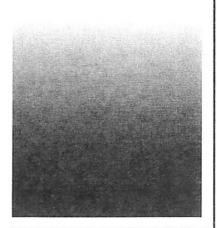# Chapter One

The behavior of individuals acting as members of formal organizations has a tremendous impact on many aspects of our lives. Everything—the food we eat, the cars we drive, the houses we live in—depends on the coordinated effort of individuals in organizational settings. This impact, in fact, is so great that we typically take it for granted. In most cases, we only take notice when the results are either very good or very bad. For example, we marvel at the coordinated effort of a professional sports franchise that is highly successful and express disdain when corruption occurs in a government agency. Most of the time, however, the impact of behavior in formal organizations goes relatively unnoticed.

Organizational psychology is a field that utilizes scientific methodology to better understand the behavior of individuals working in organizational settings. This knowledge is also used, in a variety of ways, to help make organizations more effective. Effective organizations are typically more productive, often provide higher-quality services to customers, and are usually more financially successful than less effective organizations. For private organizations, financial success often results in greater job security for employees, and increased shareholder wealth for investors. For public organizations, such as police departments, municipal governments, and public universities, success means higher-quality services and cost savings to taxpayers.

Introduction to Organizational Psychology

Successful organizations provide employment opportunities, which helps to foster the economic well-being of society as a whole. Also, in many instances, employees in successful organizations are more satisfied and fulfilled in their work than employees in less successful organizations. These positive attitudes may carry over to non-work-related roles such as parent and community member. Consumers also benefit from enhanced organizational effectiveness

than their less successful competitors. Such cost savings are often passed on to consumers in the form of lower prices. In sum, everyone is a potential winner when organizations function effectively. Organizational psychology seeks to enhance the effectiveness of organizations through scientific research and the application of research findings.

WHAT IS ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY?

This book is designed to provide students with a comprehensive treatment of the science and practice of organizational psychology. In the most general sense, organizational psychology is the scientific study of individual and group behavior in formal organizational settings. Katz and Kahn, in their classic work, The Social Psychology of Organizations (1978), stated that the essence of an organization is patterned human behavior. When behavior is patterned, this implies that some structure is imposed on the behavior of individuals. In organizations this structure typically comes from things such as job descriptions and organizational policies. Many organizations also have a more general set of values that they want employees to abide by. Thus, an organization cannot exist when people just "do their own thing" without any awareness of the behavior of others.

Given Katz and Kahn's defining characteristic of organizations (e.g., patterned behavior), it is easy to see that there are many organizations in this world. A group of five people who regularly play poker on Friday nights would fit this definition, as would a major multinational corporation. Therefore,

A formal organization is one that exists to fulfill some explicitly stated purpose, and that purpose is often stated in writing. Formal organizations also typically exhibit some degree of continuity over time; that is, they often survive far longer than the founding members do. Business organizations obviously exhibit these defining characteristics of a formal organization, as do many other nonprofit organizations and government agencies.

In contrast, an informal organization is one in which the purpose is typically less explicit than for a formal organization. Going back to the previous example of five poker players, these individuals are obviously spending time together because they enjoy playing poker and, in all likelihood, each other's company. It is doubtful, though, that these reasons for playing poker are formally stated in writing, or even explicitly stated. It is also doubtful (though obviously not impossible) whether this small group would continue to exist if three of the five members moved to another city or simply lost interest in poker.

The field of organizational psychology is concerned with the study of formal organizations. That is not to say that the formal organizations of interest to organizational psychologists are always businesses or profit-making organizations (a common misconception that we have noticed among many of our colleagues trained in other areas of psychology). Throughout the chapters in this book, many studies will be described that have been conducted not only in businesses but also in government agencies, universities, and nonprofit social service agencies.

Another point worth noting is that the

groups and organizations. It has been shown, for example, that informal friendship ties exist in formal organizations, and they have important implications for employees (Riordan & Griffeth 1995). In this same vein, processes that occur in informal groups and organizations may provide researchers with valuable insights into processes that occur in formal organizations. For example, the manner in which a status hierarchy develops in an informal group such as a sports team may help researchers better understand the emergence of leadership in formal organizations.

Another point of clarification in the previous definition provided has to do with the term psychology itself, since organizational psychology is part of this larger field. Psychology is the scientific study of individual human behavior and mental processes. Two things are important to note about this definition. First, organizational psychologists use methods of scientific inquiry to both study and intervene in organizations. This simply means that organizational psychologists use a systematic, data-based approach to studying organizational processes and solving organizational problems. The "data" used by organizational psychologists may come in a variety of forms, including survey responses, interviews, observations, and, in some cases, organizational records.

The other important part of this definition is that psychology focuses on individual behavior. This may seem a bit odd to some readers, given that a substantial portion of this text is devoted to both group and organizational-level processes. What it means is that regardless of the level at which some phenomenon occurs, psychologists view

group and organizational-level variables, we must focus on how they influence, and are influenced by, individual behavior. Groups and organizations don't behave; people do. This strong focus on individual behavior also serves to distinguish organizational psychology from other social science disciplines (e.g., sociology, economics, political science) that attempt to explain organizational processes but are less focused on individual behavior. It is also one way in which organizational psychology differs from the closely related field of organizational behavior (see Comment 1.1).

ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN CONTEXT

While organizational psychology represents a legitimate field of study in its own right, it is also part of the broader field of industrial/organizational (I/O) psychology. I/O psychology is defined as the application of the methods and principles of psychology to the workplace (Spector, 2006). Figure 1.1 provides a comparison of the topics that are typically of interest to those in the industrial and organizational portions of the field. Notice that the topics listed on the industrial side are those that are typically associated with the management of human resources in organizations. Contrast these with the topics on the organizational side, which are associated with the aim of understanding and predicting behavior within organizational settings.

