were mentioned above. Thus, a major aspect of customization or specialization of scheduling involves building an appreciation of the different roles people play and the importance of "playing to people's strengths."

3. *Stay on top of scheduling changes.* Changes create major opportunities for operational glitches and even systems malfunctions. The oft-heard refrain is: "I thought that so-and-so was going to do that." Feedback loops and confirmation of changes are the best ways to prevent problems.
4. *Review long-term organizational competency needs to ensure organizational capacity.* Good leaders are constantly assessing the overall competency needs of their organization or unit. Gaps are common because of retirements or staff shortages; long-term weaknesses are inevitable as competency needs evolve faster than members of the organization adapt on their own. Those planning and organizing personnel have a responsibility to document such gaps and weaknesses so that they can be addressed through formal training, staff rotation, one-on-one coaching, inspirational exhortation, selection criteria changes, and so on.
5. *Manage your personal schedule effectively.* Some leadership analysts place this among the chief qualities for effectiveness. It is hard to respect leaders who do not have the discipline to manage their own time well or to address all their major responsibilities. This includes the daily and weekly scheduling of activities and the ability to reorganize priorities constantly, without losing sight of long-term goals. It includes the ability to use the natural energy cycle to maximum effectiveness; creativity does not occur when you are tired, and passive activities do not need high energy levels. It certainly includes an ability to make sure that one gets things accomplished, which is reflected in the new emphasis on results that pervades the organizational environment (Bhatta 2001). The need for achievement (chapter 4) is not enough. This means understanding how one uses time, avoids procrastination and unnecessary activities, and uses serendipity (unplanned events) to further planned goals.

DEVELOPING STAFF

Developing staff involves *improving subordinates' effectiveness in their current positions and preparing them for their next position or step.*[2] It is highly related to clarifying roles and responsibilities, which focuses on initial instruction and specific definition of job responsibilities and performance goals; that is, clarifying establishes a baseline of information and direction. Developing staff focuses more on assisting employees to be comfortable in their positions, reach higher levels of productivity over time, and prepare for future prospects. Therefore, it builds on the baseline that clarifying should have established. In most respects clarifying and developing can be seen as two elements establishing a continuum from a short-term, technical focus to a long-term, career focus.

Developing also relates to continual learning in that employees and the leader him/herself must improve and prepare for the future. It relates to problem solving and innovation/creativity in that these skills are rarely learned easily or quickly. Finally, it relates to motivating through showing concern and giving individualized assistance.

There are three major elements in developing staff: supporting, coaching, and mentoring. Supporting is the emotional component of development. People generally do better over time when they have socioemotional encouragement. Support helps a person identify with his/her job, focus energies on productive issues, and accept criticism or hardships. Employees who feel that they have friends at work are shown to be more productive and more likely to remain (Buckingham and Coffman 1999). Supportiveness from a superior (with direct authority) reduces unnecessary anxiety and paranoia when mistakes are made or organizational changes are occurring. Because a primary responsibility of a supervisor is to point out errors, weak performance, or areas for improvement, a supportive relationship will generally facilitate the acceptance of criticism and even disciplinary actions. Supportiveness is especially important in times of special hardship, because without it organization members are very likely to give up or abandon the organization.

Coaching helps employees do a task more effectively. After employees have received their initial instructions and training, and have been made aware of the standards that they are expected to meet, they are still not at peak performance. While the primary responsibility lies with the employee to improve performance—speed, accuracy, presentation, and the like—this responsibility is shared with the superior whose job it is to provide intermittent on-the-job training and suggestions. While initial training may or may not take place on the job, coaching nearly always involves observing actual performance in the job setting. An analogy with sports works well. Youth who are taught sports are frequently drilled (trained) on the component parts of a sport so that they can perform each element proficiently (e.g., lay-up shots in basketball, kicking in swimming, and passing in football). Later they receive individualized coaching as they perform these and other discrete elements together in realistic conditions on the court, in the pool, or on the field. It is also important to note that the training provided in the clarifying phase and the coaching during the developing phase are *both* critical, and weakness or omission of one lessens the value of the other. It is not uncommon for the performance of relatively well-trained new employees to be subsequently ignored by superiors (lack of coaching), so that higher levels of proficiency are ultimately modest and completely self-directed. Even worse, it is not uncommon for organizational members to be thrown into job settings with scant training and clarification, with the expectation that they will learn complex functions entirely through coaching (thus the poor reputation of "on-the-job training"). This generally places unrealistic expectations on the coach in terms of time and oversight responsibilities, and deprives the learner of the more systematic approach that is utilized in training.

