

GLOBAL
EDITION



Organizational Behavior

NINETEENTH EDITION

Stephen P. Robbins | Timothy A. Judge



ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

19TH EDITION
GLOBAL EDITION

Stephen P. Robbins

—San Diego State University

Timothy A. Judge

—The Ohio State University



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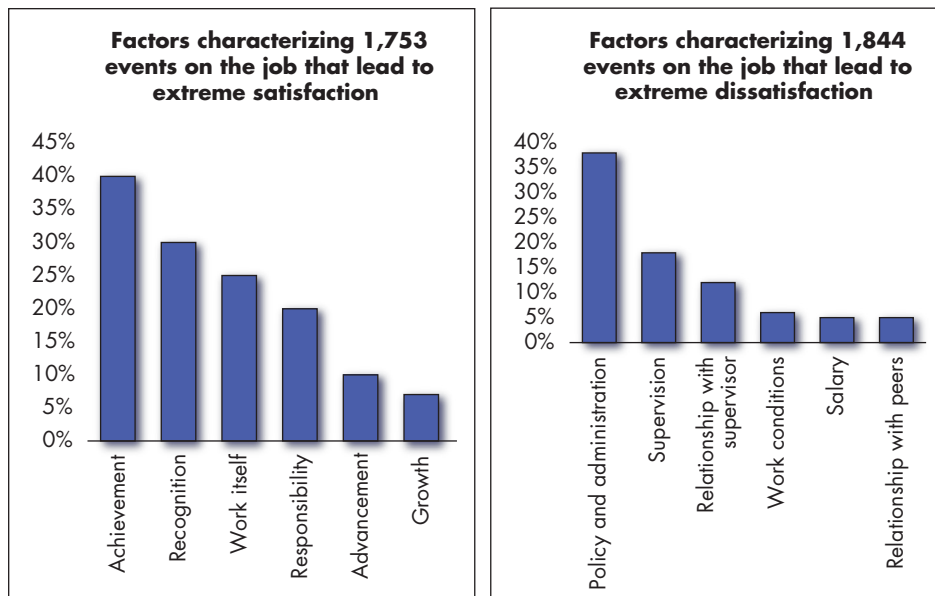
Exhibit 7-1**Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**

Source: Based on H. Skelsey, "Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs—the Sixth Level," *Psychologist* (2014): 982–83.

The responses differed significantly and led Herzberg to his **two-factor theory** (also called *motivation-hygiene theory*, but this term is not used much today).¹² Two-factor theory is inherently tied to job satisfaction (see the chapter on job attitudes) and expresses motivation in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic factors that impact job satisfaction.

Under two-factor theory, the factors that lead to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. As shown in Exhibit 7-2, intrinsic factors such as advancement, recognition, responsibility, and achievement seem related to job satisfaction. Respondents who felt good about their work tended to attribute these factors to their situations, while dissatisfied respondents tended to cite extrinsic factors, such as supervision, pay, company policies, and work conditions.

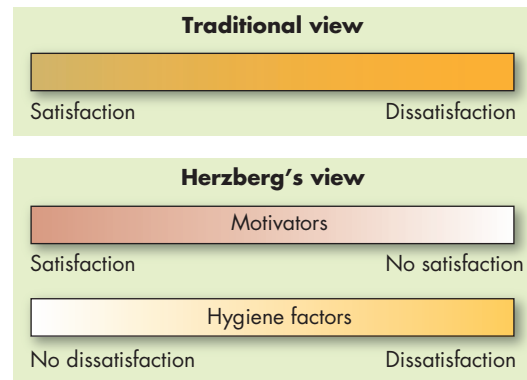
two-factor theory A theory that relates intrinsic factors to job satisfaction and associates extrinsic factors with dissatisfaction. Also called motivation-hygiene theory.

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

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

Exhibit 7-3

Contrasting View of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction



To Herzberg, the data suggest that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, as was traditionally believed (see Exhibit 7-3). Removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying; managers would be placating rather than motivating employees. Herzberg proposed a dual continuum: The opposite of “satisfaction” is “no satisfaction,” and the opposite of “dissatisfaction” is “no dissatisfaction.”

Conditions such as quality of supervision, pay, company policies, physical work conditions, relationships with others, and job security are **hygiene factors**. When they are adequate, people will not be dissatisfied; neither will they be satisfied. If we want to *motivate* people on their jobs, we should emphasize factors associated with the work itself or with outcomes directly derived from it, such as promotional opportunities, personal growth opportunities, recognition, responsibility, and achievement. These are the characteristics people find intrinsically rewarding.