Given this distinction between the industrial and organizational sides of the field, it is very tempting to polarize into different "camps" based on one's professional interests. Unfortunately, this "I" and "O" dis-

COMMENT 1.1

ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY VERSUS ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR: WHAT'S THE DIFFERENCE?

MANY READERS, PARTICULARLY those who have received at least a portion of their training in a university business school, have heard of the field of *organizational behavior*. What is the difference between organizational psychology and organizational behavior? In all honesty, these two fields are quite similar—so much so, in fact, that many faculty who teach organizational behavior in business schools received their training in departments of psychology. Though less common, there have been some instances where faculty who teach organizational psychology received their training in business schools.

Despite the outward similarities, there are actually subtle differences between organizational psychology and organizational behavior. Moorhead and Griffin (1995) define *organizational behavior* as "the study of human behavior in organizational settings, the interface between human behavior and the organization, and the organization itself" (p. 4). If we focus only on the first part of this definition, there is no difference between organizational psychology and organizational behavior. However, the differences lie in the portion of the definition stating that organizational behavior is concerned with "the organization itself." Specifically, the field of organizational behavior is concerned not only with individual behavior in organizations, but macro-level processes and variables such as organizational structure and strategy are viewed as interesting and worthy of study in their own right.

Organizational psychology is also concerned with the impact of macro-level variables and processes, but only to the extent that such variables and processes have an impact on *individual behavior*. Much of the reason for this difference is that organizational behavior draws from a greater variety of disciplines than does organizational psychology. While organizational psychology draws primarily from various subfields within psychology, organizational behavior draws from a variety of discplines including psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, and labor relations, to name a few. This greater variety provides organizational behavior with a somewhat more eclectic theoritical base than organizational psychology, although both fields largely study the same phenomena.

Perhaps the most tangible difference between organizational psychology behavior and organizational psychology is in salary levels. Faculty in business schools who teach organizational behavior are typically paid significantly more than faculty who teach organizational psychology within psychology departments. This explains why many who are trained in psychology want to teach organizational behavior in business schools; in fact, a perusal of the background of faculty at business schools will show that many have been trained in psychology. In recent years, however, the hiring of psychologists has waned a bit. This is due to the job market in general, and the fact that business schools now produce more Ph.D.s than they did 25 to 30 years ago.

Source: G. Moorhead and R. W. Griffin. (1995). *Organizational behavior: Managing people and organizations* (4th ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

To illustrate this point, let's say a life

conduct some form of job analysis to find

FIGURE 1.1
A Breakdown of Topics Associated with the Industrial and Organizational Sides of the Field of I/O Psychology

develop a selection test to measure things that are thought to be predictive of performance, and ultimately conduct a study to investigate whether performance on the selection test is correlated with the performance criterion measure (Cascio, 1998). Because all of these are "I" activities, what relevance does the "O" side of the field have for the life insurance company in this example? On first glance, it would appear to be very little. However, if you think about it, organizational topics are highly relevant. For example, after these life insurance agents are selected, they must be socialized into the culture of the specific agency in which they will be working, as well as the broader company culture (Bowen, Ledford, & Nathan, 1991; Kristof, 1996). Also, demands of life insurance sales may necessitate the hiring of individuals who will cope well with these demands (Jex, 1998). Thus, the organization

will see, socialization and occupational stress are important topics within organizational psychology.

This point can also be illustrated by taking an "O" topic and describing the relevance of the "I" side of the field. Let's say the U.S. Army is interested in improving decision-making and communication processes among the small groups that comprise special-forces units. Fortunately, in organizational psychology, there is considerable literature on group effectiveness and processes, and the Army could draw on these sources to help guide its efforts (e.g., Guzzo & Shea, 1992). Can issues that are relevant to the "I" side of the field be ignored? Absolutely not. To be effective, a group must have a certain mix of skills, abilities, and personality traits. Thus, regardless of the team processes that are taught to these units, care must be taken to select the right mix of individuals in the first place. It is also unlikely that decision-making processes would improve unless these teams receive accurate and timely performance feedback. Selection and performance appraisal, of course, are two of the major topics on the "I" side of the field.

THE SCIENTIST-PRACTITIONER APPROACH

Organizational psychology should be viewed as a science. In fact, much of the content of this book is based on scientific studies of behavior in both organizational and laboratory settings. Organizational psychology, however, is also concerned with the application of scientific knowledge to enhance the effectiveness of organizations. The scientist-practitioner model captures this dynamic interaction between generating scientific

model states that science and practice are not independent and, in fact, often feed off each other.

To illustrate how the scientist-practitioner model works, let's say the branch manager of a bank is frustrated by high turnover among tellers. Fortunately, this individual may draw on the findings of many scientific investigations of turnover to guide his or her efforts to reduce it (e.g., Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Conversely, scientific investigations of organizational phenomena are often motivated by the practical concerns of organizations. For example, the past decade has indicated a considerable rise in research on how organizations can assist employees in balancing the demands of both work and family domains (e.g., Adams, King, & King, 1996; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Although certainly useful from a purely scientific standpoint, another important factor motivating this research is that organizations want to avoid losing valuable employees because of difficulties in balancing work and family demands.

