchy is labeled **ERG theory**.

Alderfer argues that there are three groups of core needs – existence – relatedness, and growth – hence the label: ERG theory. The existence group is concerned with providing our basic material existence requirements. They include the items that Maslow considered physiological and safety needs. The second group of needs are those of relatedness—the desire we have for maintaining important interpersonal relationships. These social and status desires require interaction with others if they are to be satisfied, and they align with Maslow's social need and the external component of Maslow's esteem classification. Finally, Alderfer isolates growth needs—an intrinsic desire for personal development. These include the intrinsic component from Maslow's esteem category and the characteristics included under self-actualization.

Besides substituting three needs for five, how does Alderfer's ERG theory differ from Maslow's? In contrast to the hierarchy of needs theory the ERG theory demonstrates that (1) more than one need may be operative at the same time, and (2) if the gratification of a higher-level need is stifled, the desire to satisfy a lower-level need increases.

Maslow's need hierarchy is a rigid steplike progression. ERG theory does not assume that there exists a rigid hierarchy where a lower need must be substantially gratified before one can move on. A person can, for instance be working on growth even though existence or relatedness needs are unsatisfied; or all three need categories could be operating at the same time.

ERG theory also contains a frustration-regression dimension. Maslow you'll remember, argued that an individual would stay at a certain need level until that need was satisfied. ERG theory counters by noting that when a higher-order need level is frustrated, the individual's desire to increase a lower-level need takes place. Inability to satisfy a need for social interaction for instance, might increase the desire for more money or better working conditions. So frustration can lead to a regression to a lower need.

In summary, ERG theory argues, like Maslow, that satisfied lower order needs lead to the desire to satisfy higher-order needs; but multiple needs can be operating as motivators at the same time, and frustration in attempting to satisfy a higher-level need can result in regression to a lower level need.

3.2. McClelland's Theory of Needs

Above, we introduced the need to achieve as a personality characteristic. It is also one of three needs proposed by David McClelland and his associates as being important in organizational settings for understanding motivation. **McClelland's theory of needs** focuses on three needs: achievement, power, and affiliation. They are defined as follows:

- **Need for achievement:** The drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed
- **Need for power:** The need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise
- **Need for affiliation:** The desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships

As described previously, some people who have a compelling drive to succeed are striving for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success per se. They have a desire to do something better or more efficiently than it has been done before. This drive is the achievement need (*nAch*). From research into the achievement need, McClelland found that high achievers differentiate themselves from others by their desire to do things better. They seek situations where they can attain personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems, where they can receive rapid feedback on their performance so they can tell easily whether they are improving or not, and where they can set moderately challenging goals. High achievers are not gamblers; they dislike succeeding by chance. They prefer the challenge of working at a problem and accepting the personal responsibility for success or failure rather than leaving the outcome to chance or the actions of others. Importantly, they avoid what they perceive to be very easy or very difficult tasks.

Again as noted above, high achievers perform best when they perceive then probability of success as being 0.5, that is, where they estimate that they have a fifty-fifty chance of success. They dislike gambling with high odds because they get no achievement satisfaction from happenstance success. Similarly, they dislike low odds (high probability of success) because then there is no challenge to their skills. They like to set goals that require stretching themselves a little. When there is an approximately equal chance of success or failure, there is the optimum opportunity to experience feelings of accomplishment and satisfaction from their efforts.

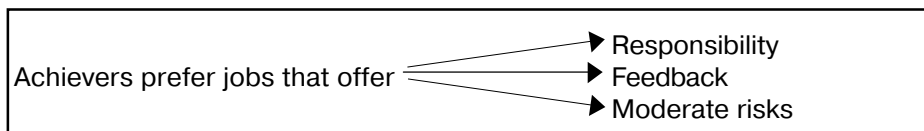
The need for power (*nPow*) is the desire to have impact, to be influential and to control others. Individuals high in *nPow* enjoy being "in charge," strive for influence over others, prefer to be placed into competitive and status oriented situations, and tend to be more concerned with prestige and gaining influence over others than with effective performance.

The third need isolated by McClelland is affiliation (*nAff*). This need has received the least attention from researchers. Affiliation can be viewed as

a Dale Carnegie-type of need — the desire to be liked and accepted by others. Individuals with a high affiliation motive strive for friendship, prefer cooperative situations rather than competitive ones, and desire relationships involving a high degree of mutual understanding.

Relying on an extensive amount of research, some reasonably well supported predictions can be made based on the relationship between achievement need and job performance. Although less research has been done on power and affiliation needs, there are consistent findings here, too.

FIGURE 3. Matching Achievers and Jobs



First, as shown in Figure 3, individuals with a high need to achieve prefer job situations with personal responsibility, feedback, and an intermediate degree of risk. When these characteristics are prevalent high achievers will be strongly motivated. The evidence consistently demonstrates, for instance, that high achievers are successful in entrepreneurial activities such as running their own businesses and managing a self contained unit within a large organization.

Second, a high need to achieve does not necessarily lead to being a good manager, especially in large organizations. People with a high achievement need are interested in how well they do personally and not in influencing others to do well. High – *nAch* salespeople do not necessarily make good sales managers, and the good general manager in a large organization does not typically have a high need to achieve.

Third, the needs for affiliation and power tend to be closely related to managerial success. The best managers are high in their need for power and low in their need for affiliation. In fact, a high power motive may be a requirement for managerial effectiveness. Of course, what is the cause and what is the effect is arguable. It has been suggested that a high power need may occur simply as a function of one's level in a hierarchical organization. The latter argument proposes that the higher the level an individual rises to in the organization, the greater is the incumbent's power motive. As a result powerful positions would be the stimulus to a high power motive.

Lastly, employees have been successfully trained to stimulate their achievement need. If the job calls for a high achiever management can select a person with a high *nAch* or develop its own candidate through achievement training.

3.3. Cognitive Evaluation Theory

In the late 1960s, one researcher proposed that the introduction of extrinsic rewards, such as pay, for work effort that had been previously intrinsically rewarding due to the pleasure associated with the content of the work itself would tend to decrease the overall level of motivation. This proposal — which has come to be called the **cognitive evaluation theory** — has been extensively researched, and a large number of studies have been supportive. As we'll show, the major implications for this theory relate to the way in which people are paid in organizations.

Historically, motivation theorists have generally assumed that intrinsic motivations such as achievement, responsibility, and competence are independent of extrinsic motivators like high pay, promotions, good supervisor relations, and pleasant working conditions. That is, the stimulation of one would not affect the other. But the cognitive evaluation theory suggests otherwise. It argues that when extrinsic rewards are used by organizations as payoffs for superior performance, the intrinsic rewards, which are derived from individuals doing what they like, are reduced. In other words, when extrinsic rewards are given to someone for performing an interesting task, it causes intrinsic interest in the task itself to decline.

Why would such an outcome occur? The popular explanation is that the individual experiences a loss of control over his or her own behavior so that the previous intrinsic motivation diminishes. Further, the elimination of extrinsic rewards can produce a shift — from an external to an internal explanation — in an individual's perception of causation of why he or she works on a task. If you're reading a novel a week because your English literature instructor requires you to, you can attribute your reading behavior to an external source. However, after the course is over, if you find yourself continuing to read a novel a week, your natural inclination is to say, "I must enjoy reading novels, because I'm still reading one a week."

If the cognitive evaluation theory is valid, it should have major implications for managerial practices. It has been a truism among compensation specialists for years that if pay or other extrinsic rewards are to be effective motivators, they should be made contingent on an individual's performance. But, cognitive evaluation theorists would argue, this will only tend to decrease the internal satisfaction that the individual receives from doing the job. We have substituted an external stimulus for an internal stimulus. In fact, if cognitive evaluation theory is correct, it would make sense to make an individual's pay *noncontingent* on performance in order to avoid decreasing intrinsic motivation.

3.4. Task Characteristics Theories

“Every day was the same thing,” Frank Greer began. “Put the right passenger seat into Jeeps as they came down the assembly line, pop in four bolts locking the seat frame to the car body, then tighten the bolts with my electric wrench. Thirty cars and 120 bolts an hour, eight hours a day. I didn’t care that they were paying me \$17 an hour, I was going crazy. I did it for almost a year and a half. Finally, I just said to my wife that this isn’t going to be the way I’m going to spend the rest of my life. My brain was turning to Jello on that job. So I quit. Now I work in a print shop and I make less than \$12 an hour. But let me tell you, the work I do is really interesting. It challenges me! I look forward every morning to going to work again.”

Frank Greer is acknowledging two facts we all know: (1) jobs are different and (2) some are more interesting and challenging than others. These facts have not gone unnoticed by OB researchers. They have responded by developing a number of **task characteristics theories** that seek to identify task characteristics of jobs, how these characteristics are combined to form different jobs, and the relationship of these task characteristics to employee motivation, satisfaction, and performance.

There are at least seven different task characteristics theories. Fortunately, there is a significant amount of overlap between them. For instance, Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory and the research on the achievement need are essentially task characteristics theories. You’ll remember that Herzberg argued that jobs that provided opportunities for achievement, recognition, responsibility, and the like would increase employee satisfaction. Similarly, McClelland demonstrated that high achievers performed best in jobs that offered personal responsibility, feedback, and moderate risks.

In this section, we’ll review the three most important task characteristics theories—requisite task attributes theory, the job characteristics model, and the social information-processing model.

REQUISITE TASK ATTRIBUTES THEORY The task characteristics approach began with the pioneering work of Turner and Lawrence in the mid-1960s. They developed a research study to assess the effect of different kinds of jobs on employee satisfaction and absenteeism. They predicted that employees would prefer jobs that were complex and challenging; that is, such jobs would increase satisfaction and result in lower absence rates. They defined job complexity in terms of six task characteristics: (1) variety; (2) autonomy; (3) responsibility; (4) knowledge and skill; (5) required social interaction; and (6) optional social interaction. The higher a job scored on these characteristics, according to Turner and Lawrence, the more complex it was.

Their findings confirmed their absenteeism prediction. Employees in high-complexity tasks had better attendance records. But they found no general correlation between task complexity and satisfaction—until they

broke their data down by the background of employees. When individual differences in the form of urban-versus-rural background were taken into account, employees from urban settings were shown to be more satisfied with low-complexity jobs. Employees with rural backgrounds reported higher satisfaction in high-complexity jobs.

Turner and Lawrence concluded that workers in larger communities had a variety of nonwork interests and thus were less involved and motivated by their work. In contrast, workers from smaller towns had fewer nonwork interests and were more receptive to the complex tasks of their jobs. Turner and Lawrence's requisite task attributes theory was important for at least three reasons. First, they demonstrated that employees did respond differently to different types of jobs. Second, they provided a preliminary set of task attributes by which jobs could be assessed. And third, they focused attention on the need to consider the influence of individual differences on employees' reaction to jobs.

THE JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL Turner and Lawrence's requisite task attributes theory laid the foundation for what is today the dominant framework for defining task characteristics and understanding their relationship to employee motivation. That is Hackman and Oldham's **job characteristics model** (JCM).

According to the JGM, any job can be described in terms of five core job dimensions, defined as follows:

- 1. Skill variety:** The degree to which the job requires a variety of different activities so the worker can use a number of different skills and talent;
- 2. Task identity:** The degree to which the job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work;
- 3. Task significance:** The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people;
- 4. Autonomy:** The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out;
- 5. Feedback:** The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the individual obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance.

Table 1 offers examples of job activities that rate high and low for each characteristic.

Figure 4 presents the model. Notice how the first three dimensions — skill variety, task identity, and task significance—combine to create meaningful work. That is, if these three characteristics exist in a job, we can predict that the incumbent will view the job as being important, valuable, and worthwhile. Notice, too, that jobs that possess autonomy give the job

incumbent a feeling of personal responsibility for the results and that, if a job provides feedback, the employee will know how effectively he or she is performing. From a motivational standpoint, the model says that internal rewards are obtained by an individual when he *learns* (knowledge of results) that he *personally* (experienced responsibility) has performed well on a task that he cares about (experienced meaningfulness). The more that these three psychological states are present, the greater will be the employee's motivation, performance, and satisfaction, and the lower his or her absenteeism and likelihood of leaving the organization. As Figure 4 shows, the links between the job dimensions and the outcomes are moderated or adjusted by the strength of the individual's growth need; that is, by the employee's desire for self-esteem and self-actualization. This means that individuals with a high growth need are more likely to experience the psychological states when their jobs are enriched than are their counterparts with a low growth need. Moreover, they will respond more positively to the psychological states when they are present than will low-growth-need individuals.

TABLE 1. Examples of High and Low Job Characteristics

Skill Variety	
High variety	The owner-operator of a garage who does electrical repair, rebuilds engines, does body work, and interacts with customers
Low variety	A body shop worker who sprays paint eight hours a day
Task Identity	
High identity	A cabinet maker who designs a piece of furniture, selects the wood builds the object, and finishes it to perfection
Low identity	A worker in a furniture factory who operates a lathe solely to make table legs
Task Significance	
High significance	Nursing the sick in a hospital intensive care unit
Low significance	Sweeping hospital floors
Autonomy	
High autonomy	A telephone installer who schedules his or her own work for the day, makes visits without supervision, and decides on the most effective techniques for a particular installation
Low autonomy	A telephone operator who must handle calls as they come according to a routine, highly specified procedure
Feedback	
High feedback	An electronics factory worker who assembles a radio and then tests it to determine if it operates properly
Low feedback	An electronics factory worker who assembles a radio and then routes it to a quality control inspector who tests it for proper operation and makes needed adjustments

The core dimensions can be combined into a single predictive index, called the **motivating potential score** (MPS) Its computation is shown in Figure 5.

Jobs that are high on motivating potential must be high on at least one of the three factors that lead to experienced meaningfulness, and they must be high on both autonomy and feedback. If jobs score high on motivating potential, the model predicts that motivation, performance, and satisfaction will be positively affected, while the likelihood of absence and turnover will be lessened.

The job characteristics model has been well researched. Most of the evidence supports the general framework of the theory—that is, there is a multiple set of job characteristics and these characteristics impact behavioral outcomes. But there is still considerable debate around the five specific core dimensions in the JCM, the multiplicative properties of the MPS, and whether other moderating variables may not be as good or better than growth-need strength.

There is some question whether task identity adds to the model's predictive ability, and there is evidence suggesting that skill variety may be redundant with autonomy. Further, a number of studies have found that by adding all the variables in the MPS, rather than adding some and multiplying by others, the MPS becomes a better predictor of work outcomes. Finally, while the strength of an individual's growth needs has been found to be a meaningful moderating variable in many studies, other variables — such as the presence or absence of social cues, perceived equity with comparison groups, and propensity to assimilate work experience — have also been found to moderate the job characteristics outcome relationship. Given the current state of research on moderating variables, one should be cautious in unequivocally accepting growth-need strength as originally included in the JCM.

Where does this leave us? Given the current state of evidence, we can make the following statements with relative confidence: (1) People who work on jobs with high-core job dimensions are generally more motivated, satisfied, and productive than are those who do not. (2) Job dimensions operate through the psychological states in influencing personal and work outcome variables rather than influencing them directly.

SOCIAL INFORMATION-PROCESSING MODEL At the beginning of this section on task characteristics theories, do you remember Frank Greer complaining about his former job on the Jeep assembly line? Would it surprise you to know that one of Frank's best friends, Russ Wright, is still working at Jeep, doing the same job that Frank did, and that Russ thinks his job is perfectly fine? Probably not! Why? Because, we recognize that people can look at the same job and evaluate it differently. The fact that people respond to their jobs *as they perceive them* rather than to the objective jobs themselves is the central thesis in our third task characteristics theory. It's called the **social information-processing (SIP) model**.

The SIP model argues that employees adopt attitudes and behaviors in response to the social cues provided by others with whom they have contact. These others can be co-workers, supervisors, friends, family members, or customers. For instance, Gary Ling got a summer job working in a British Columbia sawmill. Since jobs were scarce and this one paid particularly well, Gary arrived on his first day of work highly motivated. Two weeks later, however, his motivation was quite low. What happened was that his co-workers consistently bad-mouthed their jobs. They said the work was boring, that having to clock in and out proved management didn't trust them, and that supervisors never listened to their opinions. The objective characteristics of Gary's job had not changed in the two-week period; rather, Gary had reconstructed reality based on messages he had gotten from others.

FIGURE 4. The Job Characteristics Model

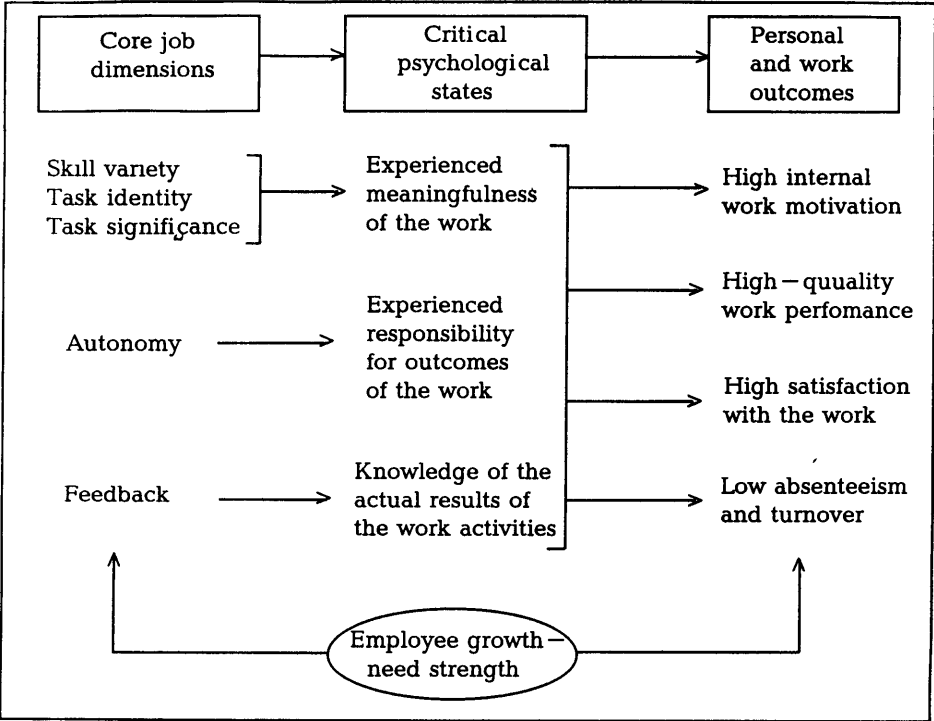


FIGURE 5. Computing a Motivation Potential Score

$$\text{Motivating Potential Score(MPS)} = \left[\frac{\text{Skill variety} + \text{Task significance} + \text{Task identity}}{3} \right] \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Feedback}$$

3.5. Goal-Setting Theory

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

You’ve heard the phrase a number of times yourself: “Just do your best. That’s all anyone can ask for.” But what does “do your best” mean? Do we ever know if we’ve achieved that vague goal? Would the cross-country runners have recorded faster times if Coach Broadwater had given each a specific goal to shoot for? Might you have done better in your high school English class if your parents had said, “You should strive for eighty-five percent or higher on all your work in English” rather than telling you to “do your best”? The research on **goal setting** addresses these issues, and the findings, as you will see, are impressive in terms of the impact specific and challenging goals have on performance.