The two-factor theory has not been well supported in research. Criticisms center on Herzberg's original methodology and his assumptions, such as how the participants may be biased in thinking back to times when they felt good or bad about their jobs.¹³ Furthermore, if hygiene and motivational factors are equally important to a person, both should be capable of motivating. Regardless of the criticisms, Herzberg's theory has been quite influential and has been used in many studies.¹⁴ Most managers worldwide are familiar with its recommendations.

McClelland's Theory of Needs

Imagine that you are a sales manager in a well-known mountaineer outfitting company, reviewing the bonus memo you received earlier in the day. If you meet the easier, level 1 sales goal, you will get a \$2,000 bonus. If you meet the level 2 sales goal (which only 80 percent of the people who attempt actually attain), you will get a \$4,000 bonus. Level 3 pays \$8,000, but only half the people who try can attain it. Finally, Level 4 pays \$32,000, but it is almost impossible to achieve. Which would you try for? If you selected level 3, you are likely a high achiever.

McClelland's theory of needs, unlike Maslow's hierarchy, suggests that needs are more like motivating factors than prerequisites for survival.¹⁵ In McClelland and colleagues' theory, there are three primary needs:

- **Need for achievement (nAch)** is the need to excel or achieve to a set of standards.

hygiene factors Factors—such as company policy and administration, supervision, and salary—that, when adequate in a job, placate workers and limit job dissatisfaction.

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

need for achievement (nAch) The need to excel or achieve to a set of standards.

- **Need for power (nPow)** is the need to make others behave in a way they would not have otherwise.
- **Need for affiliation (nAff)** is the need to establish friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

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

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

McClelland and subsequent researchers focused most of their attention on nAch.¹⁶ In general, high achievers perform best when they perceive their probability of success as 0.5—that is, a fifty-fifty chance. Similarly, they dislike low odds (high probability of success) because then there is no challenge to their skills. Based on prior nAch research, we can predict some relationships between nAch and job performance. First, when employees have a high level of nAch, they tend to exhibit more positive moods and be more interested in the task at hand.¹⁷ Second, employees high on nAch tend to perform very well in high-stakes conditions on the job, like work walkthroughs or sales encounters.¹⁸

The other needs within the theory have also been empirically supported. First, the nPow concept has research support, but it may be more familiar to people in broad terms than in relation to the original definition.¹⁹ We will discuss power much more in the chapter on power and politics. Second, the nAff concept is also well established and accepted in research—for example, one study of 145 teams suggests that groups composed of employees with a high nAff tend to perform the best, exhibit the most open communication, and experience the least amount of conflict (compared with the other needs).²⁰ Additional research suggests that our individual differences (discussed in the chapter on personality and individual differences) may affect whether we can satisfy these needs. For example, a high degree of neuroticism can prevent one from fulfilling the nAff, whereas agreeableness supports fulfillment of this need; interestingly, extroversion had no significant effect.²¹ Furthermore, some evidence suggests that women may be more likely to have more nAff needs than men.²²

The degree to which we have each of the three needs is difficult to measure, and therefore the theory is difficult to put into practice. A behavior may be directed at satisfying many different needs, and many different behaviors may be directed at satisfying one given need, making needs difficult to isolate and examine.²³ Therefore, the concepts are helpful, but they are not often used objectively.

Contemporary Theories: A Primer

Although these three classic theories are quite common, they do not represent the universe of influential motivation theories in management. In fact, a number of distinct motivation theories have made a substantial contribution, helping illuminate the nature of motivation in organizations. Some of these theories may also be considered “classics” (e.g., behaviorism, expectancy theory), while others may be relatively more modern. Regardless, these theories share the fact that they are still the focus of (mostly supportive) research and practice in OB to this day, which makes them “contemporary” theories in our view. These “contemporary theories” represent the latest thinking in explaining employee motivation. This does not mean they are unquestionably right, however.

To help categorize these motivation theories, it might be helpful to break down the core components of these theories. Researchers, for instance, have classified motivation theories into three categories: (a) *content*, (b) *context*, and (c) *processes*.²⁴ The *content* category is primarily concerned with fundamental motives and individual differences in motivation states common to all people. This category includes self-determination theory, regulatory-focus theory, and job engagement theory. The *context* category involves sources of motivation that

stem from the contexts people find themselves in. For instance, the theories of reinforcement, behaviorism, and social learning (which some would also consider to be classics) would fit in here. Next, the *process* category involves the direct motivation theories that focus on the process of choosing and striving toward goals. This includes expectancy, goal-setting, and self-efficacy theories. Although some may correctly suggest that justice and organizational justice are fundamental motives and would fit into the “content” category, given their importance to ethics in organizations, we close our discussion of motivation theories by devoting an entire section to them.