Mentoring refers to supporting a person's career and is sometimes referred to as career counseling. (Sometimes on-the-job training/assistance is called mentoring, but this is really a misnomer.) Mentoring involves providing advice on the culture of the organization and profession, the right job-related decisions to make, and the best way to interpret significant issues or concerns. Mentors also act as models of successful or ideal performance or behavior. Not infrequently mentors assist in identifying or providing special opportunities for the individual whom they are assisting.

The research on developing staff is abundant, especially on supportive behavior, and is often labeled "consideration" in the leadership literature (e.g., Stogdill 1974; Bowers and Seashore 1966; House and Mitchell 1974). The literature on coaching and mentoring as leadership behaviors placed in a major taxonomy is less prominent (yet, for examples, see Morse and Wagner 1978; Luthans, Rosenkrantz, and Hennessey 1985; Mumford et al. 1988). Both OPM studies refer to supportive qualities under a number of headings; mentoring and coaching are referred to under the leadership category in 1992 and under the team-building category in 1999. In a study of local government managers, this behavior was identified as a problem three times as much as a strength (Van Wart 2001). A recent specialized study of people-oriented leadership was conducted by Buckingham and Coffman (1999). See Exhibit 7.3 regarding their recommendations coming from the "world's greatest managers."

Guidelines

1. *Show courtesy to and interest in everyone, and demonstrate positive regard for others to the greatest degree possible.* Courtesy and good manners are part of the fabric of modern democratic society. A role of authority does not exempt one from these basic social responsibilities; indeed, it makes them that much more noticeable, and lapses or weaknesses are amplified. Even under difficult conditions, such as when disciplining employees, courtesy should generally be carefully maintained. Although it may be appropriate for leaders to show anger on *rare* occasions for the *conscious* effect that it will cause, leaders cannot afford to lose their tempers spontaneously in modern organizations. Yet, courtesy and good manners are only the formal structure of consideration. Showing interest in others demonstrates a higher level of support. Good active listening skills assist greatly in showing interest (see Exhibit 7.2 as an example of active listening). Paying attention to people means that you think they are worthy of your time and that their ideas and contributions count. The deepest level of support involves positive regard for people. This can be a positive acceptance of the totality of a person—strengths and weaknesses—with or without affection or trust, or it can be a more active emotional bond of friendship that includes trust and liking. Positive regard does not mean that the weaknesses, errors, or "sins" of others are overlooked; it simply means that no matter what a person may do, their basic humanity is appreciated and their value as a human being is always remembered. Positive regard in this sense is the emotional equivalent of the

Exhibit 7.3

How the World's Greatest Managers Develop Staff

In a fun-to-read management bestseller, Buckingham and Coffman (1999) compiled information from 80,000 managers regarding the elements of great management. While some of the conventional management wisdom applied, in some cases they found that it did not and was fundamentally at variance with managing for excellence.

The most iconoclastic finding of their study was that "great" managers select strictly for talent (innate ability and interest), not skills, knowledge, or experience. ("The secret to great performance is all in the casting.") Following through on this belief leads to a number of significant conclusions. They do not believe, for example, that with enough training people can do anything they set their mind to. Nor do they think that great managers spend much time trying to fix people's weaknesses. And finally, they think it is okay to play favorites, that is, spend the most time with the best workers because they are the most productive, creative, and talented. Because these recommendations are so contrary to conventional management wisdom, they entitled their book: *First, Break All the Rules* (1999). Their message, then, is that great managers select the right people (those with the right talents), and then focus on those people's strengths. Too many managers get caught up in production-line recruitment, selection, and work structuring, and ignore the human contribution to success. Too many managers, they contend, focus on fixing problems reactively rather than building strengths proactively.