In the late 1960s, Edwin Locke proposed that intentions to work toward a goal are a major source of work motivation. That is, goals tell an employee what needs to be done and how much effort will need to be expended. The evidence strongly supports the value of goals. More to the point, we can say that specific goals increase performance; that difficult goals, when accepted, result in higher performance than do easy goals; and that feedback leads to higher performance than does nonfeedback.

If factors like ability and acceptance of the goals are held constant, we can also state that the more difficult the goal, the higher the level of performance. However, it’s logical to assume that easier goals are more likely to be accepted. But once an employee accepts a hard task, he or she will exert a high level of effort until it is achieved, lowered, or abandoned.

People will do better when they get feedback on how well they are progressing toward their goals, because feedback helps to identify discrepancies between what they have done and what they want to do; that is

feedback acts to guide behavior. But all feedback is not equally potent. Self-generated feedback—where the employee is able to monitor his or her own progress—has been shown to be a more powerful motivator than externally generated feedback.

If employees have the opportunity to participate in the setting of their own goals, will they try harder? The evidence is mixed regarding the superiority of participative over assigned goals. In some cases, participatively set goals elicited superior performance, while in other cases, individuals performed best when assigned goals by their boss. But a major advantage of participation may be in increasing acceptance of the goal itself as a desirable one to work toward. As we noted, resistance is greater when goals are difficult. If people participate in goal setting, they are more likely to accept even a difficult goal than if they are arbitrarily assigned it by their boss. The reason is that individuals are more committed to choices in which they have a part. Thus, although participative goals may have no superiority over assigned goals when acceptance is taken as a given, participation does increase the probability that more difficult goals will be agreed to and acted upon.

Are there any contingencies in goal-setting theory or can we take it as a universal truth that difficult and specific goals will always lead to higher performance? In addition to feedback, two other factors have been found to influence the goals-performance relationship. These are goal commitment and adequate self-efficacy. Goal-setting theory presupposes that an individual is committed to the goal; that is, is determined not to lower or abandon the goal. This is most likely to occur when goals are made public, when the individual has an internal locus of control, and when the goals are self-set rather than assigned. **Self-efficacy** refers to an individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing a task. The higher your self-efficacy, the more confidence you have in your ability to succeed in a task. So, in difficult situations, we find that people with low self-efficacy are more likely to lessen their effort or give up altogether, while those with high self-efficacy will try harder to master the challenge. In addition, individuals high in self-efficacy seem to respond to negative feedback with increased effort and motivation, whereas those low in self-efficacy are likely to lessen their effort when given negative feedback.

Our overall conclusion is that intentions — as articulated in terms of hard and specific goals — are a potent motivating force. They can lead to higher performance. However, there is no evidence that such goals are associated with increased job satisfaction.

3.6. Reinforcement Theory

A counterpoint to goal-setting theory is **reinforcement theory**. The former is a cognitive approach, proposing that an individual's purposes direct his or her action. In reinforcement theory, we have a behavioristic approach, which argues that reinforcement conditions behavior. The two are clearly at odds philosophically. Reinforcement theorists see behavior as being environmentally caused. You need not be concerned, they would argue, with internal cognitive events; what controls behavior are reinforcers—any consequence that, when immediately following a response, increases the probability that the behavior will be repeated.

Reinforcement theory ignores the inner state of the individual and concentrates solely on what happens to a person when he or she takes some action. Because it does not concern itself with what initiates behavior, it is not, strictly speaking, a theory of motivation. But it does provide a powerful means of analysis of what controls behavior, and it is for this reason that it is typically considered in discussions of motivation.

3.7. Equity Theory

Jane Pearson graduated last year from the State University with a degree in accounting. After interviews with a number of organizations on campus, she accepted a position with one of the nation's largest public accounting firms and was assigned to their Boston office. Jane was very pleased with the offer she received: challenging work with a prestigious firm, an excellent opportunity to gain important experience, and the highest salary any accounting major at State was offered last year—\$2600 a month. But Jane was the top student in her class; she was ambitious and articulate and fully expected to receive a commensurate salary.

Twelve months have passed since Jane joined her employer. The work has proved to be as challenging and satisfying as she had hoped. Her employer is extremely pleased with her performance; in fact, she recently received a \$200-a-month raise. However, Jane's motivational level has dropped dramatically in the past few weeks. Why? Her employer has just hired a fresh college graduate out of State University, who lacks the one-year experience Jane has gained, for \$2850 a month—\$50 more than Jane now makes! It would be an understatement to describe Jane in any other terms than livid. Jane is even talking about looking for another job.

Jane's situation illustrates the role that equity plays in motivation. Employees make comparisons of their job inputs and outcomes relative to those of others. We perceive what we get from a job situation (outcomes) in relation to what we put into it (inputs), and then we compare our outcome input ratio with the outcome-input ratio of relevant others. This is shown in

Table 2. If we perceive our ratio to be equal to that of the relevant others with whom we compare ourselves, a state of equity is said to exist. We perceive our situation as fair — that justice prevails. When we see the ratio as unequal, we experience equity tension. J. Stacy Adams has proposed that this negative tension state provides the motivation to do something to correct it.

TABLE 2. Equity Theory

Ratio Comparisons Perception

$O/Ia < O/Ib$	Inequity due to being underrewarded
$O/Ia = O/Ib$	Equity
$O/Ia > O/Ib$	Inequity due to being overrewarded

Where O/Ia — represents the employee and O/Ib — represents relevant others

The referent that an employee selects adds to the complexity of **equity theory**. Evidence indicates that the referent chosen is an important variable in equity theory. There are four referent comparisons that an employee can use:

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

So employees might compare themselves to friends, neighbors, co-workers, colleagues in other organizations, or past jobs they themselves have had. Which referent an employee chooses will be influenced by the information the employee holds about referents as well as by the attractiveness of the referent. This has led to focusing on three moderating variables — the employee’s salary level, amount of education, and length of tenure. Employees with higher salaries and more education tend to be more cosmopolitan and have better information; thus, they’re more likely to make comparisons with outsiders. Employees with short tenure in their current organization tend to have little information about others inside the organization, so they rely on their own personal experiences. On the other hand, employees with long tenure rely more heavily on co-workers for comparisons.

Based on equity theory, when employees perceive an inequity they can be predicted to make one of six choices:

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

Equity theory recognizes that individuals are concerned not only with the absolute amount of rewards they receive for their efforts, but also with the relationship of this amount to what others receive. They make judgments as to the relationship between their inputs and outcomes and the inputs and outcomes of others. Based on one's inputs, such as effort, experience, education, and competence, one compares outcomes such as salary levels, raises, recognition, and other factors. When people perceive an imbalance in their outcome-input ratio relative to others, tension is created. This tension provides the basis for motivation, as people strive for what they perceive as equity and fairness.

Specifically, the theory establishes four propositions relating to inequitable pay:

1. *Given payment by time, overrewarded employees will produce more than will equitably paid employees.* Hourly and salaried employees will generate high quantity or quality of production in order to increase the input side of the ratio and bring about equity.
2. *Given payment by quantity of production, overrewarded employees will produce fewer, but higher-quality, units than will equitably paid employees.* Individuals paid on a piece-rate basis will increase their effort to achieve equity, which can result in greater quality or quantity. However, increases in quantity will only increase inequity since every unit produced results in further overpayment. Therefore, effort is directed toward increasing quality rather than increasing quantity.
3. *Given payment by time, underrewarded employees will produce less or poorer quality of output.* Effort will be decreased, which will bring about lower productivity or poorer-quality output than equitably paid subjects.

4. *Given payment by quantity of production, underrewarded employees will produce a large number of low-quality units in comparison with equitably paid employees.* Employees on piece-rate pay plans can bring about equity because trading off quality of output for quantity will result in an increase in rewards with little or no increase in contributions.

These propositions have generally been supported, with a few minor qualifications. First, inequities created by overpayment do not seem to have a very significant impact on behavior in most work situations. Apparently, people have a great deal more tolerance of overpayment inequities than of underpayment inequities, or are better able to rationalize them. Second, not all people are equity-sensitive. For example, there is a small part of the working population who actually prefer that their outcome-input ratio be less than the referent comparison. Predictions from equity theory are not likely to be very accurate with these “benevolent types.”

It’s also important to note that while most research on equity theory has focused on pay, employees seem to look for equity in the distribution of other organizational rewards. For instance, it’s been shown that the use of high-status job titles as well as large and lavishly furnished offices may function as outcomes for some employees in their equity equation.

In conclusion, equity theory demonstrates that, for most employees, motivation is influenced significantly by relative rewards as well as by absolute rewards. But some key issues are still unclear. For instance, how do employees handle conflicting equity signals, such as when unions point to other employee groups who are substantially *better off*, while management argues how much things have *improved*? How do employees define inputs and outcomes? How do they combine and weigh their inputs and outcomes to arrive at totals? When and how do the factors change over time? Yet, regardless of these problems, equity theory continues to offer us some important insights into employee motivation.

4. EXPECTANCY THEORY

Currently, one of the most widely accepted explanations of motivation is Victor Vroom’s **expectancy theory**. Although it has its critics, most of the research evidence is supportive of the theory.

Essentially, the expectancy theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual. It includes three variables or relationships.

1. **Attractiveness:** The importance that the individual places on the potential outcome or reward that can be achieved on the job. This

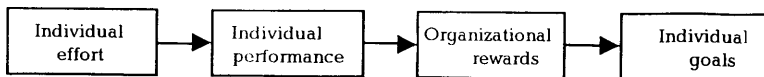
considers the unsatisfied needs of the individual.

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

While this may sound pretty complex, it really is not that difficult to visualize. Whether one has the desire to produce at any given time depends on one's particular goals and one's perception of the relative worth of performance as a path to the attainment of these goals.

Figure 6 is a considerable simplification of expectancy theory, but it expresses its major contentions. The strength of a person's motivation to perform (effort) depends on how strongly he or she believes that he or she can achieve attempted tasks. If the person achieves this goal (performance), will he or she be adequately rewarded and, if rewarded by the organization, will the reward satisfy the person's individual goals? Let us consider the four steps inherent in the theory.

FIGURE 6. Simplified Expectancy Model



First, what perceived outcomes does the job offer the employee? Outcomes may be positive: pay, security, companionship, trust, fringe benefits, a chance to use talent or skills, congenial relationships. On the other hand, employees may view the outcomes as negative: fatigue, boredom, frustration, anxiety, harsh supervision, threat of dismissal. Importantly, reality is not relevant here; the critical issue is what the individual employee *perceives* the outcome to be, regardless of whether or not his or her perceptions are accurate.

Second, how attractive do employees consider these outcomes? Are they valued positively, negatively, or neutrally? This obviously is an internal issue to the individual and considers his or her personal values, personality, and needs. The individual who finds a particular outcome attractive—that is, positively valued—would prefer attaining it to not attaining it. Others may find it negative and, therefore, prefer not attaining it to attaining it. Still others may be neutral.

Third, what kind of behavior must the employee produce in order to achieve these outcomes? The outcomes are not likely to have any effect on the individual employee's performance unless the employee knows, clearly and unambiguously, what he or she must do in order to achieve them. For

example, what is “doing well” in terms of performance appraisal? What are the criteria the employee’s performance will be judged on?

Fourth and last, how does the employee view his or her chances of doing what is asked? After the employee has considered his or her own competencies and ability to control those variables that will determine success, what probability does he or she place on successful attainment?

The key to expectancy theory, therefore, is the understanding of an individual’s goals and the linkage between effort and performance, between performance and rewards, and, finally, between the rewards and individual goal satisfaction. As a contingency model, expectancy theory recognizes that there is no universal principle for explaining everyone’s motivations. Additionally, just because we understand what needs a person seeks to satisfy does not ensure that the individual himself perceives high performance as necessarily leading to the satisfaction of these needs.

A popular, although arguably simplistic, way of thinking about employee performance is as a function of the interaction of ability and motivation; that is, $\text{performance} = f(A * M)$. If either is inadequate, performance will be negatively affected. This helps to explain, for instance, the hardworking athlete or student with modest abilities who consistently outperforms his or her more gifted, but lazy, rival. So, as we have already noted, an individual’s intelligence and skills (subsumed under the label “ability”) must be considered in addition to motivation if we are to be able to accurately explain and predict employee performance. But a piece of the puzzle is still missing. We need to add **opportunity to perform** to our equation — $\text{performance} = f(A * M * O)$. Even though an individual may be willing and able, there may be obstacles that constrain performance.

When you attempt to assess why an employee may not be performing to the level that you believe he or she is capable of, take a look at the work environment to see if it’s supportive. Does the employee have adequate tools, equipment, materials, and supplies; does the employee have favorable working conditions, helpful co-workers, supportive rules and procedures to work under, adequate time to do a good job, and the like? If not, performance will suffer.

5. IMPLICATIONS FOR PERFORMANCE AND SATISFACTION

The theories we’ve discussed in this chapter do not all address our four dependent variables. Some, for instance, are directed at explaining turnover, while others emphasize productivity. The theories also differ in their predictive strength. In this section, we’ll (1) review the key motivation theories to determine their relevance in explaining our dependent variables, and (2) assess the predictive power of each.

NEED THEORIES We introduced four theories that focused on needs. These were Maslow's hierarchy, motivation-hygiene, ERG, and McClelland's needs theories. The strongest of these is probably the last, particularly regarding the relationship between achievement and productivity. If the other three have any value at all, that value relates to explaining and predicting job satisfaction.

TASK CHARACTERISTICS THEORIES The job characteristics model addresses all four dependent variables. Based on the evidence, we should expect that individuals with a high growth need—which probably includes an increasingly larger proportion of the work force today than in past generations because of increasing educational levels and technical job requirements—will be both high performers and satisfied when their jobs offer skill variety, task identity and significance, autonomy, and feedback.

GOAL-SETTING THEORY There is little dispute that clear and difficult goals lead to higher levels of employee productivity. This evidence leads us to conclude that goal-setting theory provides one of the more powerful explanations of this dependent variable. The theory, however, does not address absenteeism, turnover, or satisfaction.

REINFORCEMENT THEORY This theory has an impressive record for predicting factors like quality and quantity of work, persistence of effort, absenteeism, tardiness, and accident rates. It does not offer much insight into employee satisfaction or the decision to quit.

EQUITY THEORY Equity theory deals with all four dependent variables. However, it is strongest when predicting absence and turnover behaviors and weak when predicting differences in employee productivity.

EXPECTANCY THEORY Our final theory focused on performance variables. It has proved to offer a relatively powerful explanation of employee productivity, absenteeism, and turnover. But expectancy theory assumes that employees have few constraints on their decision discretion. It makes many of the same assumptions that the optimizing model makes about individual decision making. This acts to restrict its applicability.

For major decisions, like accepting or resigning from a job, expectancy theory works well, because people don't rush into decisions of this nature. They're more prone to take the time to carefully consider the costs and benefits of all the alternatives. But expectancy theory is *not* a very good explanation for more typical types of work behavior, especially for individuals in lower-level jobs, because such jobs come with considerable limitations imposed by work methods, supervisors, and company policies. We would conclude, therefore, that expectancy theory's power in explaining employee productivity increases where the jobs being performed are more complex and higher in the organization (where discretion is greater).

6. MOTIVATION: FROM CONCEPTS TO APPLICATIONS

MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES

Goal setting theory has an impressive base of research support. But as a manager, how do you make goal setting operational? The best answer to that question is Install a management by objectives (MBO) program.

6.1. What Is MBO?

Management by objectives emphasizes participatively set goals that are tangible, verifiable, and measurable. It's not a new idea. In fact, it was originally proposed by Peter Drucker more than thirty five years ago as a means of using goals to motivate people rather than to control them. Today, no introduction to basic management concepts would be complete without a discussion of MBO.

MBO's appeal undoubtedly lies in its emphasis on converting overall organizational objectives into specific objectives for organizational units and individual members. MBO operationalizes the concept of objectives by devising a process by which objectives cascade down through the organization. As depicted in Figure 7, the organization's overall objectives are translated into specific objectives for each succeeding level (that is divisional, departmental, individual) in the organization. But because lower unit managers jointly participate in setting their own goals, MBO works from the "bottom up" as well as from the "top down". The result is a hierarchy of objectives that links objectives at one level to those at the next level. And for the individual employee, MBO provides specific personal performance objectives. Each person, therefore, has an identified specific contribution to make to his or her unit's performance. If all the individuals achieve their goals, then their unit's goals will be attained and the organization's overall objectives become a reality.

There are four ingredients common to MBO programs. These are goal specificity, participative decision making, an explicit time period, and performance feedback.

The objectives in MBO should be concise statements of expected accomplishments. It's not adequate, for example, to merely state a desire to cut costs, improve service, or increase quality. Such desires have to be converted into tangible objectives that can be measured and evaluated. To cut departmental costs *by seven percent*, to improve service by ensuring that all telephone orders are processed *within twenty four hours of receipt*, or to increase quality by keeping returns to *less than one percent of sales* are examples of specific objectives.