Contemporary Theories of Motivation: Content-Based

7-3 Contrast the content-based theories of motivation, including self-determination theory, regulatory-focus theory, and job engagement theory.

self-determination theory A meta-theory of motivation at work that is concerned with autonomy, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and the satisfaction of psychological work needs.

Self-Determination Theory

Think of what led you to choose your college major. Did you feel like you had a choice in the matter? Did you feel free to explore and choose a major that was right for you? Were others pressuring you to choose a major? Did you feel like you had the support of your parents, friends, and teachers? These questions are all relevant to a self-determination theory (SDT) perspective on motivation.²⁵

Self-determination theory (SDT) proposes that employees’ well-being and performance are influenced by the nature of their motivation for certain job activities.²⁶ For instance, a sense of choice over what they do, how motivating the task is in and of itself, how rewards influence motivation, and how work satisfies psychological needs are all fundamental components of SDT. The theory is actually a *meta-theory* (or a collection of related theories behind a common theme) and is widely used in psychology, management, education, and medical research. A key tenant of SDT is that motivation can be either *autonomous* (e.g., freely chosen) or *controlled* (e.g., as a result of others’ pressure or direction). Supporting SDT, data from approximately 40,000 schoolteachers showed that autonomous motivation had pronounced effects on teacher well-being, stress, and teaching quality.²⁷

Cognitive Evaluation Theory “It’s strange,” said Jordan. “I started work at the Humane Society as a volunteer. I put in fifteen hours a week helping people adopt pets. I loved coming to work. But then, three months ago, they hired me full-time at \$11 an hour. I am doing the same work I did before. But I’m not finding it as much fun.” Does Jordan’s reaction seem counterintuitive?

One explanation can be found in **cognitive evaluation theory (CET)**, a sub-theory that suggests that extrinsic rewards (e.g., pay) reduce people’s intrinsic interest in a task.²⁸ When people are paid for work, it feels less like something they *want* to do and more like something they *must* do. For example, if a computer programmer values writing code out of a love for solving problems, a bonus for writing a certain number of lines of code every day could feel coercive, and the programmer’s intrinsic motivation could suffer.

CET suggests that some caution in the use of extrinsic rewards to motivate is wise and that pursuing goals from intrinsic motives (such as a strong interest in the work itself) is better for sustaining motivation. Similarly, CET suggests that providing extrinsic incentives may, in many cases, undermine intrinsic motivation. In support, research confirms that intrinsic motivation contributes to the quality of work, while incentives contribute to the quantity of work. The effects of intrinsic motivation may be weaker when incentives are directly tied to performance (such as a monetary bonus for each call made in a call center).²⁹

cognitive evaluation theory A sub-theory of self-determination theory in which extrinsic rewards for behavior tend to decrease the overall level of motivation if the rewards are seen as controlling or reduce their sense of competence.

Self-Concordance Theory Another aspect of self-determination theory is **self-concordance theory**, which considers how strongly people's reasons for pursuing goals are consistent with their interests and core values.³⁰ People who pursue work goals that align with their interests and values are more satisfied with their jobs, feel they fit into their organizations better, and may perform better.³¹ Across cultures, if individuals pursue goals because of intrinsic interest, they are more likely to attain goals, are happier when they do so, and are happy even if they are unable to attain them.³² Why? Because they feel like they are more competent at accomplishing the goal and feel like they fit better with their organization. When people do not enjoy their work for intrinsic reasons, those who work because they feel obligated to do so can still perform acceptably, though they experience higher levels of strain.³³ On the other hand, even gig workers who work short-term contracts (defined explicitly by rewards) are likely to be motivated if their psychological needs, values, and interests are met by their job.³⁴ Self-concordance has recently been extended toward research on social responsibility. If your interests in sustainability align with your organization's, you may be more likely to engage in more socially responsible behaviors.³⁵

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

Basic Psychological Needs Similar to Maslow's and McClelland's theories, discussed in the prior section, SDT also suggests that there are several basic psychological needs that affect work motivation. When they are satisfied, we tend to be more motivated; when they are frustrated, we tend to be less motivated. *Need for relatedness* is very similar to nAff, discussed in the prior section. However, **need for autonomy** and **need for competence** are two newer needs that correspond with the need to feel in control and autonomous at work and the need to feel like we are good at what we do and proud of it.³⁷ SDT proposes that, in addition to being driven by a need for autonomy, people seek ways to achieve competence and make positive connections with others. Of all the three needs, however, the need for autonomy is the most important for attitudinal and affective

need for autonomy The need to feel in control and autonomous at work.

need for competence The need to feel like we are good at what we do or proud of it.

Work Has to Be Purposeful to Be Motivating

Myth or Science?