Within the general field of I/O psychology, the scientist-practitioner model has become so important that it serves as the underlying philosophy for many if not most graduate training programs in the field. Graduate training guided by the scientist-practitioner model suggests that, first and foremost, students need the skills necessary to conduct scientific research. This explains why virtually all graduate programs in I/O psychology require training in statistics, research methodology, and psychological measurement. The other important implication of the scientist-practitioner model in graduate training is that students are typically provided with some opportunity,

The scientist-practitioner model is also quite relevant to the field of organizational psychology, and thus was chosen as the guiding theme for this book. As will become evident as readers proceed through the chapters, research by organizational psychologists has greatly enhanced our understanding of behavior in organizations. For example, research by organizational psychologists has provided valuable insights into things such as group effectiveness, socialization of new employees, and goal-setting processes. At the same time, findings generated from scientific research in these areas have been used to guide interventions designed to help organizations become more effective.

The impact of the scientist-practitioner model also can be seen in the work settings and activities of those trained in organizational psychology. Many hold academic positions—typically, in departments of psychology or management. The primary job duties of most academicians are teaching, scientific research, and service to one's academic department and university. However, many in academia also use their research skills to help organizations solve a variety of practical problems. The careers of both authors of this text have certainly contained this blend of science and practice (see Comment 1.3).

The training of organizational psychologists who pursue academic careers is not drastically different from the training of organizational psychologists who pursue nonacademic careers. Consistent with the scientist-practitioner model, students in graduate programs in I/O psychology and related fields typically receive coursework in research methodology, statistics, and

COMMENT 1.2

TRAINING SCIENTIST-PRACTITIONERS: THE ROLE OF PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE

MOST GRADUATE PROGRAMS in I/O psychology, as well as other fields, incorporate some form of practical experience into their curriculum. This can be accomplished in a variety of ways. Most programs, for example, encourage students to participate in formal internship programs in corporations and consulting firms. Typically, internships span between 6 months and 1 year, and require that students work under the supervision of an experienced I/O psychologist. Other less formal ways that students obtain practical experience include class projects, working with faculty on research and consulting projects, and field-based practicum courses.

The major benefit of students participating in field experiences is that they gain a chance to put what they've learned in their courses into practice in a real organization. Students also benefit in a more subtle way: They develop a greater understanding of how the *real world* actually works. For example, students working

on field projects are often surprised at how quickly organizations want things done, as well as the importance of building positive interpersonal relationships with "clients" in organizations. Many students are also surprised that their methodological and statistical training comes in quite handy as they work on these field projects.

Despite the many advantages of practical experience, there can be some disadvantages of incorporating it into graduate programs. The primary single experience by many doctoral programs is that, in some cases, students who take internships never finish their degree. Other problems that can occur are lack of competent supervision and, in some cases, the projects organizations assign to students are not meaningful. Despite these potential disadvantages, carefully monitored practical experience is usually a valuable component of graduate training. It is also an excellent way to teach the scientist-practitioner model to students.

career plans, to conduct research and obtain practical experience.

There are, however, some important components that future academicians typically need to incorporate into their graduate training. For example, it is important for those planning an academic career to become involved in research early in their graduate training. This increases the chances of gaining authorship on journal articles and conference presentations—something that definitely helps in a competitive job market. Research involvement

do research. Another essential component of the training of future academicians is teaching experience. Regardless of the type of institution in which one is employed, teaching is a major component of any academic position and all universities are looking for good teachers. Thus, graduate students who obtain significant teaching experience are much better prepared for academic positions than those with little or no experience.

Typical nonacademic employment settings for organizational psychologists in-

COMMENT 1.3

SCIENCE AND PRACTICE IN OUR OWN CAREERS

STEVE JEX-WHEN I reflect on my own career, the science-practice theme is very evident. Since receiving my Ph.D. in industrial/organizational psychology in 1988, I have carried on an active program of research in the area of occupational stress. Thus, a good deal of what I do centers around the science. However, in addition to scientific activity, I have conducted a number of projects in organizations that have been designed to solve practical problems. For example, not long after starting my first job out of graduate school, I was the assistant investigator on a project conducted for the U.S. Army Research Institute. This project involved conducting an organizational assessment of the recruiting operations branch of the U.S Army. The Army was interested in ways that the recruiting branch could facilitate the training of field recruiters. Since that first project, I have worked with a number of organizations conducting applied research projects and developing training programs.

What have I learned from working with organizations? Probably most important, I have developed a great deal of respect for those who do applied work on a full-time basis. Applying research findings in organizational settings is tough work that requires considerable skill. Another thing I have learned is that good science has practical value; that is, when projects in organizations are conducted in a scientifically rigorous manner, organizations typically obtain much more useful information than when they are not. Finally, working in organizations has really convinced me of the viability of the scientist-practitioner model. The opportunity to do scientifically meaningful work that has practical value makes the field of I/O psychology very unique and exciting.

Thomas Britt- THE FURTHER INTO my career I

immediately started active duty in the U.S. Army as a research psychologist. I quickly realized that the Army was not necessarily interested in the identity regulation of romantic partners (the topic of my doctoral dissertation), but was interested in how soldiers could be motivated to perform well during stressful military operations. Therefore, I tried to conduct applied research "in the field" that met my own (and journal reviewer's) standards for scientific rigor. I ended up having a lot of fun in the Army conducting research on how the identity images of soldiers as "warriors" and "peacekeepers" influenced motivation and health in different types of operations, how being personally engaged in work could serve as a buffer against many deployment stressors, and how soldiers could possibly derive benefits such as increased self-confidence and appreciation for life as a result of successfully handling the rigors of military operations.