The objectives in MBO are not unilaterally set by the boss and then assigned to subordinates. MBO replaces imposed goals with participatively determined goals. The superior and subordinate jointly choose the goals and agree on how they will be measured.

Each objective has a specific time period in which it is to be completed. Typically the time period is three months, six months, or a year. So managers and subordinates not only have specific objectives, but also stipulated time periods in which to accomplish them.

The final ingredient in an MBO program is feedback on performance. MBO seeks to give continuous feedback on progress toward goals. Ideally, this is accomplished by giving ongoing feedback to individuals so they can monitor and correct their own actions. This is supplemented by periodic managerial evaluations when progress is reviewed. This applies at the top of the organization as well as at the bottom. The vice president of sales for instance has objectives for overall sales and for each of his or her major products. He or she will monitor ongoing sales reports to determine progress toward the sales division's objectives. Similarly, district sales managers have objectives as does each salesperson in the field. Feedback in terms of sales and performance data is provided to let these people know how they are doing. Formal appraisal meetings also take place at which superiors and subordinates can review progress toward goals and further feedback can be provided.

Goal-setting theory demonstrates that hard goals result in a higher level of individual performance than do easy goals, that specific hard goals result in higher levels of performance than do no goals at all or the generalized goal of "do your best," and that feedback on one's performance leads to higher performance. Compare these findings with MBO.

MBO directly advocates specific goals and feedback. MBO implies, rather than explicitly states, that goals must be perceived as feasible. Consistent with goal setting, MBO would be most effective when the goals are difficult enough to require the person to do some stretching.

6.2. Linking MBO and Goal-Setting Theory

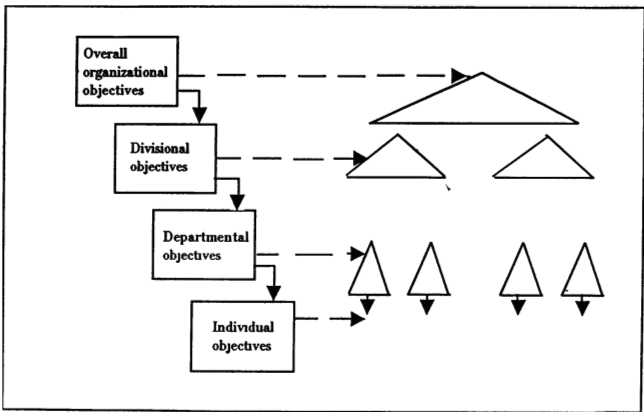
The only area of possible disagreement between MBO and goal-setting theory relates to the issue of participation—MBO strongly advocates it, while goal setting demonstrates that assigning goals to subordinates frequently works just as well. The major benefit to using participation, however, is that it appears to induce individuals to establish more difficult goals.

6.3. MBO in Practice

How widely used is MBO? Reviews of studies that have sought to answer this question suggest that it's a popular technique. Among large

organizations—in business and in the public sector—probably half currently have a formal MBO program or had one at some time.

FIGURE 7. Cascading of Objectives



MBO’s popularity should not be construed to mean that it always works. There are a number of documented cases where MBO has been implemented but failed to meet management’s expectations. A close look at these cases, however, indicates that the problems rarely lie with MBO’s basic components. Rather, the culprits tend to be factors such as unrealistic expectations regarding results, lack of top-management commitment, and an inability or unwillingness by management to allocate rewards based on goal accomplishment. Nevertheless, MBO provides managers with the vehicle for implementing goal-setting theory.

7. BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION

7.1. What Is OB Mod?

The typical OB Mod program, as shown in Figure 8, follows a five-step problem-solving model: (1) identification of performance-related behaviors (2) measurement of the behaviors; (3) identification of behavioral contingencies; (4) development and implementation of an intervention strategy; and (5) evaluation of performance improvement.

Everything an employee does on his or her job is not equally important in terms of performance outcomes. The first step in OB Mod, therefore, is to identify the critical behaviors that make a significant impact on the employee’s job performance. These are those five to ten percent of behaviors

that may account for up to seventy or eighty percent of each employee's performance. Using containers whenever possible by freight packers at Emery Air Freight is an example of a critical behavior.

The second step requires the manager to develop some baseline performance data. This is obtained by determining the number of times the identified behavior is occurring under present conditions. In our freight packing example at Emery, this would have revealed that forty-five percent of all shipments were containerized.

The third step is to perform a functional analysis to identify the behavioral contingencies or consequences of performance. This tells the manager the antecedent cues that emit the behavior and the consequences that are currently maintaining it. At Emery Air Freight, social norms and the greater difficulty in packing containers were the antecedent cues. This encouraged the practice of packing items separately. Moreover, the consequences for continuing this behavior, prior to the OB Mod intervention, were social acceptance and escaping more demanding work.

Once the functional analysis is complete, the manager is ready to develop and implement an intervention strategy to strengthen desirable performance behaviors and weaken undesirable behaviors. The appropriate strategy will entail changing some element of the performance-reward linkage—structure, processes, technology, groups, or the task—with the goal of making high-level performance more rewarding. In the Emery example, the work technology was altered to require the keeping of a checklist. The checklist plus the computation, at the end of the day, of a container utilization rate acted to reinforce the desirable behavior of using containers.

The final step in OB Mod is to evaluate performance improvement. In the Emery intervention, the immediate improvement in the container utilization rate demonstrated that behavioral change took place. That it rose to ninety percent and held at that level further indicates that learning took place. That is, the employees underwent a relatively permanent change in behavior.

7.2. Linking OB Mod and Reinforcement Theory

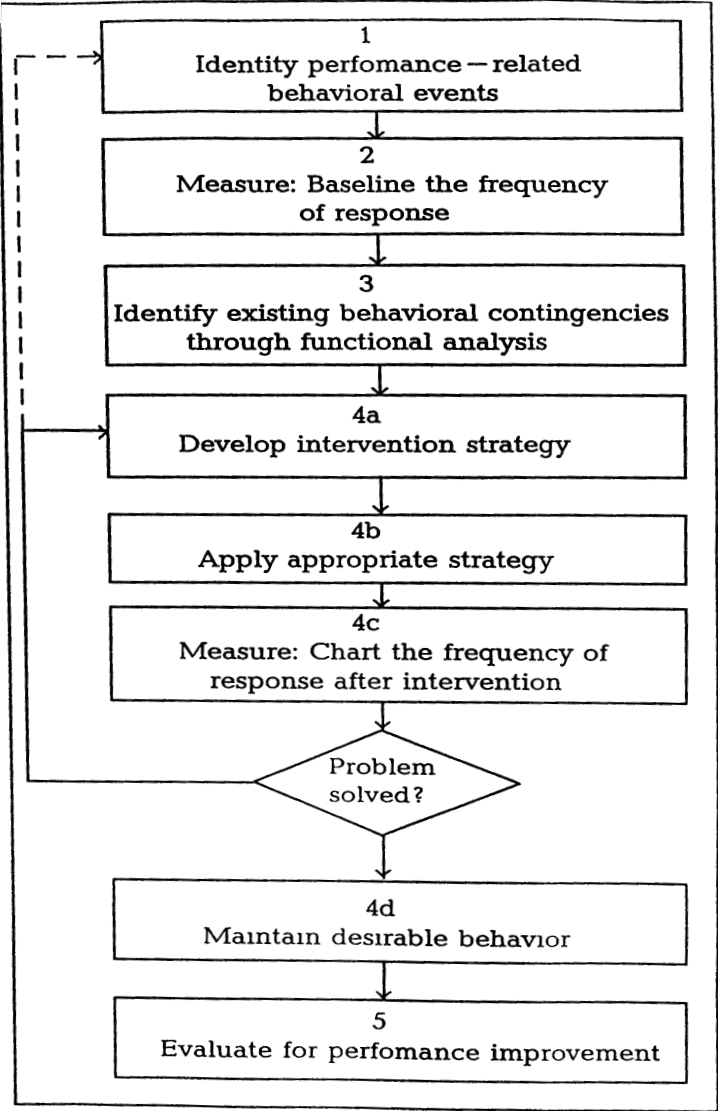
Reinforcement theory relies on positive reinforcement, shaping, and recognizing the impact of different schedules of reinforcement on behavior. OB Mod uses these concepts to provide managers with a powerful and proven means for changing employee behavior.

7.3. OB Mod in Practice

OB Mod has been used by a number of organizations to improve employee productivity and to reduce errors, absenteeism, tardiness, and

accident rates. Organizations like General Electric, Weyerhaeuser, the city of Detroit, Dayton-Hudson Stores, and Xerox report impressive results using OB Mod. For instance, in 1987, frustrated by customer complaints, Xerox's top management changed the basis for its executive bonus plan from traditional quotas to long-term customer satisfaction. The company surveys

FIGURE 8. Steps in OB Mod



forty thousand customers world-wide every month to determine the percentage who are satisfied with Xerox products and service. At the start of each year, top management looks at the previous year's results and develops a goal. In 1990, the target was ninety percent satisfaction, up from eighty-six percent at the start of 1989. By 1992, Xerox aimed to hit one hundred percent.

8. PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT

8.1. What Is Participative Management?

The preceding are examples of **participative management**. The common thread through these examples is joint decision making. That is, subordinates actually share a significant degree of decision making power with their immediate superiors. But in actual practice, participative management is an umbrella term that encompasses such varied activities as goal setting, problem solving, direct involvement in work decisions, inclusion in consultation committees, representation on policy making bodies, and selecting new co-workers.

Participative management has, at times, been promoted as a panacea for poor morale and low productivity. One author has even argued that participative management is an ethical imperative. But participative management is not appropriate for every organization or every work unit. For it to work, there must be adequate time to participate, the issues in which employees get involved must be relevant to their interests, employees must have the ability (intelligence, technical knowledge, communication skills) to participate, and the organization's culture must support employee involvement.

Why would management want to share its decision-making power with subordinates? There are a number of good reasons. As jobs have become more complex, managers often don't know everything their employees do. So participation allows those who know the most to contribute. The result can be better decisions. The interdependence in tasks that employees often do today also requires consultation with people in other departments and work units. This increases the need for committees and group meetings to resolve issues that affect them jointly. Participation additionally increases commitment to decisions. People are less likely to undermine a decision at the time of its implementation if they shared in making that decision. Finally, participation provides intrinsic rewards for employees. It can make their jobs more interesting and meaningful. This has become an increasing concern of younger and more highly educated workers.

8.2. Quality Circles

Currently, the most widely discussed form of participative management is the **quality circle**. Originally begun in the United States and exported to Japan in the 1950s the quality circle has been imported back to the United States. As it developed in Japan, the quality circle concept is frequently mentioned as one of the techniques that Japanese firms utilize that has allowed them to make high quality products at low costs.

What is a quality circle? It's a work group of eight to ten employees and supervisors who have a shared area of responsibility. They meet regularly — typically once a week, on company time and on company premises—to discuss their quality problems investigate causes of the problems, recommend solutions, and take corrective actions. They take over the responsibility for solving quality problems, and they generate and evaluate their own feed back. But management typically retains control over the final decision regarding implementation of recommended solutions. Of course, it is not presumed that employees inherently have this ability to analyze and solve quality problems. Therefore, part of the quality circle concept includes teaching participating employees group communication skills, various quality strategies, and measurement and problem analysis techniques. Figure 9 describes a typical quality circle process.

8.3. Linking Participation and Motivation Theories

Participative management draws on a number of the motivation theories discussed in the previous chapter. For instance, theory Y is consistent with participative management, while Theory X aligns with the more traditional autocratic style of managing people. In terms of motivation-hygiene theory, participative management could provide employees with intrinsic motivation by increasing opportunities for growth, responsibility, and involvement in the work itself. Similarly, the process of making and implementing a decision, and then seeing it work out, can help satisfy an employee's needs for responsibility, achievement, recognition, growth, and enhanced self-esteem. So participative management is compatible with ERG theory and efforts to stimulate the achievement need.

9. PERFORMANCE-BASED COMPENSATION

9.1. What Is Performance-Based Compensation?

Piece-rate pay plans, wage incentive plans, profit-sharing, and lump-sum bonuses are all forms of **performance-based compensation**. What

differentiates these forms of pay from more traditional plans is that instead of paying a person for *time* on the job, their pay is adjusted to reflect some performance measure. That might be individual productivity, work group or departmental productivity, unit profitability, or the overall organization's profit performance. Two of the more widely used of the performance-based compensation plans are piece-rate wages for production workers and annual performance bonuses based on corporate profits for senior executives.

In **piece-rate pay plans**, workers are paid a fixed sum for each unit of production completed. When an employee gets no base salary and is paid only for what he or she produces, this is a pure piece-rate plan. People who work ball parks selling peanuts and soda pop frequently are paid this way. They might get to keep twenty-five cents for every bag of peanuts they sell. If they sell two hundred bags during a game, they make \$50. If they sell only forty bags, their take is a mere \$10. The harder they work and the more peanuts they sell, the more they earn. Many organizations use a modified piece-rate plan, where employees earn a base hourly wage plus a piece-rate differential. So a legal typist might be paid \$6 an hour plus twenty cents per page. Such modified plans provide a floor under an employee's earnings, while still offering a productivity incentive.

For years, senior corporate executives received regular increases in their pay, regardless of their company's success or failure. More top executives than ever are now finding their compensation linked directly to corporate performance. When things go well for a firm, it is assumed that management had a large part in that outcome, so they should share in the good times. For example, Charles Lazarus, chairman of Toys 'R' Us Inc., earns a base salary of \$315,000 a year. Because his contract provides him an annual performance bonus of one percent of all pretax profits over \$18 million, and because the company's 1990 income was a healthy \$326 million, Lazarus pocketed over \$3 million in performance pay that year. Of course, in a bad year, executives may get no bonus at all.

9.2. Linking Performance-Based Compensation and Expectancy Theory

Performance-based compensation is probably most compatible with expectancy theory predictions. Specifically, individuals should perceive a strong relationship between their performance and the rewards they receive if motivation is to be maximized. If rewards are allocated completely on nonperformance factors — such as seniority or job title — then employees are likely to reduce their effort.

The evidence supports the importance of this linkage, especially for operative employees working under piece-rate systems. For example, one

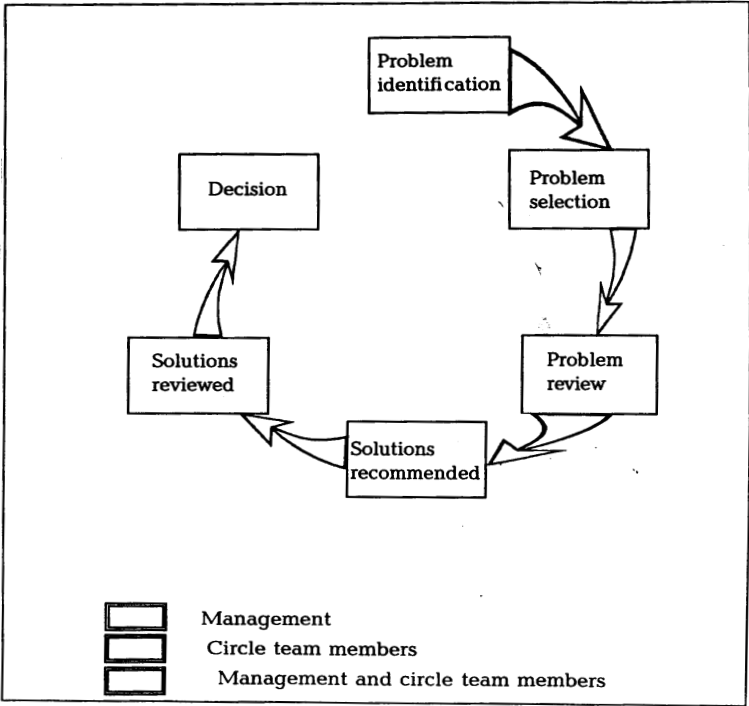
study of four hundred manufacturing firms found that those companies with wage incentive plans achieved forty-three to sixty-four percent greater productivity than those without such plans.

9.3. Performance-Based Compensation in Practice

“Pay-for-performance” is a concept that is rapidly replacing the annual cost-of-living raise. One reason, as cited above, is its motivational power — but don’t ignore the cost implications. Bonuses and other incentive rewards avoid the fixed expense of permanent salary boosts.

Corporate America seems to have gotten this message. In 1991, thirtyfive percent of the Fortune 500 companies had some form of pay-for-performance program — up from only seven percent ten years earlier. Table 3, based on a national survey of 435 U.S. companies, demonstrates which programs are most popular.

FIGURE 9. How a Typical Quality Circle Operates



Among firms that haven't introduced performance-based compensation programs, common concerns tend to surface. Managers fret over what should constitute performance and how it should be measured. They have to overcome the historical attachment to cost-of-living adjustments and the belief that they have an obligation to keep all employees' pay in step with inflation. Other barriers include salary scales keyed to what the competition is paying, traditional compensation systems that rely heavily on specific pay grades and relatively narrow pay ranges, and performance appraisal practices that produce inflated evaluations and expectations of full rewards. Of course, from the employees' standpoint, the major concern is a potential drop in earnings. Pay-for-performance means employees have to share in the risk as well as the rewards of their employer's business. So, for example, workers at a Monsanto plant in Idaho that mines and refines phosphorus earned more than \$1800 each in performance bonuses in 1989, but only \$255 in 1990, when the facility had to shut two of its three furnaces for extended maintenance and the economy stumbled into recession.

TABLE 3. Pay-for-Performance in Practice (Based on a Survey of 435 U.S. Companies)

Program	Percentage of Companies That Use the Program
Individual incentive	35*
Payment is directly related to the meeting of individual goals	
Lump-sum payment	32
A one-time reward based on individual performance	
Exceptional stock options	29
Grants of stock or stock options to nonmanagement employees	
Profit sharing	19
A uniform payment given to all or most employees based on corporate earnings	
Gainsharing	13
Rewards, shared equally by employees, for productivity and efficiency gains in a unit or organization	
Small-group incentive	12
A one-time award to all members of a group for achievement of predetermined goals	

* Percentage totals more than 100 since some companies use more than one plan.