Describing the impact employees' work has on the world has become a familiar strategy that organizations use to inspire employees. For example, Amazon tells employees they are building the future, and Microsoft describes how employees empower individuals and organizations around the world to achieve more. The belief is that if workers view their job as purposeful, organizations can avert demotivation.

However, only a small percentage of employees worldwide, regardless of the company they belong to, appear to be motivated and engaged. While employees who find work meaningful experience significantly higher job satisfaction, a fixation on purpose

could have unintended consequences. Although workplaces from IKEA to Microsoft promise meaningful work with a greater purpose, employees' tasks may be routine and disconnected from the inspirational purpose organizations are promising. One survey of seven hundred employees across twenty-two industries demonstrates this disconnect. In this study, all but one employee were able to very quickly identify a trivial or meaningless task that they were required to do regularly for their job. In other words, most employees seem to recognize that their jobs have some tasks that seem mundane or trivial. When their supposed impact and the reality do not match up, employees are more likely to reflect on their work's lack

of impact than their actual impact. The result is lower levels of meaning, enjoyment, and motivation.

However, just because some jobs require employees to do more of these routine tasks does not mean these employees have to be any less motivated or engaged. One promising intervention is "superordinate framing." Employees can use this framing tool to think about how seemingly unimportant tasks work to achieve a greater purpose. If organizations invest in helping employees find meaning and purpose in even the most mundane tasks, the payoff could be considerable. Such an intervention may make employees less likely to quit their jobs, more satisfied with their work, and potentially more productive.³⁶

outcomes, whereas the need for competence appears to be most important for predicting performance.³⁸ Also, when using extrinsic rewards, need satisfaction matters less for performance when the rewards are directly salient and clear.³⁹

What does all this mean? Managers need to design jobs so that they are motivating, provide recognition, and support employee growth and development. These actions are especially critical for new employee onboarding, as many employees are still deciding whether the job is a good fit for them.⁴⁰ Employees who feel autonomous and free in what they choose to do are likely to be more motivated by their work and committed to their employers. Furthermore, employees can satisfy many of these needs through helping others,⁴¹ but do not *pressure* them to help each other!⁴² As Walmart leadership coach Lucy Duncan suggests about Walmart associates, if you take the time to incorporate SDT in your workplace, “you will be blown away with associate satisfaction.”⁴³

Regulatory Focus Theory

People differ in the way they regulate their thoughts and behaviors during goal pursuit.⁴⁴ Generally, people fall into one of two categories, or *regulatory foci*, though they could belong to both. Those with a **promotion focus** strive for advancement and accomplishment and approach conditions that move them closer toward desired goals. Those with a **prevention focus** strive to fulfill duties and obligations and avoid conditions that pull them away from desired goals. People do not necessarily stick with one strategy permanently, however.⁴⁵ It is just as accurate to think of promotion and prevention as potential motivational states workers experience: Sometimes they are more focused on striving for accomplishment, and other times they are more focused on avoiding failure. In general, it is best when employees’ regulatory “foci” fit with the demands of the environment—sometimes promotion is preferable, and sometimes prevention is preferable.⁴⁶ For instance, messages that fit with citizens’ regulatory foci helped encourage compliance of safety behaviors during COVID-19: Promotion-focused people responded better to “what you can do to help you stay healthy,” while prevention-focused people responded better to “what you can do to keep America safe.”⁴⁷

Although you would be right in noting that both strategies are in the service of goal accomplishment, the way they get there is quite different. As an example, consider studying for an exam. You could engage in promotion-focused activities such as reading class materials, or you could engage in prevention-focused activities such as refraining from doing things that would get in the way of studying, such as playing video games.

You may ask, “Which is the better strategy?” Well, the answer depends on the outcome you are striving for. A promotion (but not a prevention) focus is related to higher levels of task performance, citizenship behavior, and innovation; a prevention (but not a promotion) focus is related to safety performance. Ideally, it is probably best to be both promotion- and prevention-oriented, depending upon the situation.⁴⁸ Employees and managers should set achievable goals, remove distractions, and provide structure for these individuals.⁴⁹ The role of the manager is particularly important because they set the tone for the rest of the employees; regulatory focus is contagious and can “trickle down” through the ranks.⁵⁰ Furthermore, research suggests that if an individual’s focus matches their supervisor’s, they will report higher relationship quality, be more committed to the relationship, and engage in more organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) directed at their supervisor to maintain the relationship.⁵¹

Job Engagement Theory

When Addison reports to work as a hospital nurse, it seems that everything else melts away. Addison becomes completely absorbed in the job: All emotions,

promotion focus A self-regulation strategy that involves striving for goals through advancement and accomplishment.

prevention focus A self-regulation strategy that involves striving for goals by fulfilling duties and obligations and avoiding failure.