Somewhat to my surprise, I also enjoyed communicating the importance of research findings to military leaders, and thinking about the applied relevance of the research I conducted. I found that leaders were much more likely to take recommendations to heart when they were backed by data collected using a sound research design. I also found that leaders in applied settings appreciated the utility of a well-supported theory in making sense of the findings. Like Steve, I was impressed with how leaders were really willing to devote the time and attention necessary to understand the implications of scientific research for the well-being and performance of their personnel. I find myself being guided by the scientist-practioner even more as I have begun new programs of research on understanding stressors faced by foreign language analysts who

even market research firms. While actual job duties vary widely by setting, many organizational psychologists employed in nonacademic settings are involved in organizational change and development activities. This might involve assisting an organization in the development and implementation of an employee opinion survey program, designing and facilitating the implementation of team development activities, or perhaps assisting top management with the strategic planning process. The other major activity of those employed in nonacademic settings is research. This is particularly true of those employed in nonprofit research institutes, government research institutes, and market research firms. Given the diversity of these settings, it is difficult to pin down the exact nature of the research that is conducted. However, in the most general sense, these individuals conduct scientific research that is designed to have some practical benefit to the organization or even to society in general.

To prepare for a nonacademic career, graduate students need training in many of the same areas as those pursuing academic careers. These include courses in research methodology, statistics, measurement, and several substantive topical areas. There is one important difference, however: Compared to those seeking academic employment, it is more essential for students planning nonacademic careers to obtain practical experience during their graduate training. This experience can often be gained by assisting faculty with consulting projects, or, in some cases, through formal internship programs (see Comment 1.4). Obtaining practical experience is crucial not only because it enhances a student's credentials,

HISTORICAL INFLUENCES IN ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

The year 1992 marked the hundredth anniversary of the field of psychology. To mark this centennial, much was written about the history of industrial/organizational psychology. This section, therefore, will not provide a detailed, comprehensive history of the field of organizational psychology. Rather, the intent is to provide a relatively concise summary of some of the people and historical events that have shaped the field.

Historical Beginnings

As Katzell and Austin (1992) point out, interest in the behavior of individuals in organizational settings undoubtedly dates back to ancient times: "In the organizational field, perhaps the earliest recorded consultant was the Midianite priest, Jethro, who advised his son-in-law, Moses, on how to staff and organize the ancient Israelites (Exod. 18)" (p. 803). Formalized attempts to study and influence such behavior, however, have a much more recent history.

In order to understand the more recent historical roots of organizational psychology, we must first examine the beginnings of the broader field of industrial/organizational psychology. Based on most historical accounts of the development of the field of I/O psychology, the industrial side of the field was much quicker to develop than the organizational side. Chronologically, the beginnings of the field of I/O psychology can be traced to work, during the early part of the twentieth century, by pioneers such as Hugo Munsterberg, Walter Dill Scott, and

COMMENT 1.4

THE INSTITUTE FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH AND APPLICATION (IPRA)

ONE OF THE most important features of the graduate program in I/O psychology at the Bowling Green State University is the experience students receive working on projects through the Institute for Psychological Research and Application (IPRA). IPRA was created by the I/O faculty at Bowling Green in the late 1980s in order to provide graduate students with the opportunity to apply, in actual organizational settings and under the supervision of faculty, what they learn in the I/O program. A secondary pupose of IPRA is to provide graduate students with funding to attend professional conferences.

Typically, local organizations approach the IPRA director (or some other I/O faculty member) with some proposed organizational need that might match the expertise of the I/O faculty at Bowling Green. Examples of projects that have been done through IPRA include employee opinion surveys, training needs assessment, customer service satisfaction surveys, and performance appraisal system development. After an organization has expressed a

need, a faculty member is sought to serve as a supervisor on the project. Once a faculty member agrees to supervise a project, a meeting is typically set up with a representative from that organization to obtain more concrete information about the projects. This is typically followed by the submission, to that organization, of a formal proposal that includes the nature of the work to be done, the time frame under which the work will be done, the *deliverables* that the organization will receive at the conclusion of the project, and an itemized budget.

The vast majority of students who graduate from the I/O program at Bowling Green State University feel that their work on IPRA projects was one of the most valuable components of their education; this is particularly true for students who end up working for corporations and consulting firms. Students feel that work on these projects helps them to sharpen their technical skills, provides valuable opportunities to apply what they learn in their classes, and provides a realistic preview of the world of consulting.

TABLE 1.1
A Chronological Summary of the Major Historical Influences on the Field of Organizational Psychology during the Twentieth Century

Early 1900s	Development and growth of Scientific Management (Taylor); beginning of the scientific study of organizational structure (Weber)
1920s–1930s	Hawthorne Studies; growth of unionization; immigration of Kurt Lewin to the United States
1940s–1950s	WWII; publication of Vitele's book Motivation and Morale in Industry; development of the "Human Relations" perspective; Lewin conducts "action research" projects for the Comission on Community Relations and establishes the Research Center for Group Dynamics at M.I.T.
1960s–1970s	U.S. involvement in Vietnam; Division 14 of the APA is changed to "Industrial/Organizational Psychology"; "multi-level" perspective in organizational psychology; increasing attention to nontraditional topics such as stress, work-family conflict, and retirement.
1980s—1990s	Increasing globalization of the economy; changing workforce demographics; increasing reliance on temporary or contingent employees; redefining the concept of a "job."
2000-Present	Advances in communication technology, continued increases in globalization, greater flexibility in work arrangements, boundaries between "work" and "non work" less clear

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selection. Very little work dealing with the organizational side of the field was conducted. Table 1.1 provides a chronological summary of some of the major events that shaped the development of the field of organizational psychology in the twentieth century.