Ultimately, they were able to distinguish the best organizations from those that were mediocre or poorly managed with just a dozen questions. While none of the dozen questions refers to money, eight relate to developing staff. For example, excellent companies have high numbers of employees who can respond affirmatively to these three questions:

- "In the last seven days, have I received recognition or praise for doing good work?"
- "Does my supervisor, or someone at work, seem to care about me as a person?"
- "Do I have a best friend at work?"

Two of their questions relate to coaching employees:

- "Do I know what is expected of me at work?" (This is the very first question in their list).
- "Is there someone at work who encourages my development?"

Finally, three of the questions relate to mentoring and career development:

- "At work, do my opinions seem to count?"
- "In the last six months, has someone at work talked to me about my progress?"
- "This last year, have I had opportunities at work to learn and grow?"

Their overall findings, then, are not really so iconoclastic. The very best organizations develop their employees as much as they recruit them. Others investigating organizational excellence such as Peters and Waterman in *In Search of Excellence* (1982) have emphasized the same point. In great organizations, although not ignored, minimal time is spent in focusing on "fixing" personal weaknesses, and creating detailed rules beyond the important basics. Rather, the focus of such organizations is always on finding the right employees, paying attention to their professional and personal needs, providing them with career flexibility, and focusing on their strengths.

more legalistic notion of fairness. Of course, displaying courtesy, interest, and positive regard is relatively easy with those whom one naturally likes. The challenge for leaders is to extend these behaviors as broadly as possible. When leaders do not, they can easily create "in" and "out" groups that have negative effects in the work environment. Indeed, such groups can easily demonize one another, which leads to extreme organizational dysfunction (Graen and Cashman 1975; Graen and Uhl-Bien 1995).

2. *Promote a person's self-esteem and reputation.* A leader can support a subordinate's self-esteem by praising consistent work, accomplishments, and positive qualities. This can be enhanced by promoting a person's expertise and reputation to superiors and peers. Subordinates can be introduced to other significant or important people inside or outside the organization, and can be given assignments with visibility.
3. *Listen to personal problems that affect work performance and take the time to counsel subordinates.* Balancing and separating one's personal and professional lives often present a challenge even under normal conditions. Therefore, when subordinates have problems and issues in their personal lives, it often adversely affects their professional performance. Supervisors must take the time and show the compassion to understand the basic problem so that they can determine how to help most appropriately. If it is a severe personal or psychological problem that is not work related, then the supervisor may need to indicate their understanding, suggest community resources (e.g., a marriage counselor), and be ready to determine what work-related accommodations may be appropriate on a temporary basis (e.g., some time off with or without pay). If it is a severe problem that causes performance issues (e.g., drug and alcohol related), then the organization may furnish professional counseling through an employee assistance program. While such cases require a good degree of firmness and reiteration of rules and policies, empathy is being underscored here, and can sometimes be the deciding factor in whether or not the person makes it through the difficult period successfully. However, for most routine or temporary issues a friendly ear is enough, with some detached advice and appropriate encouragement. Although managers should not normally allow themselves to assume the role of therapist, "light" counseling, from listening to advice, is often part of the job.
4. *Analyze subordinates' overall performance and identify deficiencies.* For a person to develop, one must have a realistic assessment of overall strengths and weaknesses. Leaders must take the time to analyze how well subordinates are doing through observation, review of work products, and conversations with the subordinate. Not only does the leader need to analyze performance strengths and deficiencies, but it is important for the manager to help the subordinate to participate in the analysis or self-diagnosis. Often, the subordinate has a relatively good grasp of weaknesses and problems so that the manager is simply

providing additional encouragement, structure, and resources for improvement. Sometimes the subordinate may be unaware of the problem, or be emphasizing the wrong areas for attention, about which the leader may need to be more proactive in guiding the employee.