10. FLEXIBLE BENEFITS

10.1 What Are Flexible Benefits?

Flexible benefits allow employees to pick and choose from among a menu of benefit options. The idea is to allow each employee to choose a benefit package that is individually tailored to his or her own needs and situation. It replaces the traditional “one-benefit-plan-fits-all” programs that have dominated organizations for fifty years.

The average organization provides fringe benefits worth approximately forty percent of an employee's salary. But traditional benefit programs were designed for the typical employee of the 1950s — a male with a wife and two children at home. Less than ten percent of employees now fit this stereotype. Twenty-five percent of today's employees are single and a third are part of two-income families without any children. As such, these traditional programs don't tend to meet the needs of today's more diverse work force. Flexible benefits, however, do meet these diverse needs. An organization sets up a flexible spending account for each employee, usually based on some percentage of his or her salary, and then a price tag is put on each benefit. Options might include inexpensive medical plans with high deductibles; expensive medical plans with low or no deductibles; hearing, dental, and eye coverage; vacation options; extended disability; a variety of savings and pension plans; life insurance; college tuition reimbursement plans; and extended vacation time. Employees then select benefit options until they have spent the dollar amount in their account.

10.2. Linking Flexible Benefits and Expectancy Theory

Giving all employees the same benefits assumes all employees have the same needs. Of course, we know this assumption is false. So flexible benefits turn the benefits' expenditure into a motivator.

Consistent with expectancy theory's thesis that organizational rewards should be linked to each individual employee's goals, flexible benefits individualize rewards by allowing each employee to choose the compensation package that best satisfies his or her current needs. That flexible benefits can turn the traditional homogeneous benefit program into a motivator was demonstrated at one company: Eighty percent of the organization's employees changed their benefit packages when a flexible plan was put into effect.

11. COMPARABLE WORTH

11.1. What Is Comparable Worth?

Comparable worth is a doctrine that holds that jobs equal in value to an organization should be equally compensated, whether or not the work content of those jobs is similar. That is, if the positions of secretary and draftsman (historically viewed as female and male jobs, respectively) require similar skills and make comparable demands on employees, they should pay the same, regardless of external market factors. Specifically, comparable worth argues that jobs should be evaluated and scored on four criteria-skill, effort, responsibility, and working conditions. The criteria should be weighted and given points, with the points then used to value and compare jobs.

Comparable worth is a controversial idea. It assumes that totally dissimilar jobs can be accurately compared, that pay rates based on supply and demand factors in the job market are frequently inequitable and discriminatory, and that job classes can be identified and objectively rated.

11.2. Comparable Worth and Equity Theory

Comparable worth expands the notion of “equal pay for equal work” to include jobs that are dissimilar but of comparable value. As such, it is a direct application of equity theory.

As long as women in traditionally lower-paid, female-dominated jobs compare themselves solely to other women in female-dominated jobs, they are unlikely to perceive gender-based pay inequities. But when other referents are chosen, inequities often become quickly evident. This is because “women’s” jobs have been historically devalued. Take the following case. You went to a university for six years, earned a masters of library science degree, and over the past four years have taken on increased responsibilities as a reference librarian for a public library in the city of Seattle. Your current pay is \$2460 a month. Your younger brother also works for the city of Seattle, but as a driver on a sanitation truck. He’s a high school graduate with no college education and has also held his job for four years. He makes \$2625 a month. If you were that librarian, wouldn’t you be likely to compare your pay to your brother’s and to conclude that you were being underpaid?

To the degree that job classes reflect historical gender discrimination and create pay inequities, comparable worth provides a potential remedy. For women in these discriminated job classes, the application of the comparable worth concept should reduce inequities and increase work motivation.

12. ALTERNATIVE WORK SCHEDULES

12.1. What Are Alternative Work Schedules?

Most people work an eight-hour day, five days a week. They start at a fixed time and leave at a fixed time. But a number of organizations have introduced alternative work schedule options, such as the compressed workweek, flextime, and job sharing, as a way to improve employee motivation and to better utilize human resources.

COMPRESSED WORKWEEK The most popular form of **compressed workweek** is four ten-hour days. The 4-40 program was conceived to allow workers more leisure time and shopping time, and to permit them to travel to and from work at nonrush-hour times. Supporters suggest that such a program can increase employee enthusiasm, morale, and commitment to the organization; increase productivity and reduce costs; reduce machine downtime in manufacturing; reduce overtime, turnover, and absenteeism; and make it easier for the organization to recruit employees.

Proponents argue that the compressed workweek may positively affect productivity in situations in which the work process requires significant start-up and shutdown periods. When start-up and shutdown times are a major factor, productivity standards take these periods into consideration in determining the time required to generate a given output. Consequently, in such cases, the compressed workweek will increase productivity even though worker performance is not affected, simply because the improved work scheduling reduces nonproductive time.

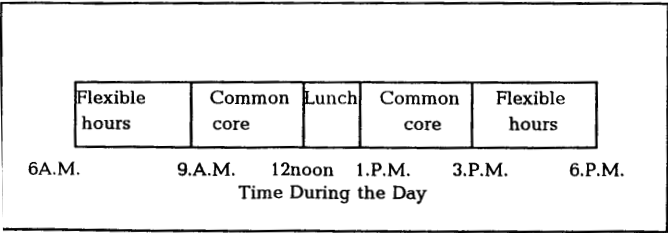
The evidence on 4-40 program performance is generally positive.” While some employees complain of fatigue near the end of the day, and about the difficulty of coordinating their jobs with their personal lives — the latter a problem especially for working mothers — most like the 4-40 program. In one study, for instance, when employees were asked whether they wanted to continue their 4-40 program, which had been in place for six months, or go back to a traditional five-day week, seventy-eight percent wanted to keep the shorter workweek.

FLEXTIME The compressed workweek doesn’t increase employee discretion. Management still sets the work hours. Flextime, however, is a scheduling option that allows employees, within specific parameters, to decide when to go to work. Susan Boss’s work schedule at Hartford Insurance is an example of flextime. But what specifically is flextime?

Flextime is short for flexible work hours. It allows employees some discretion over when they arrive and leave work. Employees have to work a specific number of hours a week, but they are free to vary the hours of work within certain limits. As shown in Figure 10, each day consists of a common core, usually six hours, with a flexibility band surrounding the core. For

example, exclusive of a one-hour lunch break, the core may be 9:00 A.M. to 3:00 P.M., with the office actually opening at 6:00 A.M. and closing at 6:00 P.M. All employees are required to be at their jobs during the common core period, but they are allowed to accumulate their other two hours before and/or after the core time. Some flextime programs allow extra hours to be accumulated and turned into a free day off each month.

FIGURE 10. Example of a Flextime Schedule



The benefits claimed for flextime are numerous. They include reduced absenteeism, increased productivity, reduced overtime expenses, a lessening in hostility toward management, reduced traffic congestion around work sites, elimination of tardiness, and increased autonomy and responsibility for employees that may increase employee job satisfaction. But beyond the claims, what's flextime's record?

Most of the performance evidence stacks up favorably. Flextime tends to reduce absenteeism and frequently improves worker productivity, probably for several reasons. Employees can schedule their work hours to align with personal demands, thus reducing tardiness and absences, and employees can adjust their work activities to those hours in which they are individually more productive.

Flextime's major drawback is that it's not applicable to every job. It works well with clerical tasks where an employee's interaction with people outside his or her department is limited. It is not a viable option for receptionists, sales personnel in retail stores, or similar jobs where comprehensive service demands that people be at their work stations at predetermined times.

JOB SHARING A recent work-scheduling innovation is **job sharing**. It allows two or more individuals to split a traditional forty-hour-a-week job. So, for example, one person might perform the job from 8 A.M. to noon, while another performs the same job from 1 P.M. to 5 P.M.; or the two could work full, but alternate, days. From management's standpoint, job sharing allows the organization to draw upon the talents of more than one individual in a given job. It also opens up the opportunity to acquire skilled workers—for instance, women with school-age children and retirees—who might not be

available on a full-time basis. From the employee's viewpoint, job sharing increases flexibility. As such, it can increase motivation and satisfaction for those to whom a forty-hour-a-week job is just not practical.

12.2. Linking Alternative Work Schedules and Motivation Theories

Not everyone prefers the traditional fixed eight-hour day. The larger blocks of leisure time created by the compressed workweek, for example, may be very appealing to the employee with a boat, a weekend house in the country, or a long daily commute. Employees with young children or other responsibilities that make high demands on their time find that scheduling alternatives like flextime and job sharing allow them more freedom to balance their work and personal commitments.

In terms of motivation theories, alternative work schedules respond to the diverse needs of the work force. Flextime, for example, increases employee autonomy and responsibility. Therefore, it is consistent with the underlying concepts in motivation-hygiene theory.

13. JOB REDESIGN

Job design is concerned with the way that tasks are combined to form complete jobs. Job redesign focuses on changing jobs. The Volvo example illustrates how management can increase motivation by redesigning jobs around self-managed work teams. In this section, we will briefly look at this approach, plus three others, for improving motivation through job redesign.

13.1. Job Rotation

One way to deal with the routineness of work is to use **job rotation**. When an activity is no longer challenging, the employee is rotated to another job, at the same level, that has similar skill requirements. For example, G.S.J. Transcomm Data Systems Inc. in Pittsburgh uses job rotation to keep its staff of 110 people from getting bored. Between 1988 and 1990, nearly twenty percent of Transcomm's employees made lateral job switches. Management believes the job rotation program has been a major contributor to cutting employee turnover from twenty-five percent to less than seven percent a year.

13.2. Job Enlargement

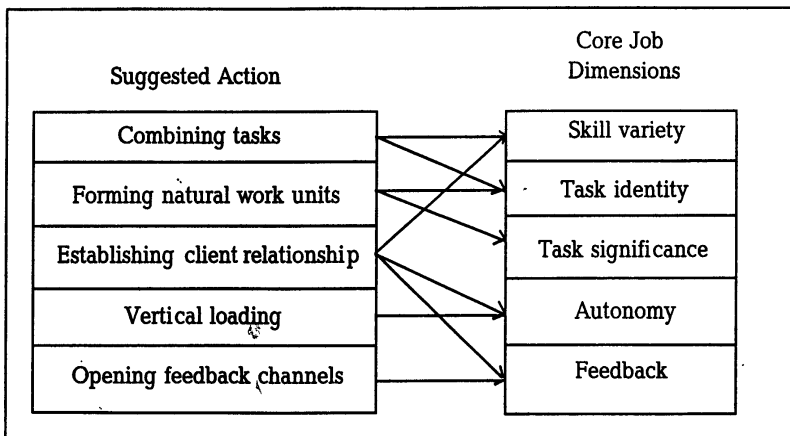
More than thirty years ago, the idea of expanding jobs horizontally, or what we call **job enlargement**, grew in popularity. Increasing the number and variety of tasks that an individual performed resulted in jobs with more diversity. Instead of only sorting the incoming mail by department, for instance, a mail sorter's job could be enlarged to include physically delivering the mail to the various departments or running outgoing letters through the postage meter.

13.3. Job Enrichment

Job enrichment refers to the vertical expansion of jobs. It increases the degree to which the worker controls the planning, execution, and evaluation of his or her work. An enriched job organizes tasks so as to allow the worker to do a complete activity, increases the employee's freedom and independence, increases responsibility, and provides feedback, so an individual will be able to assess and correct his or her own performance.

How does management enrich an employee's job? The following suggestions, based on the job characteristics model discussed above specify the types of changes in jobs that are most likely to lead to improving their motivating potential. (See Figure 11.)

Figure 11. Guidelines for Enriching a Job



1. *Combine tasks.* Managers should seek to take existing and fractionalized tasks and put them back together to form a new and

- larger module of work. This increases skill variety and task identity.
2. *Create natural work units.* The creation of natural work units mean that the tasks an employee does form an identifiable and meaningful whole. This increases employee “ownership” of the work and improves the likelihood that employees will view their work as meaningful and important rather than as irrelevant and boring.
 3. *Establish client relationships.* The client is the user of the product or service that the employee works on. Wherever possible, managers should try to establish direct relationships between workers and their clients. This increases skill variety, autonomy, and feedback for the employee.
 4. *Expand jobs vertically.* Vertical expansion gives employees responsibilities and control that were formerly reserved to management. It seeks to partially close the gap between the “doing” and the “controlling” aspects of the job, and it increases employee autonomy.
 5. *Open feedback channels.* By increasing feedback, employees not only learn how well they are performing their jobs, but also whether their performance is improving, deteriorating, or remaining at a constant level. Ideally this feedback about performance should be received directly as the employee does the job rather than from management on an occasional basis.

13.4. Self-Managed Work Teams

Self-managed work teams represent job enrichment at the group level. As illustrated in the Volvo example at the beginning of this section on job redesign, work groups are given a high degree of self-determination in the management of their day-to-day work. Typically, this includes collective control over the pace of work, determination of work assignments, organization of breaks, and collective choice of inspection procedures. Fully autonomous work teams even select their own members and have the members evaluate each other’s performance. As a result, supervisory positions take on decreased importance and may even be eliminated.

14. IMPLICATIONS FOR PERFORMANCE AND SATISFACTION

There are a number of techniques and programs for applying motivation theories. In this chapter, we reviewed eight of them: management by objectives, OB Mod, participative management, performance-based compensation, flexible benefits, comparable worth, alternative work schedules, and job redesign. While it is always dangerous to synthesize a

large number of complex ideas into a few simple guidelines, the following suggestions distill what we know about applying motivation theories toward improving employee performance and satisfaction.

RECOGNIZE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES Employees have different needs. Don't treat them all alike. Moreover, spend the time necessary to understand what's important to each employee. This will allow you to individualize rewards, schedule work, and design jobs to align with individual needs.

USE GOALS AND FEEDBACK Employees should have hard, specific goals, as well as feedback on how well they are faring in pursuit of those goals.

ALLOW EMPLOYEES TO PARTICIPATE IN DECISIONS THAT AFFECT THEM Employees can contribute to a number of decisions that affect them: setting work goals, choosing their own fringe benefit packages, selecting preferred work schedules, and the like. This can increase employee productivity, commitment to work goals, motivation, and job satisfaction.

LINK REWARDS TO PERFORMANCE Rewards should be contingent on performance. Importantly, employees must perceive a clear linkage. Regardless of how closely rewards are actually correlated to performance criteria, if individuals perceive this correlation to be low, the result will be low performance, a decrease in job satisfaction, and an increase in turnover and absenteeism statistics.

CHECK THE SYSTEM FOR EQUITY Rewards should also be perceived by employees as equating with the inputs they bring to the job. At a simplistic level, this should mean that experience, abilities, effort, and other obvious inputs should explain differences in performance and, hence pay job assignments and other obvious rewards.

II. COMMUNICATION: A PROCESS VIEW

This course is built on the view that communication is process. We share the view of Ray Birdwhistle, who says "Individuals do not communicate; they engage in or become part of communication." What does that mean? That talk with other people is part of a larger stream of communication activity. So, let's examine what it means to say that communication is process.

1. PROCESS DEFINED

We use the word "process" to refer to *an ongoing series of interactions among elements that result in something different from the original elements*. For example, film is processed into pictures, and wheat into flour;

applications are processed; computers translate symbols into electrical signals that can again become symbols or direct complex action. In each case, the raw materials (elements) are changed, but nothing is eliminated. As photographs are developed, film is not destroyed. As flour is made, wheat is changed, not eliminated. Information on applications may be transferred to a computer disk and the application form burned, but the information isn't lost, and the paper becomes carbon and gases in the burning. By-products may be created in the process, but nothing is eliminated.

Moreover, the events (interactions) in a process do not just happen and then end. Each element or event interacts with and affects other events. In the examples, the process doesn't end when a product is created. Products are sold, used, worn out, discarded, recycled. Each interaction in turn creates something new that will also affect other elements—and so on, in a never-ending cycle. Processes are therefore dynamic; they create something new by changing raw materials. And because everything is interrelated, everything affects everything else.

2. EFFECTS OF A PROCESS VIEW

Within any single communication event, many different elements, human and otherwise, exist and interact. Each element affects the others, each is part of a series of interactions that began before the specific event and continues long after the event ends. Some of the interactions are repeated regularly and can be thought of as processes—or subprocesses. We will name some of these subprocesses shortly. Most important, however, is to remember that all the parts of communication, whether we call them elements or subprocesses, are dynamic and interactive. That means each part of the process affects other parts. No element stands by itself. And the end of a particular communication event does not mean the communication is over.

Seeing communication as process will affect how we approach talking with others. Think of what we say and do as part of an ongoing, endless stream of thought and talk. That gives quite a different view from thinking of talk as an event that occurs and is done with. It helps us remember that no action (and talk is a form of action) happens in isolation. Seeing communication as process helps us remember that no single word, or series of words, makes up “communication.” What we say right now is affected by what happened in the past, and our talk now will affect the future. Keeping that in mind influences not only what we say, but how we say it.

When we talk, all parts of the communication process happen almost simultaneously—and they interact as they happen. But when we study communication, it helps to look at each part in isolation. It is as if we were watching a football game on television, and an instant replay stopped the

action at a crucial point in a play. The single frame shows only one part of the action. But using the stop-action camera, which can isolate several parts of the play, helps us understand what happened.

That is what we will do here: We will isolate parts of the communication process. We do this to make the entire process more clear. By understanding the parts, we can better understand how they work together.

3. COMMUNICATION ELEMENTS AND PROCESSES

The communication process involves many interrelating subprocesses and elements. At least eight distinct elements are involved: source(s), receiver(s), sensory receptors, message carriers, messages, responses, feedback, and situation or context. Let's look more closely at each of them.

4. SOURCE AND RECEIVER

To illustrate the elements, let's take an example. You are reading this book. The book is a **source**. You are a **receiver**. Your eyes and hands receive stimuli that you interpret as meaningful. You see the book, the words and pictures in it, and feel it in your hands. The nerves and muscles of your eyes and hands receive and transmit sensations of touch and sight to your brain. That is why we describe you as a receiver.

If a situation involves a conversation between two sighted, hearing people, each is a source as well as a receiver. Each sees and hears (and perhaps touches) the other. Each has **sensory receptors**, *locations of nerve endings that receive sensations and transmit them to the brain*. Thus, when talking about interpersonal communication, think of each person as both source and receiver.