Ironically, the beginnings of the organizational side of the field were heavily influenced by the work of several nonpsychologists. Perhaps the best known of these was Frederick Winslow Taylor, who developed the principles of scientific management (Taylor, 1911). Although for

study, as well as piece-rate compensation, it was actually much more than that. Scientific management was, to a large extent, a philosophy of management, and efficiency and piece-rate compensation were the most visible manifestations of that philosophy. When one looks past these more visible aspects of scientific management, three underlying principles emerge: (1) those who perform work tasks should be separate from those who design work tasks; (2) workers are rational beings, and they will work harder if provided with favorable economic incentives; and (3) problems in the workplace

In considering the underlying principles of scientific management described previously, the first principle is certainly contrary to much of the thinking in the field of organizational psychology today. Many organizational psychologists, in fact, have recommended that employees be involved in decisions impacting the design of their work (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1980). The second principle, namely that employees will respond to financial incentives, has actually received considerable support over the years (Jenkins, Mitra, Gupta, & Shaw, 1998; Locke, 1982). Most organizational psychologists, however, do not believe that financial incentives will completely compensate for extremely dull and repetitive work—something that seems to be an assumption of scientific management. The third principle, empirical study, has been fully embraced by the field of organizational psychology and is clearly the one that establishes the link between the two fields. It is also worth noting that by employing scientific methodology to study production-

metal.) Unfortunately, despite the impact of scientific management, many of Taylor's ideas met with a great deal of controversy (see Comment 1.5).

Another early nonpsychologist who contributed greatly to the development of organizational psychology was Max Weber. Weber's academic training was in law and history, but his legacy is largely in the field of organizational design. Weber is best known for his development of the notion of bureaucracy as an organizing principle. The basic idea of a bureaucratic organization is that employees know exactly what they are supposed to be doing, and the lines of authority are clearly stated. Another major principle of bureaucracy is that advancement and rewards should be based on merit and not on things such as nepotism or social class. Many principles of bureaucracy are taken for granted today and are even looked at with a bit of disdain, but these ideas were quite innovative at the time they were proposed by Weber.

Weber was also a pioneer because he

COMMENT 1.5

ARTHUR KORNHAUSER: ADVOCATE FOR ORGANIZED LABOR

WHILE THE STUDY of labor unions is generally not considered one of the core areas of industrial/organizational psychology, it has certainly increased dramatically in the past 25 years. Much of the credit for this interest in labor unions can be traced back to the pioneering work of Arthur Kornhauser. Kornhauser received his Ph.D. in psychology from the University of Chicago in 1926, and remained there as a faculty member until 1943. After a brief period in a research position at Columbia University, Kornhauser accepted a full professorship at Wayne State University in 1947 and remained there until his retirement in 1962. Kornhauser died in 1990 at the age of 94.

In a 2003 article published in the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Mike Zickar provides a fascinating and quite detailed account of the life and work of Kornhauser, which was based on a number of interviews with Kornhauser's colleagues, family, and former students. According to Zickar, Kornhauser was unique in that he was one of the few early industrial/organizational psychologists who conducted

research on behalf of labor unions and was an advocate for their interests. Most industrial/organizational psychologists, both early in the development of the field and in the present day, have been interested primarily in issues that are important to the management of organizations—turnover, productivity, and selection, to name few issues.

Unfortunately, Kornhauser's work has not been given the attention of other early figures in the field of industrial/organizational psychology; this is one of the reasons Zickar wrote the article. It is probably a reasonable assumption that Kornhauser's connection to unions, not a mainstream topic in the field, was one reason for this neglect. Other reasons for this neglect, according to Zickar, were that Kornhauser's work was interdisciplinary (he held a joint appointment in the Institute for Labor and Industrial Relations at Wayne State) and that he had only three doctoral students throughout his career.

Note: From Zickar, M. J. (2003) Remembering Arthur Kornhauser: Industrial psychology's advocate for worker well-being. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88,* 363–369.

investigation. In addition to studying organizational design, Weber wrote extensively on organizational topics such as leadership, power, and norms at a time when these topics were largely ignored by psychologists. This willingness to study organizational issues empirically is one of the major defining characteristics of the field of organizational psychology, and thus represents an important aspect of Weber's legacy.

The Field Takes Shape

industrial psychology in the early twentieth century was focused on what were described earlier as industrial topics. The event that changed that—an event many see as the beginning of organizational psychology—was the Hawthorne studies. The Hawthorne studies, a collaborative effort between the Western Electric Company and a group of researchers from Harvard University, took place between 1927 and 1932 (Mayo, 1933; Whitehead, 1935, 1938). The original purpose of the Hawthorne studies was to investigate the impact of various aspects

When one considers the time period in which the Hawthorne studies were initiated (early 1920s), it is not surprising that these topics were investigated because scientific management was the dominant school of managerial thought at the time.

What made the Hawthorne studies so important to the field of organizational psychology were the unexpected findings that came out of this series of investigations. Perhaps the best known were the findings that came from the illumination experiments. Specifically, the Hawthorne researchers found that productivity increased regardless of the changes in level of illumination. This became the basis for what is termed the Hawthorne effect, or the idea that people will respond positively to any novel change in the work environment. In modern organizations, a Hawthorne effect might occur when a relatively trivial change is made in a person's job, and that person initially responds to this change very positively, but the effect does not last long.

The significance of the Hawthorne studies, however, goes well beyond simply demonstrating a methodological artifact. For example, in subsequent studies, Hawthorne researchers discovered that work groups established and strongly enforced production norms. The Hawthorne researchers also found that employees responded differently to different styles of leadership. The overall implication of the Hawthorne studies, which later formed the impetus for organizational psychology, was that social factors impact behavior in organizational settings. This may seem a rather obvious conclusion today, but when considered in the historical context, it was a very novel and important finding. Focusing only on the specific conclusions

Carey, 1967), misses the much larger implications of this research effort.