5. *Monitor and correct errors.* At a more detailed level, in order to develop people it is necessary to pinpoint specific errors, mistakes, and problems as they arise on a daily, weekly, or monthly basis. Timely and precise error correction is a foundation for performance improvement and prevents many problem trends from occurring, such as unsatisfactory practices that become routine or fossilized behavior. This is most obvious and critical for frontline supervisors who are coaching new employees. New employees are most open to correction and suggestions, and generally appreciate close monitoring and directions for improvement. Although more subtle and requiring finesse, monitoring and correcting are needed even at senior levels in order for people to develop. The department director who turns in sloppy reports, the division director who neglects to perform performance appraisals on his own employees, and the section chief who treats her subordinates in an arbitrary manner are all examples of when monitoring is necessary and correction is useful.
6. *Provide career advice and encouragement.* Leaders let subordinates know how to do well in their current position, but also can help employees discern and prepare for future careers. What training is required? What standard of performance is expected? What auxiliary requirements such as length of time or proof of worthiness are crucial? What are the intricacies of applying for a different or better position? What are the realistic expectations of achieving other options? Of course, the leader as model is an important form of career advice; successful bosses are more likely to have successful employees (Graen et al. 1977). Part of the modeling that is useful to employees is to observe the superior's development activities. Just as important as providing information and modeling behavior is to be active in encouraging subordinates to think of either enrichment or advancement opportunities. Overall, good bosses early in one's career can make a tremendous difference between a lackluster career and a very good one.
7. *Provide special opportunities for subordinates to prepare for a future position.* Because leaders have superior resources and authority, they can often provide special opportunities for individuals or whole groups. Advancement is often contingent on a range of assignments, certain types of assignments, special training, advanced education, and access to people or networks outside the subordinate's sphere. Leaders can allow people to take additional training, authorize reimbursement for educational classes, allow subordinates to represent the division in meetings, provide opportunities for them to attend conferences, and so on.

MOTIVATING

Motivating is a very general term that refers (for the purpose of defining the competency here) to *enhancing the inner drives and positive intentions of subordinates (or others) to perform well through incentives, disincentives, and inspiration.* The research on motivation is vast and old, and extensively overlaps and intertwines with the leadership literature. For example, the famous 1924 "Hawthorne studies" at Western Electric by Elton Mayo and his Harvard colleagues demonstrated not only the power of motivating behaviors of leaders but also the complexity of motivation (Roethlisberger 1941). (See Exhibit 7.4 for a review of this much celebrated case.) In a sense, most of what leaders do has a positive or negative effect on the attitudes, drives, intentions, and efforts of followers, so nearly everything could ultimately be subsumed under the topic if broadly defined.

One large aspect of motivating that will not be included here because it has been included under other management competencies has to do with the whole area of structuring the work. Workers are tremendously affected, for good or ill, by the way work is structured. Management sets the basic conditions including pay (always a powerful motivator but generally in short supply) and working conditions (hours, work space, equipment, travel, etc.). The quality of training and instruction affects employees' ability to do the work and their acculturation (see clarifying roles and objectives). Organizing the work so that it is coherent and efficient has been covered in operations planning, personnel planning, and developing staff. Providing assistance as technical issues arise is also a part of clarifying roles and objectives. Finally, involvement adds considerably to morale, and indirectly to performance, and is covered in informing, delegating, consulting, and teamwork. It is important to note that lower-level leaders often have little say in the conditions of employment, an area that is generally reserved for senior managers and executives, and that even they are often severely constrained by external mandates (e.g., legislatively authorized pay scales) and fiscal pressures. (See Exhibit 7.5 for a discussion of the relationship of rewards and compensation philosophies.) Indeed, good leaders must often motivate despite poor/mediocre pay and unsatisfactory working conditions, as well as poor organizational training systems, convoluted and unfairly mandated organizational designs, and time pressures reducing the ability to assist and be involved. While effective leaders will work to improve the structure of work over time, many of these issues can be only partially ameliorated and a few will prove intractable, so that good leadership is defined as much by motivating in spite of structural challenges as it is by removing them. These are aspects of motivation that will define the term here and on which we will focus now.

Elements of motivating include positive incentives (e.g., recognition and rewards), disincentives (e.g., disciplining), and inspiring. Recognition involves intangible incentives such as showing appreciation and providing praise. It includes actions such as informal positive verbal comments, informal tributes or awards in public settings like staff or division meetings, written praise in notes or annual evaluations, and formal commendations

Exhibit 7.4

The Study of Worker Motivation and the Hawthorne Studies

Certainly one of the most celebrated management studies ever done was the research conducted at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric in Hawthorne, Illinois, under the general direction of Elton Mayo of Harvard starting in the 1920s. In one of the studies, the efficiency experts at the plant decided to test for the optimum level of illumination. Two groups were identified with one being an experimental control. As the level of illumination increased, so did productivity. Yet, it was hard not to notice that the productivity of the control group also rose at nearly the same level. Not surprisingly, as the researchers provided additional adjustments to the environment such as more rest breaks and snacks, productivity rose even more. What was shocking was that when the light was dimmed and the new work enhancements were eliminated, productivity did not decline significantly. When interviewed, the workers discussed how important and good they felt on the basis of being studied, even when perquisites were eliminated. These studies led to a number of conclusions.