Throughout this unit, we often describe communicators as sources and receivers instead of speakers and listeners. We do that to emphasize that all sensations, not just words, can lead to communication. In the most common interpersonal communication situations, we see people as well as hear them. We learn much from what they look like, how they dress and move, and so on. People often shake hands or hug one another when they meet, thus communicating through touch. They may wear perfume or Cologne, after-shave and deodorants, thus communicating through smell. Nonverbal sources of information are very important.

Remember that each source is also a receiver. That's easy in cases of interpersonal communication, where you talk and listen and respond in a dialogue. In such situations, you're talking and you hear yourself talk—so you're receiving and sending at the same time. While listening, you may smile, frown, turn away, look into space, and so on. So your friend is receiving even while being a source of oral messages to you.

As you read this unit, keep in mind that we can interchange the terms communicator and source/receiver. Some of our suggestions apply specifically to the communicator as source or sender of messages. Some are more important when the person is receiving many messages. But in each situation a communicator is both source and receiver. We discuss below how remembering the principles will help you be a more effective communicator in both roles: message source and message receiver.

5. MESSAGES AND MESSAGE CARRIERS

We have just mentioned the communication of messages. We'll discuss two types: intended and perceived. Then we'll look how messages are "carried."

INTENDED MESSAGES We describe the ideas or feelings a source wants a receiver to understand or know as **intended messages**. Intended messages exist only "in" the source. To be spoken (or written), intended messages must be coded. This term describes how language, and perhaps nonverbal messages also, functions. To communicate intended messages to others, we must **code** — that is, *choose words and sentence structures (and perhaps actions)*. We can't express what we want to say without it. Note the difference: *What you want to communicate* is the intended message; the words are not. Words merely represent, or, stand for, an intended message. These symbols "carry" your intended message.

PERCEIVED MESSAGES The term, **perceived messages** describes **what receivers decode from sensations perceived**. What we hear, see, touch, smell, or taste must be decoded to create perceived messages. A person who hears words receives sensations, but without interpreting (decoding), that person doesn't perceive a message. **Decoding is interpreting what is received**, giving some meaning to the sensations. If you hear a sound in the next room, your brain must interpret it before you know whether you heard a spoken sentence, a musical instrument, dishes breaking, or something you don't recognize.

If someone spoke to you in Japanese, your perceived message will not be close to what the sounds represent unless you know the code (know Japanese). Instead, your perceived message will be that you are hearing a foreign language, or that the speaker is joking, or that something is wrong with the speaker. Other interpretations are possible. The point is that the perceived message is what you think what you received means. It is not the sounds heard or expressed.

One final point about differences between intended and perceived messages: Often receivers perceive messages that sources do not intend to send. Much information that we get (and respond to) is not intended by any source. Receivers draw conclusions from things that are not said, and from

the way a person looks or sounds, and from the way something is not said. These are perceived messages. regardless of what the source intended. Unintentional message sending is most true of nonverbal communication, but isn't limited to that. Receivers often interpret words differently from what a source intended. *Perceived messages are whatever meaning a receiver attaches to sensations received*, whether the sensations are sent intentionally or unintentionally. So, these two elements in the communication process involve some subprocesses. Intended messages must be coded. Symbols (words or actions) must be chosen to represent them. Intended messages must be sent. Perceived messages must be received and then decoded.

If we all remembered these differences between intended and perceived messages, we could communicate more effectively. We would remember that our words are not our meanings, that what we say will not always be received by others as sent, nor always perceived as intended.

MESSAGE CARRIERS *The things a person actually says and does while communicating are called **message carriers**.* Obviously, among these carriers are the words someone says. Other carriers include gestures, movements, smiles, frowns, objects, use of time and space, smells, and so on.

This part of the process is short-lived. Most message carriers exist at one moment and cannot be re-created. A videotape can record the main message carriers, but not all of them. Besides, how many of us record everything we say and do when we're communicating with someone else? If we keep in mind that most message carriers don't last, we can improve our communication. By being alert to all possible message carriers and careful to use feedback, we can check the accuracy of the messages we perceive. We can also be more sure that these perceived messages match what we intended.

6. RESPONSE AND FEEDBACK

Receivers usually respond to the words they hear and decode. The conversations at the beginning of this chapter illustrate the give-and-take nature of most interpersonal communication. After the first comment, each person's remark could be described as a **response**. We describe **any reaction to a perceived message** as a response. Reactions may be internal or external, obvious or not observable.

In contrast, we use **feedback** to refer to *a receiver's response as interpreted by the source*. Although everything that one person does in reaction to another's words is a response (and therefore part of the communication process), not every response is feedback. Many people find this distinction difficult, so let's spend some time being clear. First, most people use the terms *feedback* and *response* to mean the same thing. We

don't use them that way because doing so confuses intended and perceived messages. This confusion is a major cause of problems in communication. A good way to avoid such problems is to be clear about the differences between feedback and response.

Let's use the example of your reading this unit to illustrate. As you read, you respond. You may just recognize the words and ideas. Or you may find a particular idea difficult to accept. You may think, or even say, "Wait a minute, that doesn't make sense." Or you may think, "What does that word mean?" and turn to the Glossary of the unit. These responses include overt behaviors— actions people can see or hear. But unless you write your comments, and mail them to us, your responses will not be feedback to us— at least not direct feedback.

Here's another example. Vincent, Jerry, and Maria are having a soda. Maria is talking. Jerry interrupts to say, "Did you just say you would or would not go?" and smiles. Jerry's question and smile were response and feedback to Maria. Maria answers, "I said I would." Her answer was feedback to Jerry. During the exchange between Maria and Jerry, Vincent listened and frowned. That was a response. But if neither Maria nor Jerry saw Vincent's action, it was feedback to neither. If Maria saw it, the feedback she received might be that Vincent was annoyed with her for agreeing to go. If Jerry noticed, his feedback might have been that Vincent was annoyed with his question. Either interpretation would have been feedback, even though Vincent said nothing. Only if Jerry or Maria asked Vincent would they know if their feedback (perceived message) was what Vincent's response meant (intended message).

An absence of overt (observable) response can also be feedback. For example, friends are having coffee in the student union. Ben asks his friend Sara if he can see the pages she just did for English 101. Sara continues her conversation with another person at the table. Ben interprets her lack of response as an answer: "No, I can't." That would be feedback, whether Sara heard the question or not. She may not have heard, so her failure to respond may not have meant "no." But her silence was feedback, because that's how Ben interpreted it.

This distinction is important. If you think of response and feedback as the same thing, you can run into trouble. You'll forget that feedback is like all other messages in communication: The intended meaning may be close to or quite different from the perceived message. Feedback differs only in that it is an interpretation of a response (or nonresponse) to a message. Properly used, feedback can improve the accuracy or effectiveness of message sending. Improperly used, feedback can lead to scrambled communication.

7. SITUATION

All communication takes place within a setting (a situation), and that situation influences the meanings—especially perceived messages—within the communication. The **situation** is the total context in which the source and the receiver interact, and we use the word interchangeably with the term **setting**. Although not every aspect of a situation is relevant to every message, understanding the communication process requires understanding the influence of situation.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS The obvious aspects of situation are those of the physical setting: location, room size, furniture, number of people present, if they're seated or standing, physical barriers between them, and so on. Physical setting also includes less obvious items, such as temperature and humidity, background noise, light, and color of walls and furniture. The physical aspects of a setting are "external" – outside the persons communicating.

SOCIAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS Probably even more important than the physical are the social and psychological aspects of the situation. These exist largely in the minds of the communicators and shape how meanings are attached to symbols. Among these factors are communicators' purposes, cultures, roles, and relationships. Each affects what is said, what is received, how words and actions are interpreted, and what responses are seen as appropriate. We discuss these factors in later chapters. Here we want to show how, as part of the situation, social and psychological factors influence the communication.

RELATIONSHIPS Some scholars believe relationships affect communication so much that they use relationships as one factor to distinguish among types of communication. Interpersonal communication, for instance, can be defined by whether the interactions between people rely on personal or role-related perceptions. Though we do not use this definition, we do find the idea useful in showing how relationships affect communication.

Whenever people intentionally communicate, they choose what they say and do using conscious and unconscious predictions about the outcome. How you greet people you meet, for example, is strongly influenced by how you expect them to respond. Social or role-related factors in the situation lead to some predictions. "I can't speak to her unless she speaks to me first. She is a bank president, and bank presidents pay no attention to student employees." At other times, personal knowledge of the individual(s) involved forms the base for predictions. "I can't speak to him without being spoken to first; he is very status-conscious and would be offended if I spoke first."

Clearly, different relationships between communicators cause them to make different predictions, and to communicate differently. Indeed, the

relationships themselves lead to particular predictions. The bank president, for instance, might think: “I must smile and nod when I arrive in the morning because employees expect the boss to be pleasant upon arriving at work.” In another situation, the boss thinks: “I can tell my subordinates that I’m angry about last month’s profit-loss statement because it will emphasize how serious the problem is for the company, and they’ll work harder.” In short, the relationships among the communicators help *establish the predictability in the situation*, which affects what all the parties involved do and say.

Another important effect of relationships occurs when predictions of the future can’t accurately be based on the past. When we expect a certain kind of behavior from a person based on past experience and our perception of an unchanged relationship, we base what we do and say on that expectation (prediction). But if something changes the relationship, the outcomes will differ from what we expected (predicted). In short, changes in relationships require changes in how we communicate.

8. CULTURE

Another important aspect of situation involves the different cultures people bring to the communication situation. Cultural factors may be physical, social, or psychological. In the United States, as our population becomes increasingly multicultural, it will be increasingly necessary to be aware of how culture influences communication.

We all recognize that a person may be from a different culture when that person speaks a language different from our own. We have a similar tendency to realize that cultural differences exist when the person we’re talking to uses our own language, but looks “foreign” to us. What we rarely recognize are the cultural expectations that we bring to communication situations because we are members of a majority group or class within a country or & region of the country. We also rarely recognize cultural differences that exist among people who speak the same language and are not perceived to be “foreign”. A recent best-selling book suggests that communication between women and men could be improved if we recognized large cultural differences between men and women. The author says we should think of male-female conversations as cross-cultural situations.

We will discuss the extent of cultural differences and how to communicate with people from cultures unlike our own in other chapters. The point in this chapter is to realize that we all have developed unrecognized cultural expectations about how people should behave, communicate, and think. Based on those expectations, we predict how we should interact with people. Understanding and improving communication requires such awareness whenever we talk with people whose culture differs from our own.

EFFECTS OF SITUATION Sometimes the effects of setting in communication are called noise, but this description is only occasionally accurate. Certainly, when something in the situation causes intended and perceived messages to differ widely, it has the effect of noise. Such interference may be external, as when a jet flies overhead. Or the interference can be internal, as when shock at inappropriate use of profanity prevents a listener from paying attention to what a speaker says, or when a parent is angry with a child who “talks back” and pays no attention to the child’s words.

Most elements of situation have a more positive effect. Using the situation to interpret messages may be the only way to understand them. Suppose a person is jumping up and down, yelling loudly, arms waving wildly. Interpreting what that means requires knowing the situation. Is the person at a football game? On a road beside a stopped car? Cues from situation add clarity and information.

Usually, we use what we know about the situation to infer meanings without consciously noting that we have done so. But when communicators don’t take situational factors into account, the result is often serious misunderstandings—or worse. One significant example is what therapists have learned about treating some people described as “mentally ill.” They now know that identifying an “illness” without taking the situation into account can result in an inaccurate diagnosis. Attempting treatment without considering the situation may be ineffective, and often will be dangerous. Some natural reactions to a situation can seem psychotic when seen out of context. A work of popular literature described one such situation so appropriately that it resulted in widespread adoption of the term *Catch 22* to describe situations in which a double bind can cause normal people to seem psychotic.

Understanding communication messages clearly requires that we use information from both the physical and social or psychological aspects of the situation.

9. RECEIVING AND SENDING

We have defined eight elements of the communication process. Several subprocesses connect these elements. We identified two such subprocesses above: sending and receiving message carriers. To intentionally send messages, we talk, write, and so on. To communicate with someone else, those message carriers must be received and interpreted. Many nerve, brain, and muscle interactions occur in the process of hearing sound waves and deciding what a sentence means.

This all seems so obvious we too often take these parts of the communication process for granted. We forget that speaking is a complex

set of learned physical coordinations—until we're tired and the words won't come out clearly or in the proper order. We forget that how an intended message is sent—how the words are pronounced and how clearly they are articulated—influences how it is perceived. How people say words may be as important as what words they say. If you set a time to meet friends, it matters whether the time is 3:50 or 3:15. A perceived message may depend not on the words, but on how clearly they are articulated or on how well a receiver hears. It could be quite upsetting if you were going to a show that started at 3:15 and you appeared at 3:50!

10. PERCEIVING AND INTERPRETING

Perceiving and interpreting may involve the most complex and most important interactions during communication. For that reason, we devote much space to their explanation. To begin, however, it might be helpful to define what we mean by these two terms.

Perception refers to *the mental process of recognizing the stimuli we receive*. **Interpretation** refers to *the organizing of incoming stimuli into a meaningful whole*. The differences between these two definitions mean little to the beginning student of communication. We often use the two words interchangeably. What you should understand is that we must both recognize and interpret the sensations we receive before we have a perceived message.

Interpreting sensations received requires memory, reconstruction, and recall. It uses both conscious and unconscious thinking processes and often involves evaluation. We discuss these processes in detail throughout the next three chapters, beginning here with a look at how perception affects communication.

11. PERCEPTIONS ARE LEARNED

Perceived messages often differ widely, even among people within the same situation. Two people who have seen the same event commonly report different versions of what happened. Just ask the fans of the two opposing teams at the Super Bowl to describe a referee's pass-interference call! Why does this happen? Identifying the reasons can help you cope with the communication problems that occur when perceptions differ.

12. A LEARNED PROCESS

Probably the most important reason perception varies is that we learn how to perceive. Infants are born with the ability to receive sensations and to

respond to them, but they must *learn* how to interpret those sensations. Babies do not inherit a store of meanings in their brains. What we learn depends on what we experience and what we decide the experiences mean.

We all have different experiences as we mature. An Eskimo infant in the far north of Canada, for instance, not only is taught a language different from English, but learns a relationship to nature radically different from that of most other North Americans. For example, what this person perceives as warm will probably feel cold to those accustomed to central heating and long, hot summers. What this person sees in a whale or walrus differs greatly from what others see.

Less obviously, individuals who speak the same language may also grow up in different cultures. Even apparently similar people learn different ways of perceiving and interpreting events. Indeed, even people who grow up in similar environments have different experiences and learn different things. Thus, even actually similar people will perceive some things differently.

Experience as a broad category explains most perceptual differences, but not all of them. Moreover, because perception influences communication so strongly, we find it useful to be more specific about the reasons two people may perceive the same event quite differently—and therefore communicate about it quite differently. We identify seven such factors, each of which relates to learning and to culture, but each of which is worth noting separately.

INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONS We tend to perceive sensations according to the feelings we *have at the time*. If you're angry, you hear what a person says much differently from the way you hear it if you were happy. If you feel guilty or defensive about something you did, you may take a neutral or even a friendly comment about it as criticism. How feelings affect perception is also shown by the way fans at a baseball game respond to an umpire's calls. We "see" a pitch as a strike or a ball depending on whether the pitcher is on "our" team. Situations in which emotions influence perception are very common. To improve our communication, we need to recognize when emotions affect perception. We also should learn ways (discussed below) to cope with such perceptual differences.

INFLUENCE OF LANGUAGE The labels we give things have a powerful impact on how we perceive them. There are many examples of this, but a good one is the care with which manufacturers name products. The success of Ford's Mustang was at least partly due to the ideas and feelings associated with the name. People associated wildness and freedom with the car. The success of Mustang spawned many imitations: Pinto, Colt, Cougar, Lynx. Another "class" of car owed its high prestige, at least in part, to such names as Imperial, Seville, Marquis, Riviera. More recently, cars are identified with the modern age-by using labels such as XR4, XJE, SL480. Soap labeling shows the same principle. The smallest box of laundry soap you can buy in most places is the "giant" size, and the middle-sized box is the "jumbo".

Although it may be true that a rose by any other name would smell as sweet, only those who speak Russian will think Rosa as a lovely flower.

INFLUENCE OF ATTITUDES AND VALUES Among the most important influences on perception are attitudes and values. *We tend to perceive things according to our attitudes and our values.* The results of one research study may illustrate. During President Franklin Roosevelt’s administration, three groups were selected to hear a ten-minute speech that contained nearly equal amounts of pro- and anti-New Deal comments. One group consisted of people who favored the New Deal; another group was neutral; and the third opposed these policies. After the speech, listeners were given a test to see which of 46 specific items they heard. The items included 23 comments that were favorable toward the New Deal and an equal number that were unfavorable. These results show how much listeners’ attitudes influenced what they perceived (Table 4).

Table 4.

	ITEMS	RECOGNIZED
	Pro-New Deal	Anti-New Deal
Favorable listeners	16.1	9.9
Neutral listeners	12.8	11.8
Unfavorable listeners	10.9	13.0

One of the reasons it is difficult to communicate with people different from ourselves is that we have attitudes about how people *should* behave, or talk, or think. When they don’t do or think as we believe is right, it affects how we perceive them. Another example also illustrates. Couples were asked to fill out a questionnaire about a set of values. They were asked what they themselves believed and how they thought their spouses would answer the question. Members of happily married couples think the other person is more similar to themselves than their spouse’s response showed. A similar study of opposing groups found that they described each other as more different from each other than they actually were.

INFLUENCE OF ATTENTION Another reason perception varies is how the receiving process itself works. We are constantly bombarded by millions of sensations. At any one time, we see more than we are aware of seeing; we hear more than we are aware of hearing; we feel more than we are aware of feeling, and so on. To put it simply, *we must select what we perceive.* We cannot perceive every possible stimulus around us.

Stop reading for a minute. Focus on everything you can see around you. Can you see everything at once? Don’t you always view some surroundings in the “corner of your eye”? Is the radio or TV on? Were you consciously listening, or was the sound in the background until just now?