During roughly the same time period in which the Hawthorne studies took place, another important historical influence on organizational psychology occurred: unionization. This is somewhat ironic, considering that I/O psychology is often viewed warily by unions (Zickar, 2001), despite the fact that there has been cooperation between the two. However, the union movement in the United States during the 1930s was important because it forced organizations to consider, for the first time, a number of issues that are largely taken for granted today. For example, organizational topics such as participative decision making, workplace democracy, quality of work life, and the psychological contract between employees and organizations are rooted, at least to some degree, in the union movement. Many of these issues were addressed in collective bargaining agreements in unionized organizations. Many nonunionized organizations were forced to address these issues due to the threat of unionization (see Comment 1.5).

During the period of union growth in the 1930s, another event occurred that would prove to be very significant for the development of the field of organizational psychology: Kurt Lewin fled Nazi Germany and ultimately took a post at the University of Iowa Child Welfare Research Station. By the time he immigrated to the United States, Lewin was already a prominent social psychologist who had a variety of research interests, many of which were relevant to the emerging field of organizational psychology. Lewin's ideas, for example, have had a major impact in the areas of group dynamics, motivation, and leadership. Perhaps Lewin's

The term action research, which is typically associated with Lewin, refers to the idea that researchers and organizations can collaborate on research and use those findings to solve problems. The scientist-practitioner model can be traced to the action research model and thus stands as one of Lewin's most important contributions to the field (see Comment 1.6).

A Period of Growth

World War II had a tremendous impact on the growth of organizational psychology. For example, one of the results of World War II was that women were needed to fill many of the positions in factories that were vacated by the men called into military service. Also, shortly after World War II in 1948,

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COMMENT 1.6

KURT LEWIN: THE PRACTICAL THEORIST

KURT LEWIN WAS born in 1890 in the village of Mogilno, which was then part of the Prussian province of Posen (now part of Poland). Lewin's father owned a general store, as well as a small farm, so the family was prosperous although not wealthy. In 1905, Lewin's family moved to Berlin, largely to gain better educational opportunities than were available in Mogilno. Lewin entered the University of Frieberg in 1909, initially with the goal of studying medicine. His distaste for anatomy courses contributed to Lewin's abandoning the goal of becoming a physician. He switched his interest to biology. This led to a transfer first to the University of Munich and ultimately to the University of Berlin, where he eventually earned his doctorate in 1916. After returning from military service during World War 1, he began his academic career.

The years at Berlin were very productive, and Lewin's work became quite influential. At this time, Lewin began to develop an interest in the application of psychology to applied problems such as agricultural labor, production efficiency, and the design of jobs. Lewin became quite interested in scientific management, particularly the impact of this system on

Cornell University, and ultimately moved to the University of Iowa Child Welfare Research Station. While at Iowa, Lewin conducted influential studies on a variety of topics, including child development, the impact of social climates, and leadership. Following his years at Iowa, Lewin became deeply involved in the Commission on Community Relations, which was established by the American Jewish Congress. During his involvement, Lewin initiated a number of "action research" projects aimed at enhancing understanding of community problems such as racial prejudice, gang violence, and integrated housing. Remarkably, during this same time, Lewin also founded the Research Center for Group Dynamics at MIT. Lewin's work at the Center continued until his death in 1947, at the age of 56.

In retrospect, it is hard to imagine anyone having a greater impact on the field of organizational psychology than Kurt Lewin. His ideas continue to influence the study of a number of areas such as employee motivation, leadership, group dynamics, and organizational development. However, perhaps Lewin's most enduring legacy was his innovative blending of science and practice.

President Harry S. Truman made the decision to pursue racial integration of the military. Both events were extremely important because they represented initial attempts to understand the impact of diversity on the workplace, a topic that has become quite pertinent in recent years.

World War II also served as the impetus for major studies of morale and leadership styles. Although Hollywood has managed to portray a somewhat idealized version of WWII, the U.S. military experienced problems with low morale and even desertion. Thus, troop morale and the influence of leadership were issues of great practical importance during this time.

Another very important event in the development of organizational psychology was the publication of Morris Viteles' book *Motivation and Morale in Industry* (1953). This was significant because Viteles' 1932 book, *Industrial Psychology*, had contained very little on the organizational side of the field, largely because there simply wasn't much subject matter at that time. Thus, the 1953 book signified that the organizational side of the field had finally arrived and had a significant role to play in the broader field of industrial psychology. It was also during the post-WWII period that the human relations perspective emerged within the field. Those who advocated this perspective (e.g., McGregor, 1960) argued that the way organizations had traditionally been managed kept employees from being creative and fulfilled on the job. During this time, for example, Herzberg conducted his studies of job design and job enrichment, and major research programs investigating both leadership and high performance

Another broader social factor impacted the development of organizational psychology during the 1960s and early 1970s: the United States' involvement in the Vietnam War, which led to many cultural changes in America and in other countries. During this period, for example, many young people began to question conventional societal norms and the wisdom of traditional societal institutions such as education, government, and the legal system. Many, in fact, suspected that the federal government was not truthful about many important details of the war. Furthermore, subsequent accounts of the war by historians have proven that many of these suspicions were justified (e.g., Small, 1999). People at that time also began to feel as though they should have much more freedom to express themselves in a variety of ways (e.g., hairstyles, dress, speech).

For organizations, the cultural changes that arose out of the 1960s had major implications. In essence, it was becoming less and less common for people to blindly follow authority. Therefore, organizations had to find methods of motivating employees, other than simply offering financial incentives or threatening punishment. It was also becoming more and more common for employees to seek fulfillment in areas of their lives other than work. Thus, it was becoming increasingly difficult to find employees who were willing to focus exclusively on work.

Maturity and Expansion

From the early 1970s into the 1980s, organizational psychology began to mature as a field of study. For example, during the early

psychologists began to break significant new ground in both theory and research. As just a few examples, Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) proposed Social Information Processing Theory (SIP) as an alternative to more traditional need-based theories of job satisfaction and job design. Also, roughly during this period, organizational psychology began to rediscover the impact of personality and dispositions on things such as job attitudes (Staw & Ross, 1985) and perceptions of job-related stress (Watson & Clark, 1984).

Another noteworthy development that took hold during this period, and continues today, was the recognition that behavior in organizations is impacted by forces at both the group and organizational levels (e.g., James & Jones, 1974; Rousseau, 1985). This multilevel perspective has had major implications for the field in guiding theory development as well as statistical methodology (e.g., Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). During this same period, organizational psychologists began to devote increasing attention to what could be called nontraditional topics. For example, more literature began to appear on work/family issues (e.g., Greenhaus & Buetell, 1985), job-related stress and health (Beehr & Newman, 1978), and retirement (Beehr, 1986). This willingness to explore nontraditional topics was significant because it served as evidence that the interests of organizational psychologists had broadened beyond purely management concerns.

From roughly the late 1980s to the year 2000, a number of trends have impacted the field of organizational psychology. If one takes a global perspective, perhaps the most significant event of this period was the breakup of the Soviet Union and the eventual fall of many Communist nations. The

of the nations that embraced democracy during this period have also attempted to establish free-market economies. As many of these new democracies found out, managing and motivating employees in state-owned businesses is quite different from doing so in a free-market economy (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Puffer, 1999; Stroh & Dennis, 1994). The science and the practice of organizational psychology can potentially help these nations make this difficult economic transition.

Another important trend that is taking place, both in the United States and worldwide, is the change in the demographic composition of the workforce. The world population is aging rapidly and becoming more ethnically diverse. One of the implications of these demographic shifts is that organizational psychologists will likely devote much more time and attention to understanding the process of retirement (e.g., Adams & Beehr, 1998). Organizational psychologists will likely help organizations as they assist employees in making the retirement transition. The increasing level of cultural diversity will also have wide-ranging implications. Organizational psychologists will increasingly be called upon to investigate the impact of cultural differences on organizational processes such as socialization, communication, and motivation.

A third trend that has become evident during this period is the move away from highly specific jobs, and toward more temporary, project-based work. Some have labeled this dejobbing (Bridges, 1994). This trend has a number of implications for organizational psychology. At the most fundamental level, this trend has impacted and will continue to impact the psycholog-

organization they work for? In the past, the answers to these questions were rather straightforward; now, they have become increasingly complex.

Another implication of this trend is that many individuals are not employees in the way this word has typically been used in the past. Rather, it has become increasingly common for individuals to hire themselves out on a project or per diem basis. This trend suggests a number of interesting and challenging issues for organizational psychologists. How does an organization maintain a consistent culture and philosophy with a relatively transient workforce? Is it possible to motivate temporary employees to perform beyond an average level of performance? Although some research has been done on temporary, project-based work (Gallagher, 2005), more research clearly needs to be done before these questions can be answered with any degree of certainty.

Recent Past and Beyond

On the morning of September 11, 2001, hijacked commercial aircraft crashed into the World Trade Center in New York City and The Pentagon outside of Washington, DC. In terms of casualties, 9/11 represents one of the worst terrorist attacks in history, and certainly the worst on U.S. soil. Furthermore, for many readers of this text, 9/11 represents the defining moment of their generation, much the same way that the Kennedy assassination was for previous generations.

What are the implications of 9/11 for organizational psychology? This is a difficult question to answer with a high degree of certainty because of the magnitude of these

is, 9/11 made many organizations aware of the need for having plans in place in case of emergencies. Had it not been for the emergency plans of many of the organizations with offices in the World Trade Center, the death toll of 9/11 would likely have been much higher.

Other than 9/11, other recent trends that have had the greatest impact on organizations have been technological change, increasing use of telecommuting and other flexible work arrangements, and increased globalization, to name a few. Advances in communication technology, for example, allow things to be done much quicker in organizations than was possible even 20 years ago. This technology has also allowed employees much greater flexibility in working arrangements, yet at the same time, made it more difficult for them to separate their work and nonwork lives. Considering all of these trends, it is clear that the work world of the recent past and not-too-distant future will be highly complex and fast paced. This may seem rather intimidating, but it is also a very exciting prospect for the field of organizational psychology because it will allow for truly groundbreaking research and practical applications. In fact, this is one of the most exciting times in history to be involved in the science and practice of organizational psychology.

THE CHAPTER SEQUENCE

A textbook should function as a tour guide for the student. In our experience, both as students and course instructors, the best way to guide is in a logical sequential fashion. The sequence of chapters in this book was developed with this consideration in mind. The

Some students (and maybe even some instructors) may find it unusual to have a chapter on research methodology. I've included it for three primary reasons. First, having at least a rudimentary understanding of research methodology is fundamental to understanding many of the concepts and research findings discussed throughout the text. Second, research methodology is a legitimate area of inquiry within organizational psychology. In fact, a great deal of important research within organizational psychology in recent years has been methodologically oriented. Finally, as a course instructor and supervisor of student research, I have found that students often forget (or perhaps repress) what they learn in research methods courses. Covering research methods in content courses often compensates for this forgetting.