What about the chair you're sitting on? Had you noticed it? Probably not, unless it is uncomfortable. But you would have noticed if it began to fall out from under you.

This discussion shows some of the ways attention affects perception. Attention allows us to focus on only *part* of the sensations it's possible to receive at any one time. Moreover, we are not consciously aware of all the sensations we do receive. We perceive what we focus on differently from what we receive marginally. And what we don't notice can affect how we perceive what we do notice. If you were watching a hockey game and saw a forward start swinging at a lineman, you might believe that only the forward should be penalized. You might need a television replay to show you that the defensive player had first tried to trip the forward. If you were at the game, of course, you'd never see the trip if you had missed it when it happened. What you didn't see, however, would strongly affect how you perceived what you did see.

Since attention is important to effective communication, let's look more closely at what it is. **Attention**, a complex physiological process, *can be defined as an adjustment of the receiving senses*. For example, you pay attention when you look in the direction of someone you expect to speak or to whom you are listening. Focusing all senses on the speaker is described as **focal attention**. Receiving sensations without focusing directly on their sources is referred to as peripheral or **marginal attention**. We use marginal attention to receive much of the information we use to guide our lives. When crossing a street while talking to a friend, we focus on the conversation, but also watch for traffic with marginal attention. Knowing when it is necessary to shift from marginal to focal attention is important to effective communication.

INFLUENCE OF PERSPECTIVE Perspective also influences perceptions. The photos above illustrate one kind of perspective. What do they seem to be pictures of? They do not appear to be trees, but they are. From two inches away, a tree looks quite different from the way it looks from the usual perspective. Figure 12 shows how *physical perspective influences what we perceive*. Some movie stars, aware of the importance of perspective, permit photographs of themselves from only one side.

Another type of perspective is cultural or psychological, it might be called *mental set*. A standard of living that includes running water and indoor toilets but not restaurant meals or an automobile would be perceived as luxurious by a starving person. But from the perspective of a person born into the Rockefeller or Kennedy families, that living standard would probably be regarded as poverty level. You can also describe cultural perspective as attitudes or socialization. Whatever you call it, it strongly affects perception.

INFLUENCE OF PHYSICAL CONDITION Because the physical condition of our receiving senses varies, what we perceive also varies. To

read, we perceive marks on the page that we interpret as words. People who can't see well have trouble reading, people with physical impairments perceive differently from others. Deaf people can dance to music by "feeling" the rhythm; blind people touch and hear much more sensitively than do those of us who can see. Fatigue affects how we see and hear. Illness affects our senses. The condition of all our senses (hearing, taste, touch, smell, vision) affects our perceptions.

Differences in perception account for many communication problems. People "see" things differently; thus they respond to and talk about them differently. People do not see things alike because they attend to them differently, have different perspectives, have learned, expect, or want to see them differently. Because they perceive things differently, people attach different meanings to the same event, feel differently about that event, value it differently.

Perhaps equally important, one person can perceive the same thing differently at different times. Given changes in time, perspective, experience, emotion, or physical state, each of us experiences personal variation in our perceptions. Thus, to improve our communication with ourselves and with others, we should remember the reasons why perception varies.

13. OVERVIEW

At this point let's establish a framework for the study of the communication process. First, note that talk about communicating can often confuse you because the tool for the study is the subject itself. Worse, however, are habits of, and attitudes about, communication formed long before you ever picked up this book. As you read, you will need to think about your own communication patterns. You also need to be willing to discard attitudes that include some popular misconceptions about communication.

14. POPULAR MISCONCEPTIONS

COMMUNICATIONS AS EXCHANGES People often talk about *communications*. You may not have noticed, but this plural term, *communications*, rarely occurs in this book. That is because we view communication as process. Many events take place as people talk and those events are plural, but the communication that results is not plural.

One useful way to study communication is to look at the events involved, thinking of them as *transactions*. But in so doing, keep in mind our very specialized use of that term. As used by communication scholars, a transaction is a statement and the response to it. This definition focuses on transaction as

a concept used as a unit of analysis. Just as the study of individual cells can lead to a better understanding of anatomy, so the study of communication transactions can lead to a better understanding of communication. That applies, however, only as long as you remember the special definition, and keep in mind that no single transaction — or series of transactions (a conversation, interview, or speech) — is the communication in the situation.

The popular definition of the term, however, leads to a misunderstanding of the transactional approach to communication. Most people use the word “transaction” in the commercial sense. They think of something exchanged—products or service in return for money, for example. This concept of exchange carries over into talk about communication and leads to serious misunderstanding of the process.

Whenever we talk about communicating so that the “message gets across,” we illustrate the misunderstanding. Ideas cannot be wrapped up and sent as packages! We also hear people define communication as “transfer of meaning.” The process view of communication helps us understand that meaning cannot be transferred. Communication between people isn’t like that between two computers. If you use electronic mail, the exact words you type appear in a file of the receiving computer. But for interpersonal communication, the symbols must be coded and decoded. If things work as we want, the decoding results in the receiver having ideas similar to those intended by the source. But meaning is not transferred. It cannot be—at least not without some form of extrasensory perception.

COMMUNICATION BREAKDOWNS Another commonly misused concept is that of communication “breakdown.” People say, “I just can’t communicate with him,” or “I just can’t get through to her.” Well, we know communication never really breaks down. It may be hostile. It may lead to aggressive acts or to separation. We may be misunderstood. What we want may not happen. Our intended message may not be understood as we wish. But communication never really “breaks down.” Without communication, no hostility, no aggression would result, and even without words, silence communicates. You can’t be misunderstood without some perceived message occurring.

Even in arguments that end with parties vowing never to speak again, some messages were perceived, some responses occurred. Even when people actually never do speak again, the parties involved remember the interactions. Their memories keep the communication alive. This previous communication may affect later interactions with other people. Thus, communication may be unproductive, ineffective, unpleasant, or hostile, but to be any of those it has existed. Unless the fact of our existence becomes irrelevant or completely forgotten, communication does not break down.

THE PARABLE OF THE BLIND MEN and THE ELEPHANT

by JOHN GODFREY SAXE

It was six men of Indostan
To learning much inclined,
Who went to see the Elephant
(Though all of them were blind),
That each by observation
Might satisfy his mind



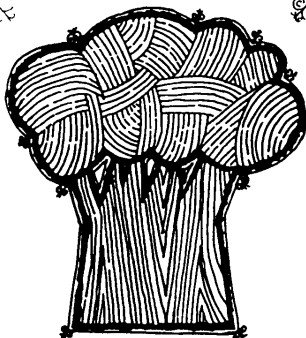
The First approached the Elephant / And happening to fall
Against his broad and sturdy side / At once began to bawl
God bless me! but the Elephant / Is very like a wall!



The Second feeling of the tusk / Cried 'Ho! what have we here
So very round and smooth and sharp? / To me 'tis very clear
This wonder of an Elephant / Is very like a spear!



The Third approached the animal
And, happening to take
The squirming trunk within his hands
Thus boldly up he spake
'I see," quoth he the Elephant
Is very like a snake!'



The Fourth reached out an eager hand,
And felt about the knee
What most this wondrous beast is like
Is very plain quoth he
'Tis clear enough the Elephant
Is very like a tree'



The Fifth who chanced to touch the ear,
Said "E'en the blindest man
Can tell what this resembles most,
Deny the fact who can
This marvel of an Elephant
Is very like a fan"

The Sixth no sooner had begun
About the beast to grope
Than seizing on the swinging tail
That fell within his scope
'I see ' quoth he the Elephant
Is very like a rope"



And so these men of Indostan / Disputed loud and long
Each in his own opinion / Exceeding stiff and strong
Though each was partly in the right, / They all were in the wrong!

15. TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

We also think it useful if you understand the different types of communication. The process doesn't change from situation to situation. Communication occurs whenever stimuli are received and interpreted. But the factors involved may change as situations change. If the received stimuli are internal, we describe that as intrapersonal communication. Sometimes this is described as information processing. When you hear yourself speak, feel yourself move, interpret the world around you, think about ideas or things you see and do, this is intrapersonal communication. Consciously or unconsciously, **intrapersonal communication** continues as long as you are alive. It occurs simultaneously with all other types of communication.

Interpersonal communication occurs when you communicate directly with other people in a one-to-one situation or in small groups. The word parts *inter* and *personal* suggest that *interpersonal* means any communication between persons. But that includes all human communication. We think it's more useful to define interpersonal communication as interactions in which participants have a one-to-one relationship. Practically speaking, these situations usually involve two to eight persons, but the number of people is not what creates interpersonal communication. Direct interaction on a one-to-one basis is the essential feature.

Public communication takes place in situations where many people receive messages largely from one source. A movie, television show, sermon, political speech, advertiser's message, professor's lecture, and committee report are all examples of public communication. Some are examples of mass communication as well. **Mass communication** involves electronic or mechanical transmission of message carriers. Television, radio, movies, newspapers, books, and magazines are all examples of mass communication.

In public communication, most participants receive verbal messages from only one or a few others. Speeches are the best-known examples of public communication. Participants in public communication do not interact in direct one-to-one relationships. As in other communication situations, speakers are receivers and receivers are sources. But the interactions among participants differ from those in interpersonal situations. In public communication, the receivers' responses are mostly nonverbal. The professor who changes his lecture style because students fall asleep or look bored and the politician who becomes angry when her audience boos her proposal have both received and responded to feedback. Even in mass communication situations, feedback occurs—though it's usually indirect and controlled by gatekeepers.

16. COMMUNICATING ACROSS DIFFERENCE

The 1990 census showed that nonwhite racial and ethnic groups, taken collectively, now outnumber the white population in many major metropolitan areas. Intercultural communication will inevitably become more commonplace with each passing year. The need for understanding other cultures and subcultures, in our personal lives and in our careers, increases in importance as our society continues to change. In a multicultural society, our ability to communicate effectively with persons from other cultures and subcultures will have an ever greater impact on our success at work, and on our satisfaction in our personal lives.

Intercultural communication is interpersonal communication in a distinct context when we perceive cultural differences, our interpersonal communication becomes intercultural. As part of the process of communication, a person's culture or subculture is a major influence on self-identity, values, attitudes, and beliefs. By recognizing that our culture or subculture contributes to the way we communicate, we can begin to recognize that the culture or subculture of other persons is a major influence on the way they communicate. We become aware not only of a cultural difference, but also that each of us communicates in a different way due to cultural differences.

16.1. Learning to Accept Difference

Differences in cultures and subcultures create the need to study intercultural communication. With people who are similar to us, whether friends, family, or colleagues at work, we probably have many *smooth* interactions. We understand each other fairly well. But what happens when we speak with a person whose cultural background is different from ours? Frequently we find the person thinks in a different way, and responds both verbally and nonverbally in different ways, reflecting values different from our own. As we notice these differences, we listen and speak with an awareness of cultural variations. We engage in intercultural communication, which is the process that occurs when the source and the receiver are members of different cultures or subcultures.

Cultural differences can obscure some of the predictability about how we think communication should work. These differences can produce ambiguity and awkwardness when we are confronted with languages, rules, and norms different from those we are accustomed to. To understand and communicate effectively with people of other cultures requires adaptability to change and the accommodation of intercultural differences. Problems develop because we are often set in our old and familiar ways. Sometimes

prejudice emerges when people are perceived as thinking and behaving in ways that are different from ours.

A major problem of intercultural communication was is a problem in many interpersonal encounters that becomes larger in intercultural situations. A common behavior, and one not limited to the U. S., is to be suspicious of people different from ourselves. We often perceive someone with beliefs different from ours as strange. Even worse for effective communication, we usually see them as wrong.

To communicate effectively in intercultural situations we need a different attitude, one that is very difficult to achieve. We must avoid seeing someone who is different as inferior. We need to think of no single cultural trait as right or wrong, including our own.

To think of some traits as merely different from our own, more familiar, ways is not difficult. For example, the use of eye contact varies considerably from one culture to another. Direct eye contact is considered normal in many cultures. Other cultures use indirect eye contact during interpersonal communication. Neither way is right or wrong. They are communication variables that reflect cultural differences. Recognizing and accepting this kind of cultural diversity is the first step toward achieving more effective intercultural communication.

In other cases, acceptance is more difficult. In all cases, remembering that differences are due to cultural differences is important. Once we learn to accept other cultures, without judging them right or wrong based on our own cultural experiences, we can begin to understand people from other cultures. But if we persist in believing our way is the right way and other ways are inferior or wrong, we will find it nearly impossible to communicate well with people from other cultures.

To believe that our culture is the better one, or the right one is called **ethnocentrism**. Highly ethnocentric people who will not change that attitude will never communicate very well with those from other cultures.

The difficulty in learning not to be highly ethnocentric arises because each culture tends to be ethnocentric. Each has its own view of the world, its customs and behaviors considered *logical* and *normal*. Thus, each of us learns to be ethnocentric and to consider other cultures not only different but not “normal,” inferior. Children moved from one culture to another at an early age will learn the culture of the growing-up environment, not the culture of birth. They’ll learn the “new” language and all other aspects of the culture. For example, Europeans tend to have the main meal of the day early in the afternoon. Americans in urban U. S. usually eat the main meal in the evening. For many in rural areas, “dinner” is at noon. No way is right or wrong. These cultural habits are learned; they are neither natural nor normal, although they may seem that way to persons in the particular culture. As we have more

experience with people from other cultures, most of us are better able to accept and understand intercultural differences.

16.2. Valuing Differences

A few perceptive and sensitive people seem to pay attention to the countless details in the world around us. Most of us are oblivious to many of these details. We are not aware of many of the forces that govern cultural behaviors. Our culture is a part of our lives that we take for granted. We do not ask questions about our own cultural habits. The foods that we eat, the clothes that we wear, the recreational activities that we enjoy, are all examples of cultural variations that each culture takes for granted as natural, but that are really learned characteristics.

Culture influences how people communicate. Values, attitudes, and beliefs are reflections of culture. The connection between culture and communication is the basis for the differences in the ways people from different cultures communicate. As cultural traits are passed from one generation to the next, the process of acculturation occurs. We learn the norms of our culture, how we are expected to behave in particular situations. In turn, we learn the communication behaviors that 'our culture considers acceptable and appropriate. The relationship between culture and communication is so total that a leading anthropologist, Edward T. Hall, observed that "culture is communication" and "communication is culture."

We learn the language, rules, and norms of our culture at an early age. Usually we do not learn a second culture in the same depth at this early stage of life. We are unaware of how our culture influences our behavior. What we consider proper, how we feel and think, what we want to achieve, are all influenced by our culture. Cultures exist only because their members follow predictable behavior patterns. Culture is a major determinant of individual values.

In the context of culture, values are what people regard as good or bad, beautiful or ugly, clean or dirty, valuable or worthless, right or wrong, kind or cruel, appropriate or inappropriate. Although cultural values play a major role in every person's life, they cannot be seen or heard. Values are inside people, in our minds and feelings. They are a way of thinking about the world, and they govern specific behavior choices. For example, the core value of the dominant culture in the U. S. is individual achievement. As a result, people in that culture value hard work, strength and tenacity, career achievement, and continuous progress demonstrated by increasing well-being and comfort. Such progress is valued highly because it is a sign of achievement. In contrast, Arab cultures in the Middle East value hospitality, courage, and honor as much as individual achievement. Many African cultures honor elders, family, and tribal identification more than work and

material progress. The different values in each culture lead to different behaviors that express behavior, we acquire a set of attitudes about the language and nonverbal behavior of people from other cultures, subcultures, classes, and gender.

Problems in intercultural communication occur not only because of language use differences, but also because of stereotypes about other groups of people. The process of stereotyping prejudices other people, and frequently assigns characteristics that are both inaccurate and negative to individuals from a different group. Stereotyping occurs at all levels of cultures, subcultures, classes, and gender.

Different languages evoke responses from non-native speakers that sometimes reinforce cultural stereotypes. For example, the German language may sound harsh and militant, while Spanish may sound exotic and romantic. In stereotyping, we attribute characteristics that we perceive in a language to the individuals who use the language. If we think about this form of stereotyping a little more carefully, we can recognize the inaccuracy of transferring our perceptions about a language to the individuals who use that language. We are well aware that those who use our language also show great individual differences. Those who are native speakers of other languages have the same individual differences that we observe in our own cultural group.

When we learn to accept other cultures as different from our own, and to see persons from other cultures as single individuals rather than stereotypes, we can achieve more effective intercultural communication. You may recall experiences with people from other cultures that seemed stiff and uncomfortable, and you may have felt that the communication was difficult and not very satisfactory. Through the study of intercultural communication, you may be able to decrease some of the tensions that frequently occur between persons of different cultural groups.

16.3. Nonverbal Communication

In addition to language obstacles that may interfere with effective communication, we also carry stereotypes about the silent language of different cultural groups, the nonverbal communication. In much the same way that our culture influences our language acquisition, it also determines our nonverbal communication behaviors. We develop strong feelings about what is appropriate or inappropriate in nonverbal communication as a result of our culture. Gestures and movements reflect the influence of cultures, subcultures, classes, and gender. Some hand gestures used by males are almost never used by females. In the American culture in the U.S., a man who is walking fast may be perceived as businesslike and determined. A woman

walking at the same pace may appear rushed and worried. When we interpret nonverbals, we do so based on culture, subculture, class, and gender.

Nonverbal communication usually carries greater credibility than verbal communication. In intercultural situations, especially when we do not speak the same native language as the other person, nonverbal communication may acquire a higher degree of importance than it has in our own group. The risks of misinterpretation of nonverbal communication behaviors also increase significantly in intercultural situations.

We will discuss some nonverbal processes relevant to intercultural communication. These include movement and appearance (kinesics), use of space (proxemics), and use of time (chronemics). By understanding these processes as cultural variables, we can broaden our view of how intercultural communication functions.

MOVEMENT AND APPEARANCE (KINESICS) Each new generation is taught nonverbal expressions useful and appropriate in that culture. Some nonverbal expressions, especially a few body movements, are physiologically based and tend to be similar in all cultures. For example, yawning and stretching appear basically the same in all cultures. Crying or smiling may be universal. But how a posture, smile, or other movement is interpreted is far from universal. When a person is “permitted” or expected to smile differs greatly from culture to culture. What a smile means varies as well.