The first seven chapters focus on the behavior of individuals in organizational settings. A close examination of these chapters reveals a sequential ordering. It is assumed that individuals are initially socialized into an organization (Chapter 3), become productive members of that organization (Chapter 4), and derive some level of satisfaction and commitment (Chapter 5). It is also recognized that individuals may engage in behaviors that are counterproductive to their employers (Chapter 6), and that work may have a negative effect on the health and well-being of employees (Chapter 7).

The next three chapters focus on the mechanisms that organizations use to influence employees' behaviors. To this end, Chapter 8 covers the major motivation theories in organizational psychology. In Chapter 9, we examine the various ways in which organizations utilize theories of motivation to

behavior, namely leadership. Chapter 10 also examines power and influence processes that are at the core of leadership and yet influence many other behaviors in organizations.

In the next two chapters, the focus of the book shifts from the individual to the group level. This is very important, given the increased reliance on teams in many organizations. Chapter 11 introduces the basic concepts underlying group behavior. Chapter 12 describes the factors that have the greatest impact on group effectiveness, as well as the dynamics underlying intergroup behavior.

In the final three chapters, the focus shifts from the group to the organization—the macro level. Chapter 13 reviews several theoretical approaches used to define an organization and examines approaches to organizational design. Chapter 14 probes the concepts of organizational culture and climate. Chapter 15 describes the variety of ways in which organizations engage in planned change with the assistance of behavioral science knowledge.

One topic that readers will notice is not the focus of any one chapter is international or cross-cultural issues. This book examines cross-cultural issues in the context of the various topics covered in the chapters. This was done intentionally because we believe cross-cultural findings are best understood and assimilated in the context of specific topics.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

Organizational psychology is the scientific study of individual and group behavior in formal organizational settings. While it is a legitimate field of study in its own right,

MIKE J. ZICKAR AND THE HISTORY OF I-O PSYCHOLOGY

I am a firm believer in attacking life with a balance between goal-directed behavior as well as an openness to the moment. I received my Ph.D. from University of Illinois in 1997 and have been at Bowling Green State University since then. My training and primary research has been in psychometric work related to employment testing, a very quantitative area that is about as left-brain dominated as any research area in I-O psychology.

I got into historical research about 10 years ago when I started asking questions about the current state of I-O psychology; these questions were stimulated by a frustration with the way that I-O psychologists ignored certain topics that I viewed important. What function do labor unions have in the day-to-day lives of

employees? Why do I-O psychologists, for the most part, focus on improving efficiency more so than improving worker well-being? These questions prompted me to look back in the history of our field.

Historical research relies much more on the right side of the brain compared to quantitative research. I find that balance very stimulating and useful in maintaining my intellectual curiosity. One of my favorite historical pieces is an article about my hero Arthur Kornhauser who was an early progressive I-O psychologist that worked actively with labor unions in the auto industry. When I contacted one of Kornhauser's former students, he seemed unfriendly and impatient until I told him that I wanted to discuss his former advisor. Instantly on hearing his former advisor's name, he warmed up and said in a mournful but pleasant tone, "I always told my wife that if we had had a son, I would have wanted to name him Arthur!"

I did not start off my career interested in historical research, though I now find it an important part of my intellectual identity. Regardless of what path your career takes you, I hope that you will remain open to change and that you stumble occasionally onto new directions and ideas.

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psychologists use scientific methods to study behavior in organizations. They also use this knowledge to solve practical problems in organizations; this is the essence of the scientist-practitioner model, the model on

both academic and nonacademic settings. Historically, organizational psychology was slower to develop than the industrial side of the field. The event that is usually considered the historical beginning of organiza-

the years and will continue to do so. A
[import]ant thread through the history of the
[field] is the dynamic interaction between sci-
[ence] and practice—in most cases for the bet-
[term]ent of organizations and their employees.

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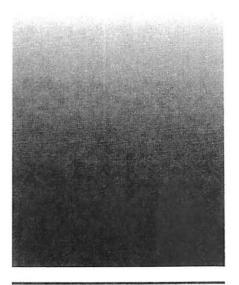Psychology, 88,* 363–369.

Chapter Two

Research Meth[ods]
and Statistics

Organizational psychologists often
design scientific investigations
to answer a variety of research
questions about behavior in orga-
nizational settings; in some cases
research is designed to test theories. In order
to conduct research, one must make use of
research designs, as well as a variety of sta-
tistical analyses. As will be shown in this
chapter, research methods may range from
simple observation of behavior to more elab-
orate designs. Likewise, statistical methods
may range from very simple descriptive
measures, to very elaborate model testing.

Research methodology and statistical
analysis are also crucial to the practice of
organizational psychology. For example,
organizational psychologists often use sys-
tematic research methods to provide organi-
zational decision makers with information
regarding employees' attitudes. In other
cases, research methodology and statistical
analysis may be used to evaluate some inter-
vention designed to enhance organizational
effectiveness. An organization may want to
know, for example, whether a team develop-
ment intervention will enhance the function-
ing of work groups. This question, and
others like it, can also be answered with the
aid of typical research methods and statistical
analyses used in organizational psychology.

In addition to facilitating the science
and practice of organizational psychology,
research methodology and statistical analysis
have both emerged as legitimate fields of
study within organizational psychology.

devoted their attention to method[ological]
and statistical issues. For exampl[e, there]
are organizational psychologists wh[o inves-]
tigate the validity of self-report m[easures]
(e.g., Spector, 1994), as well as the [analysis]
of data from multiple organization[al levels]
(Bliese & Jex, 2002). Both topics [will be]
discussed later in the chapter.

This chapter is designed to pro[vide an]
introduction to the methods organi[zational]
psychologists use to collect data, as [well as]
the statistical techniques used to [analyze]
that data. From the student's pers[pective,]
research methodology and statistics a[re]