These and many other movement patterns are culturally conditioned. That is, the way we walk, use eye contact, gesture, or display facial expressions all are learned through culture. Some examples of appropriate and inappropriate nonverbal behavior are clear and straightforward. For example, if you were visiting a friend in Indonesia, appropriate behavior includes sitting on the floor but being careful not to point the soles of your shoes or feet toward the other person, which would be considered offensive. Other examples are more difficult to understand. The shrug of the shoulders, for example, may mean “I don’t know” in one culture and context, while in another culture it may mean “Don’t bother me.” Misinterpretations cause frequent problems in intercultural communication.

While we cannot expect to become experts in the kinesics of every culture we may come in contact with, we can at least recognize that each culture determines its own kinesics. The meanings attached to movements and gestures, as well as eye contact and facial expressions, are culturally determined in much the same way that a culture determines the language use of its members. We can try to avoid quick interpretations based on our own culture, and we can be aware that our nonverbal kinesic expressions may not be perceived by persons of different cultures in the way that we intended.

USE OF SPACE (PROXEMICS) Proxemics is the study of how we use the space around us. Although we usually pay little attention to the space immediately around us, we expect a “bubble” of space to be respected by

others. The size of our “bubble” depends on the situation and on our cultural background. The space around us is like our territory, and we usually try to control it. When someone enters our space, we feel discomfort and may become defensive. Proxemics is a major cultural variable. It can contribute to difficulties in intercultural communication when it is not understood and respected.

Americans in the U.S. tend to prefer larger “bubbles” than persons in many other cultures. Previously we discussed the categories of personal space common in the United States. The space zones range from intimate, to personal, to social, from very close to as much as 4 to 12 feet, depending on the circumstances. Several Latin American, Southern European, and Middle Eastern cultures tend to use the zone that U.S. Americans consider intimate as a social zone for casual conversations. Americans in the U.S. may feel their space invaded in a casual conversation with a person from one of these cultures. Conversely, if the American from the U.S. adjusts the space for greater distance and comfort, the person from the other culture may perceive the U.S. American as cold and aloof. The stage is set for an intercultural misunderstanding. Another example of cultural differences in the use of space can be traced to philosophical differences reflected in the culture. In many Middle Eastern cultures, a person’s breath is considered similar to the spirit and to life itself. It is a positive cultural trait. To stand close to another person in conversation, so close that one’s breath is shared, is not a sign of poor manners, but of sharing one’s spirit. Many Americans in the U.S. would find this kind of closeness offensive and invasive.

When persons of different cultures engage in person-to-person communication, the way each person uses space can create difficulties. In many cases, neither person can adjust comfortably to the other’s use of space, and the result is being either too close or too far from each other. The use of personal space is a cultural variable. For intercultural communication to be effective, both persons need to experience a degree of comfort that facilitates the communication. When minor adjustments and compromises in the use of space help to develop a satisfactory comfort level, both parties may find they are better able to communicate with each other. Remember, neither way is right or wrong; they are variables determined by cultural background.

USE OF TIME (CHRONEMICS) The meaning of time, and the way time is used, is also a major cultural variable. *Study of a culture’s concept of how to use time*, called **chronemics**, studies its attitude toward the past, the present, and the future. In the immediate sense of time, for example scheduling and keeping business and social appointments, cultures may differ considerably in what is considered appropriate. For most U.S. Americans, promptness in keeping appointments is considered a basic courtesy. Being late suggests irresponsibility or a lack of interest. For many

Latin Americans, the time frame for an appointment is more flexible. Appropriate behavior may require being 30 to 45 minutes late in some situations. In these cases, a person who is late does not offend the other person.

How time is used in business meetings reveals major cultural differences. The U.S. economic culture attaches a monetary value to time. We even have a saying, 'Time is money.' Many other cultures, including the Japanese, prefer personal level communication in a meeting before getting on with business. In such an intercultural meeting, the U.S. business people will perceive the personal exchanges as unnecessary and wasted time, while someone from a different culture will value the personal talk and negatively evaluate the impatience of the U.S. participants.

Different cultures also have different long-term views of time. Oriental cultures tend to view time in terms of centuries, rather than years or decades. From this perspective, a goal that is a half-century away is not very distant. In the American culture in the U.S., a shorter view of time prevails. Goals are usually set for a few years or even a few months. While the concept of instant gratification is understood by most U.S. Americans, and practiced by many, it is a time concept that does not exist in many other cultures.

In intercultural communication, chronemics is a major difference reflected in many values and attitudes. Moreover, many people cannot conceive a way of viewing time that is different from their own. These differences in "internal clocks" can lead to many difficulties in intercultural communication. In intercultural settings, basic time considerations such as promptness, socializing or getting down to business, awareness of events from history, are fundamentally different. It requires patience and respect to achieve more effective intercultural communication.

17. SUBCULTURES

Although intercultural differences are more noticeable when communicating with persons from other countries and other major cultural groups, subcultures, for most of us, play a more important role in our daily communication. Most of us encounter persons from other subcultures many times each day. Differences in subcultures may not be as obvious as differences in major cultures. When we overlook these differences, or pretend that they don't exist, we may find ourselves experiencing communication difficulties that are even more difficult to understand because we are not consciously aware of the influence of subculture on communication behaviors.

Subculture *refers to a culture within a culture.* The term does not connote inferiority. In the same way that different major cultures have traits

and variables that are neither right nor wrong, subcultures also have traits that are neither right nor wrong. Subcultures share similarities with the larger parent culture. They also have characteristics that tend to define each subculture, and to influence the communication of members of the subculture.

An example of a subculture in the U.S. is the Italian American subculture. Italian Americans, a large and distinct group, share many values, beliefs, and behaviors with the larger culture in the U.S. In other values and behaviors, Italian Americans more closely resemble the people of their country of origin. Many Italian Americans live in Italian sections of major cities. By doing so, they maintain and reinforce many cultural characteristics of their ancestors. Italian Americans who live outside the Italian communities in American cities usually maintain an identification with the Italian American subculture. Other subcultures in the United States display many of the same tendencies.

The term *acculturation* describes the degree to which a subculture has adopted the characteristics of the dominant culture. A group that is less acculturated is more distinct. In the U.S., several Native American groups have preserved much of their ancestral heritage. They live much as their ancestors did hundreds of years ago. They are less acculturated than other groups because they have adopted less of the dominant culture.

Members of a culture or subculture share a self-perception, or self-identification. In some cases, they identify themselves by race—for example, as African Americans or Asian Americans. Others may identify themselves by ethnic background or religion, geographic location, or a combination of factors. Gender and sexual orientation also reflect different subcultures.

17.1. Interethnic Communication

Members of ethnic groups usually identify themselves in terms of a country or national group. In the U.S., most ethnic groups identify their country of origin, usually the place where their ancestors lived before immigrating here. Some ethnic groups have acculturated to the point where their ethnic identification seems minimal. For example, many immigrants came from Great Britain, yet few people think of themselves as British Americans. Eastern European groups maintain a higher degree of identification with their native cultures. Polish Americans, Croatian Americans, and Russian Americans are examples of groups that are less acculturated.

Persons within the same ethnic group frequently develop communication behaviors that facilitate effective communication with one another. They share adaptations from the dominant culture in both verbal and nonverbal communication behaviors. Interethnic communication occurs when

a member of an ethnic group communicates with a member of a different ethnic group. The less acculturated the ethnic group is, the more likely that intercultural communication difficulties may be present. To be effective in interethnic communication, participants need to be aware that subcultures may have very different values and beliefs, and that their use kinesics, proxemics, and chronemics may also be different.

17.2. Interracial Communication

Interracial communication is also intercultural. In the U.S., most people are involved in interracial communication on a daily basis. Members of a race are usually identified by physical characteristics. Unfortunately, racial differences often trigger stereotypes that interfere with effective communication.

The complexity of interracial communication may be increased by class status and gender identification within each racial group. Individual persons are not influenced just by their racial identification with a larger culture; they are also influenced by class status and gender within their racial group. Middle class within one particular racial group may differ from middle class within another racial group. To complicate matters even more, to be female and middle class, or male and middle class, within one racial group may involve values and beliefs that are different from the counterparts in another racial group.

In the U.S., many persons approach interracial communication with little awareness of the intercultural differences between the races. Those whose selfidentification is with the dominant culture tend to see their cultural norms in terms of right and wrong more than those whose primary identification is with a subculture. Cultural influences in interracial communication, as in all intercultural communication, are neither right nor wrong. They are simply different.

17.3. Countercultural Communication

Another form of intercultural communication comes from countercultures. These subcultures reject many of the values and beliefs of the dominant culture. Members of countercultures frequently identify with a subculture based primarily on the rejection of dominant cultural values and beliefs. The subcultural group identified with gay rights is an example of a countercultural group. The feminist movement is seen by many persons, especially in the dominant culture, as a countercultural group.

When members of countercultures communicate with members of the dominant culture, stereotyping is likely to interfere with effective communication. Awareness of differences frequently produces distortions

and defensiveness. Countercultures usually seek to change the dominant culture's beliefs and values. Many members of countercultures held the beliefs and values of the counterculture long before they identified with it. For these persons, identification with the counterculture does not require a fundamental change in values; it provides an opportunity to express points of view that are contrary to the values and beliefs of the dominant society. Communication between members of the dominant culture and members of countercultures can never be easy because of fundamental value differences. Any culture resists change. Because countercultures usually want to change the dominant culture, conflict is inevitable. To facilitate countercultural communication requires skills of conflict management as well as intercultural communication.

17.4. The Dominant Culture

We have used the term *dominant culture* several times in this chapter. We need to discuss it in more detail at this point. First, remember the term *culture* refers to a complex set of values, beliefs, and behaviors. Culture isn't a "thing." But it is very real, because culture is a major component in each person's identity. Second, by **dominant culture**, we mean *the identities and/or values, beliefs, and behaviors associated with those identities that seem most pervasive in an area (region, nation or state)*. For example, the dominant culture of the U.S. would be American, the result of an amalgam of influences largely due to an Anglo-Saxon, Western, Judeo-Christian heritage. In Canada, the English Canadian culture would be dominant except for Canadians in Quebec, where the dominant culture would be Quebecois.

The dominant culture is the "public" culture, the one seen on television and reflected in the business and governing modes of life. It is the one mostly "in charge." For a culture to be dominant does not necessarily mean it subordinates others though aspects of domination are involved. This complex mix of what is meant by "dominant" and "dominate" makes up a dominant culture.

To discuss this idea is difficult. It is difficult because of the complex of the idea. It is difficult also because of the emotional overtones involved. Perhaps we can illustrate with reference to our earlier point that effective intercultural communication requires accepting differences. At first, such a recommendation seems easy. We think, "Sure, I can accept that it's OK to wear clothes traditionally associated with a different culture. No style of dress is necessarily better than another. "But suppose we extend the example. Can a Sioux computer salesperson almost anywhere in the U.S. wear traditional Native American clothing?

The computer salesperson illustrates what is meant by a dominant culture. The dominant U.S. culture approves of a Sioux wearing Native

American clothes on Sioux land or in certain restricted occupations, but not in general and certainly not in business settings. Another style of dress is both pensive and approved. In other words, the dominant cultures prescription about what to wear is not only accepted by most people, but is valued most.

Another reason discussing the idea of dominant culture is difficult is that it tends to be identified with a dominant group. And again, a complex mix of most pervasive and most valued is involved. The dominant culture tends to be identified with the group that has the most resources and is most valued, but the identification is not total. Many people who share the dominant culture do not have many resources and may not be part of the major group identified with the dominant culture. Many poor people in the U.S., for instance, share the values and beliefs of a dominant culture. They behave in many of the same ways as wealthier U.S. Americans, and would behave even more like their rich counterparts if they had more money.

Moreover, many people in the U.S. believe so strongly in the melting pot myth they reject the idea of a dominant culture. Many people hold that no group dominates others. They believe the values of individual achievement and hard work have determined who is “in charge,” that group identification has nothing to do with what behaviors or beliefs are valued. Or they argue, at least today, now that racial discrimination is outlawed, every individual has equal opportunity and thus group identification is not a matter of dominance.

It is true that a dominant culture is not limited to any identifiable group. Since cultures are formed from similar values, beliefs, and behaviors, there is no *necessary* identification between any group of people and a particular culture. The characteristics that reflect the Japanese culture could have been those of the English. The characteristics of Koreans could have been those of the Greeks. But in any place with a recognizable identity, there is a dominant culture—a widely adopted and “approved” way of behaving, comprised of a complex mix of many factors, but especially of values, beliefs, and behaviors.

Remember, however, that the dominant culture rarely characterizes *all* people within a culture. Many variations exist within each culture. Other kinds of identities exist and exert their influence in the ways discussed above. In the U.S., this mix of dominant and subcultures is more extreme than almost anywhere in the world due to the number of groups that have come here. Probably the only place with a wider mix of cultures was the Soviet Union, which seems to be dissolving at the moment this is being written. As a result of the freedom and general welcome given to various groups here, the differences between the dominant culture in the U.S. and the many subcultures are not only many, but very noticeable.

Indeed, we believe the mix of many subcultures constitutes one of the greatest strengths of U.S. culture. But the mix also makes much

communication in this country, whether in personal or work settings, more difficult. To use the strength available from diversity, differences must be recognized. More important, they must be valued. To do either requires the recognition that a dominant culture has existed in the U.S., and to a large extent still exists.

18. GENDER

Another complexity in discussing intercultural communication is the element of gender. While much said earlier can be applied to improving communication between men and women, using a perspective of intercultural communication can be useful as well.

Researchers from a variety of fields now believe that male-female communication can usefully be described as intercultural communication. A recent best-selling book developed such a thesis. Deborah Tannen in *You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation* argues that men and women would communicate better if they recognized they have grown up in essentially different cultures. She suggests that men's culture is predominantly characterized by a desire for independence, with a strong emphasis on achievement and competition to get there. In contrast, she sees women's culture as characterized by a desire for intimacy, with a strong emphasis on relationships and a correspondingly weak emphasis on achievement and competition. Carole Gilligan articulates a similar description of women in her popular book *In a Different Voice*. Predating both Tannen and Gilligan were Jean Baker Miller and Anne Wilson Schaef, both of whom suggest that women see the world quite differently from men. Many feminist theorists have made similar arguments.

These ideas about differences between men and women relate to intercultural communication in a number of ways. You probably noticed the similarity between what Tannen described as men's culture and what we earlier said is a major characteristic of the dominant culture in the U.S. Men's culture includes a strong emphasis on individual achievement. Significantly, that achievement value is measured nearly totally in the public world, whether that "public" world is defined as work, government, or entertainment, including sports. Until recently, women's participation in the public world of the dominant culture was largely in roles identified with subordinate positions and service roles. Thus, they were a submerged, largely silent part of the public world.

It is still largely true that the dominant U.S. culture identifies a public world where men "should" operate and a private world where women "belong." While much press has accompanied men's growing concern with their families, no sanction yet exists for men to forsake public employment in

favor of parenting. The women's movement has resulted in a major redefinition of public/private relationships for women. More women now work outside the home in more elevated work roles. The dominant culture largely accepts such behavior, but many people still resist the changes. It is, for example, still women who feel guilty at leaving young children to go to an outside job. If men feel guilt at going outside the home to work it is their guilt at not making enough money so their wives can stay at home with the children. Strong evidence identifies a glass ceiling separating women from top management positions. Women still dominate service roles. Only 2 percent of secretaries are men; male nurses, while less rare than they used to be, still constitute only a small percentage of all nurses.

The dominant culture has sanctioned women's entry into the public world, but not their exit from the private world. And a redefinition of men's roles has not occurred. Moreover, the dominant U.S. culture still sees the private world as subordinate to the public one. Nor does it give men's roles a status equivalent to women in the private world. In most families, women are still primarily responsible for the relationship maintenance tasks. They arrange for the social affairs, do the "family" work. Research completed in the late 1980s demonstrated that women in most homes still do most of the childcare. When men share home duties it is largely seen as "helping" the wife, not part of their role. When a man chooses to stay home to raise children while his wife is the primary breadwinner, he is treated as an aberration. When the 1991 Persian Gulf war called parents to active duty in an overseas war zone, almost everyone who commented on the trauma of children being left behind said it was worse that mothers had to go than it was for fathers to leave. In every previous U.S. war, thousands of fathers have left children behind. Everyone was sad. But when mothers went, virtually every commentator believed it was worse.

Thus, women still remain identified with the private world, men with the public. It is not surprising, therefore, that men and women may reflect different cultures in their communication. Nor, since the dominant U.S. culture is identified with the public world, is it surprising that men tend to reflect the values of the dominant culture, while women do so less obviously.

Several factors make intercultural communication between men and women especially difficult. First, neither is likely to recognize that different cultures are involved. Indeed, many reject such an idea. Almost universally, people believe that men and women are quite different. Who hasn't heard, "That's just like a man!" or the plaintive, "What do women want?" Yet these differences are usually thought of as personal defects that could be easily corrected "If he would just be more thoughtful," or "if she would just think more like a man."

Moreover, it's harder to see differences between values, beliefs, and behaviors of the public and private world than some other intercultural

differences. Since the values of the public world seem identical with the values of the dominant U.S. culture, the strong if unstated sense is that public values are somehow better. Therefore, an undercurrent (usually unstated) of valuing one culture more than the other pervades the intercultural communication between women and men.

Now we need to introduce important reservations about what we've presented. First, much of the research about the differences between the communication of men and women is based on only one class and race. What we have described may be accurate only for white and middle-class people. Since fewer people from minority groups are likely to share all the values or behaviors of the dominant U.S. culture, the descriptions we have given may not be accurate for them. What may characterize male-female communication in various subcultures may be quite different.

On the other hand, many people from minority groups have strongly endorsed at least some of the values of the dominant culture. Some have seen it as a way to achieve the material progress necessary for security or comfort. In short, no one description of culture fits all people, whether that person is in or out of any identifiable group. What Tannen designates as men's culture isn't shared by all men. It is not shared to the same extent by all. What is seen as women's culture doesn't characterize all women. Some women exhibit more of men's cultural characteristics. Second, remember that diversity characterizes every culture. Not every person in a particular culture shares every characteristic of that culture.

Finally, we recognize major changes are taking place. Material progress, seen as necessary for security as well as a sign of achievement, is accomplished only by embracing the values of the public world, because only those values are rewarded economically. Thus, there is strong pressure for women to adopt the values of the public world. As more and more women move into nonservice roles in the public world, will they embrace that dominant culture? If so, will the cultural differences separating women and men diminish? What will nourish the values of the private world? Can women merge both sets of values? Will values of the private world come to be seen in men? Will a "melting pot" metaphor describe the changes in women's culture? If not, the male-female differences will still exist.

It is becoming less rare than it used to be for men to consider relationships as important as personal achievement. But until that becomes a pervasive value, male-female communication in the U.S. will still exhibit many components of intercultural communication. Men and women talking with each other will still be complicated by lack of recognition of cultural differences and accompanied by the undervaluing of women's culture.

Moreover, economics and other cultural values will make it difficult for either men or women to value equally the personal and relationship values not

regarded highly in the dominant culture. Male-female communication will remain among the most difficult of interpersonal communication situations.

19. IMPROVING INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

We communicate with persons from other cultures and subcultures in many of our daily activities. Our goal is to increase effectiveness so the results will be satisfactory. Intercultural communication, like all other forms of communication, requires understanding and practice for improvement. No simple formulas can guarantee improvement. Awareness of intercultural variables, however, can be an important first step toward improvement.

19.1. Developing Intercultural Awareness

Intercultural awareness begins with the acceptance of differences. People of different cultures and subcultures often do not share values, languages, norms, customs, or thought patterns. These differences may cause us to feel uncomfortable or awkward in intercultural situations. By accepting these differences, rather than trying to evaluate them as right or wrong according to our own cultural identification, we can minimize some of the feeling of awkwardness and discomfort.

Many persons hold negative attitudes about other cultures and subcultures. Frequently the attitudes result in stereotypes, and these interfere with effective communication. To overcome negative attitudes and stereotypes, if they are present, we need to examine the thought processes and experiences that created them.

Stereotypes frequently develop from generalizations based on very few cases, or from nonrepresentative instance. To improve communication, intercultural awareness requires two important skills. The first is to eliminate the stereotype that may lead us to prejudge another person in a negative manner. The second is to recognize that cultural differences are not right or wrong. Each culture has its own norms which, as the word suggests, are normal to that culture. By eliminating stereotypes, and by accepting cultural differences, we can make intercultural awareness a positive factor in intercultural communication situations.

19.2. Money Doesn't Motivate Most Employees Today!

Money can motivate some people under some conditions. So the issue isn't really whether or not money can motivate. The answer to that is: It can! The more relevant question is: Does money motivate most employees in the

work force today to higher performance? The answer to this question, we'll argue, is "No."

For money to motivate an individual's performance, certain conditions must be met. First, money must be important to the individual. Second, money must be perceived by the individual as being a direct reward for performance. Third, the marginal amount of money offered for the performance must be perceived by the individual as being significant. Finally, management must have the discretion to reward high performers with more money. Let's take a look at each of these conditions.

Money is not important to all employees. High achievers, for instance, are intrinsically motivated. Money should have little impact on these people. Similarly, money is relevant to those individuals with strong lower-order needs; but for most of the work force, their lower-order needs are substantially satisfied.

Money would motivate if employees perceived a strong linkage between performance and rewards in organizations. Unfortunately, pay increases are far more often determined by community pay standards, the national cost-of-living index, and the organization's current and future financial prospects than by each employee's level of performance.

For money to motivate, the marginal difference in pay increases between a high performer and an average performer must be significant. In practice, it rarely is. For instance, a high-performing employee who currently is earning \$30,000 a year is given a \$200-a-month raise. After taxes, that amounts to about \$35 a week. But this employee's \$30,000-a-year co-worker, who is an average performer, is rarely passed over at raise time. Instead of getting an eight percent raise, he is likely to get half of that. The net difference in their weekly paychecks is probably less than \$20. How much motivation is there in knowing that if you work really hard you're going to end up with \$20 a week more than someone who is doing just enough to get by? For a large number of people, not much!

Our last point relates to the degree of discretion that managers have in being able to reward high performers. Where unions exist, that discretion is almost zero. Pay is determined through collective bargaining and is allocated by job title and seniority, not level of performance. In nonunionized environments, the organization's compensation policies will constrain managerial discretion. Each job typically has a pay grade. So a Systems Analyst III can earn between \$3525 and \$4140 a month. No matter how good a job that analyst does, her boss cannot pay her more than \$4140 a month. Similarly, no matter how poorly someone does in that job, he will earn at least \$3525 a month. In most organizations, managers have a very small area of discretion within which they can reward their higher-performing employees. So money might be theoretically capable of motivating employees to higher levels of performance, but most managers aren't given enough flexibility to do much about it.

COURSE TASKS:

1. Make up a logic scheme of your basic knowledge on unit's theme.

2. SELF-ASSESSMENT:

1. Define motivation. Describe the motivation process.
2. What are the implications of Theories X and Y for motivation practices?
3. Compare and contrast Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory with (a) Alderfer's ERG theory and (b) Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory.
4. Describe the three needs isolated by McClelland. How are they related to worker behavior?
5. "The cognitive evaluation theory is contradictory to reinforcement and expectancy theories." Do you agree or disagree? Explain.
6. According to the job characteristics model, how does a job score high in motivating potential?
7. "Goal setting is part of both reinforcement and expectancy theories." Do you agree or disagree? Explain.
8. What is the social information-processing model? What are its implications for motivating people at work?
9. Analyze the application of Maslow's and Herzberg's theories to an African or Caribbean nation where more than a quarter of the population is unemployed.
10. Can an individual be too motivated, so that his or her performance declines as a result of excessive effort? Discuss.
11. Explain the formula; $\text{Performance} = f(A \cdot M \cdot O)$ and give an example.
12. Identify three activities you really enjoy (for example, playing tennis, reading a novel, going shopping). Next, identify three activities you really dislike (for example, going to the dentist, cleaning the house, staying on a restricted calorie diet). Using the expectancy model, analyze each of your answers to assess why some activities stimulate your effort while others don't.
13. Relate goal-setting theory to the MBO process. How are they similar? Different?
14. How might a college instructor use OB Mod to improve learning in the classroom?
15. Do you think participative management is likely to be more effective in certain types of organizations? With certain types of employees? Discuss.
16. Identify five different criteria by which organizations can compensate employees. Based on your knowledge and experience, do you think performance is the criterion most used in practice? Discuss.

17. "Performance can't be measured, so pay-for-performance is a fantasy. Differences in performance are often caused by the system, which means the organization ends up rewarding the circumstances. It's the same thing as rewarding the weatherman for a pleasant day." Do you agree or disagree with this statement? Support your position.
18. What drawbacks, if any, do you see in implementing flexible benefits? (Consider this question from the perspective of both the organization and the employee.)
19. "The competitive marketplace acts as an efficient means of ensuring that pay equity is achieved." Do you agree or disagree with this statement? Support your position.
20. Does flextime have an impact on any of the five core dimensions in the job characteristics model? Discuss.
21. Would you want a full-time job telecommuting? How do you think most of your friends would feel about such a job? Do you think telecommuting has a future?
22. As a manager, what would you do to enrich an employee's job?
23. "Employees should have jobs that give them autonomy and diversity." Build an argument to support this statement. Then negate your argument.
24. Students often complain about doing group projects in a class. Why is that? Relate your answer to self-managed work teams. Would you want to be a member of one? Discuss.

3. TEST-TRAINING:

Part 1:

What motivates you?

For each of the following fifteen statements, circle the number that most closely agrees with how you feel. Consider your answers in the context on your current job or past work experience.

	<i>strongly disagree</i>			<i>strongly agree</i>		
1. I try hard to improve on my past performance at work.	1	2	3	4	5	
2. I enjoy competition and winning.	1	2	3	4	5	
3. I often find myself talking to those around me about nonwork matters.	1	2	3	4	5	
4. I enjoy a difficult challenge.	1	2	3	4	5	

5. I enjoy being in charge.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I want to be liked by others.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I want to know how I am progressing as I complete tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I confront people who do things I disagree with.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I tend to build close relationships with co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I enjoy setting and achieving realistic goals.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I enjoy influencing other people to get my way.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I enjoy belonging to groups and organizations.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I enjoy the satisfaction of completing a difficult task.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I often work to gain more control over the events around me.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I enjoy working with others more than working alone.	1	2	3	4	5

PART 2:

How Equity-Sensitive Are You?

The following questions ask what you'd like your relationship to be with any organization for which you might work. For each question, divide ten points between the two answers (A and B) by giving the most points to the answer that is least like you. You can, if you like, give the same number of points to both answers. And you can use zeros if you'd like. Just be sure to use all ten points on each question. Place your points in the blank next to each letter.

ANY ORGANIZATION I MIGHT WORK FOR:

- It would be more important for me to:
 - A.** Get from the organization
 - B.** Give to the organization
- It would be more important for me to:
 - A.** Help others
 - B.** Watch out for my own good
- It would be more concerned about:
 - A.** What I receive from the organization

- ☐ **B.** What I contribute to the organization
- 4.** The hard work I would do should:
 - ☐ **A.** Benefit the organization
 - ☐ **B.** Benefit me
- 5.** My personal philosophy in dealing with the organization would be:
 - ☐ **A.** If you don't look out for yourself, nobody else will
 - ☐ **B.** It's better to give than to receive

ROLE PLAY

PART 1:

CASE-INCIDENT 1

Read the text and prepare to answer the questions.

FRANK PACETTA INSPIRES LOVE AND FEAR

When Frank Pacetta took over Cleveland area office for Xerox in 1987, it was in a shambles. Turnover was high, morale was low, customers were defecting, and the office's overall performance was ranked near the bottom at Xerox. "When Xerox came out with its 'Leadership Through Quality' literature," one customer said, "we read it and laughed. "

They aren't laughing anymore. The thirty-three-year-old Pacetta called his staff together on his first day as district manager and vowed that the Cleveland district would finish the year number one in the region. It had finished last the previous year. The staff thought he was nuts. But in Pacetta's first year, the district soared to number one among the twelve regional offices and number four among all sixty-five Xerox districts. During the next three years, he increased operating profits forty-three percent.

How was Pacetta able to turn around the Cleveland office when others couldn't? Essentially, he plied his staff with sales incentives and pep talks, while weeding out employees who couldn't meet his pumped-up sales targets.

Pacetta established a new ethos. He arrived at 7 a.m., an hour earlier than his predecessor, and expected others to do the same. He created a fraternity atmosphere in the office, with parties and pep rallies and recognition for birthdays and anniversaries. He showered his people with plaques and praise for jobs well done. He wanted them to know that he sincerely cared about them and their work.

Pacetta's greatest motivational tools are money and prizes. His top entry-level salespeople can earn an additional \$35,000 in commissions over

and above their \$25,000 base salary. In 1990, his top sales manager made \$93,000 and two account managers made just over \$100,000. Pacetta has also created elaborate sales contests, with some winners getting cash of \$2000 or \$3000, and others getting videocassette recorders and microwave ovens. And, of course, Cleveland employees participate in company-wide incentives, such as a vacation trip each year for top sales reps.

The competitive atmosphere that Pacetta has created in the Cleveland office seems to overshadow the fact that some prizes have little real value. Rather, their value is symbolic. For instance, each month the district's eight sales managers vote for the best and worst manager of the previous month. The winner gets to park in a garage - all others use a lot - and the loser gets a troll-like doll on a rope hung in his or her office. Said one sales manager, "No one wants that doll!"

While Pacetta is quick to encourage and reward his high performers, he has little tolerance for slackers. In his first four years in Cleveland, about seventy percent of his fifty-seven-member staff quit, moved to another district, or were fired. "If someone is just going through the motions, I have no trouble pulling the trigger," Pacetta says.

QUESTIONS:

1. What motivation concepts does Frank Pacetta seem to be using?
2. Pacetta's motivational approach has worked in Xerox's Cleveland office. Under what conditions do you think his approach would fail? Explain.
3. Would you like to work for Frank Pacetta? Why or why not?

CASE-INCIDENT 2

Read the text and prepare to answer the questions.

THE VOLVO EXPERIMENT: WHERE HAPPY WORKERS AREN'T PRODUCTIVE WORKERS

In this course, Volvo's Uddevalla plant was briefly mentioned for its teambased approach to automobile production. It was noted that using teams raised employee's motivation by increasing their range of skills and giving them more control over their jobs. Well, it does. But not without some serious side effects. This case reassesses Volvo's experience at Uddevalla.

Volvo's Uddevalla car assembly plant opened in 1988. It was designed from scratch to be a replacement for the traditional assembly line. It has six assembly areas that can handle up to eight teams of eight to ten people. Each team builds four cars at the same time. No more than three people

work on a car simultaneously. When running at capacity – one shift and forty-eight teams – the plant can produce forty thousand cars a year.

Volvo developed this novel plant mainly as a solution to the high absentee rates that prevail in Sweden. The company's goal was to get productivity and quality levels at Uddevalla to at least equal those of Volvo's two other Swedish assembly plants, but with absenteeism much lower than the twenty to thirty percent norm in Sweden. By way of comparison, the absenteeism rates at European assembly plants and at the North American assembly plants of American car makers are around twelve percent; they are a mere five percent at Japanese factories in Japan. Three years after the plant opened, Volvo's management was rumored to be considering abandoning the team approach. Why? Conditions have changed in Sweden, the Uddevalla plant has failed to achieve its original productivity and absenteeism goals, and other Volvo plants and the competition have raised their productivity.

The Uddevalla concept was at a time when nearly all large Swedish employers were struggling to cope with the high absenteeism work. For instance, workers got at least ninety percent of their pay – and usually one hundred percent – for their first three days out of work. However, the Swedish government has since modified this policy, so that workers now receive only seventy-five percent of their pay when they stay home from work. This has lessened the absenteeism problem in the country.

While there is little debate about quality and worker satisfaction at Uddevalla – everyone seems to agree that the team approach has improved both – productivity and absenteeism rates have not responded the way management expected. Instead of making forty thousand cars a year, Uddevalla produces only twenty-two thousand. The number of labor-hours needed to assemble a car at Uddevalla is fifty, compared to twenty-five hours at Volvo's Belgium plant and less than twenty hours for Japanese car makers. And surprisingly, even the absence data are not impressive. Short-term absenteeism has not declined. It averaged 12,2 percent in 1990 and hit 14 percent in early 1991. When long-term leaves for caring for newborn children, military service, education, and long-term disability are taken into account, total absenteeism at Uddevalla is about twenty-two percent. And don't forget, the team approach is far more costly for management to install because workers have to be trained to do multiple jobs. At Uddevalla, a worker typically requires sixteen months of training before becoming capable of doing two or three of the seven groups of tasks needed to build a car. That compares with only about a month for most employees on North American auto assembly lines.

Finally, dramatic increases in productivity by its competitors means that all of Volvo's plants have to run faster just to stay even. Volvo's other two Swedish plants have responded to orders to improve their competitiveness

dramatically. But being good by Swedish standards is not good enough. What really matters is how a factory stacks up against the world competition. By that standard, the Uddevalla plant is wanting. As noted, the Japanese can produce comparable cars using only forty percent of the labor.

Lennart Ericsson, president of the chapter of the Mental Workers Union that represents the blue-collar workers at Volvo's Uddevalla plant, says, "I am convinced that our way will be successful and competitive." He also says that the level of worker satisfaction is much higher than it would be if Uddevalla had a traditional assembly line. Volvo's president, Christer Zetterberg, says that it's premature to pronounce the Uddevalla approach a failure, but "we can never run factories long term which are not competitive." If it "doesn't come out as a viable concept from a productivity point of view, we will, of course, rebuild the factory."

QUESTIONS:

1. Using the job characteristics model, explain how Uddevalla's team approach should increase motivation and productivity and lead to reduced absenteeism.
2. Why hasn't it worked out that way at Uddevalla?
3. What does this case suggest in terms of the universal effectiveness of self-managed teams?

PART 2:

SITUATIONS FOR TUTORIAL

Situation 1

IMPROVING YOUR UNDERSTANDING OF HOW TO MOTIVATE OTHERS

This exercise is designed to help increase awareness of how and why one motivates others and to help focus on the needs of those we are attempting to motivate.

1. Begin by breaking the class into groups of five to seven each. Then each student should individually read and respond to the following:

Situation 1:

You are the owner and CEO of a moderate-sized corporation. Your objective is to motivate all your subordinates to the highest level possible.

Task 1A:

On a separate sheet of paper, list the factors you would use to motivate your employees. Avoid generalities – be as specific as possible.

Task 1B:

Rank-order the factors you listed in 1A above.

2. Now complete the following in the same manner.

Situation 2:

You are an employee of a moderate-sized corporation. The company CEO has asked all employees to help in developing an effective motivational system. The CEO has asked for your response to Task 2A and 2B.

Task 2A:

List the factors that would most effectively motivate you. Avoid generalities - be as specific as possible.

Task 2B:

Rank-order the factors you listed in 2A above.

3. After completing both 1 and 2 above, each group should do the following:

a. Share the list of motivational factors 1A and ranking 1B with other members of their group.

b. Share the list of motivational factors 2A and ranking 2B with other members of their group.

4. Group members should discuss the following:

a. Are each individual's 1A and 2A list more similar or more dissimilar? What does this mean?

b. Does everyone's 1A and 2A lists in your group contain basically the same items? What does this mean?

c. Are the 1B and 2B lists in your group more similar or more dissimilar? What does this mean?

d. What have you learned about how and why you motivate others as you do and how can you apply these data?

5. Each group should appoint a spokesperson to present its answers to 4a-d to the class.

Situation 2

GOAL-SETTING TASK

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

TIME: Approximately 20 to 30 minutes.

INSTRUCTIONS:

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

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR
ОРГАНИЗАЦИОННОЕ ПОВЕДЕНИЕ
Юнита 4

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