First, it was established that mere attention to human beings will affect their behavior, in this case positively. Researchers must be sure the effects that they find are not the result of the attention the subjects receive instead of the effect they think they are studying such as levels of illumination. The bias introduced into research by the observers became known in social science as the Hawthorne effect.

Second, it was established that workers are not cogs in machines. The fundamental elements of motivation, what Maslow would call physiological needs and what Herzberg would call hygiene factors, do not generally account for high-performance situations in which worker satisfaction must include a sense of achievement and significance. This study later became a major cornerstone of the human relations school of the 1950s and 1960s.

However, later the case was reopened and the data were reanalyzed by a number of researchers. Two of these research teams tempered the original findings and pointed out the importance of diligence in field experiments. Franke and Kaul (1978) pointed out that two workers were fired during the experimental period, thus substantially enhancing the sense of worker discipline. Parson (1978) pointed out that the plant had also moved to a modified differential monetary reward system (a type of piecework system). The harder workers worked, the more money they got. They were also provided better feedback about their productivity. A third researcher (Jones 1990) reasserted the significance of the higher motivation factors—achievement and significance. Given that the levels of productivity were so dramatically improved, it seems likely that there were a variety of contributing factors, even if researchers argue about the exact degree of variance explained by each factor in this particular situation.

This leads to several more conclusions. Third, work structure does make a difference. For example, good feedback enhances worker information and motivation. Fourth, basic motivations to avoid pain, such as firing, also make a difference. Fifth, basic motivations for optimum exchange, such as increased income, make a substantial difference. All this points out that motivation is complex and operates on multiple levels. Leaders need to understand that maintaining high levels of motivation is extremely challenging, given structural constraints they must work within and limits on their own time and ability. Nonetheless, enhancing worker motivation is certainly one of the most central conceptions of leadership in organizational settings.

ranging from letters of positive acknowledgment to plaques and trophies. Recognition generally costs nothing and is an immensely powerful form of motivating. Nonetheless, recognition is utilized less than it should be according to most respected researchers. "Recognizing is one of the most neglected managerial practices, even though it can be one of the most effective for building commitment, increasing job satisfaction, and improving

Exhibit 7.5

Rewards and Compensation Philosophies

Pay systems use fundamentally different philosophies in establishing pay criteria. In *social exchange theory,* the ideal situation is where the greater the effort and performance by employees, the greater the reward they receive. This is emphasized in merit-based pay systems for individuals and gainsharing plans for individuals or groups. Extreme forms pay solely on commission (e.g., real estate), product (e.g., the entertainment industry), or piecework (e.g., doctors in traditional practices seeing and billing patients). Social exchange theory also takes into account the context of the employment market. Employees with skills and experience that are in greater demand get more rewards. Thus, managers and professionals with their experience or nurses and information technology workers with their coveted skills can demand greater rewards upon entering employment. Some of the newer skill-based pay systems (emphasizing potential) are a variant of this school of thought. On the other hand, *equity theory* stresses fairness and valuation of different types of contribution. Fairness means that similar jobs and similar results are rewarded in similar ways.* The valuation of different types of contributions ensures that short-term results do not overwhelm long-term organizational needs for stability, experience, loyalty, and potential. This second aspect of equity theory allows for the greater acknowledgment of seniority (accrued experience and loyalty) as well as potential (skills and capabilities that may be used in the future). Despite ubiquitous griping, lockstep seniority pay systems with their numerous grades and steps are remarkably popular with workers because of the security and the predictability that they offer. For a period, unions became so cynical of management that they wanted all pay increases strictly defined by seniority; today many public sector organizations are still organized in this fashion. The more "enlightened" systems often use a mix of rewards: a cost-of-living increase (essentially seniority raises) and a merit increase based on the annual evaluation. However, because the cost-of-living increase has traditionally eaten up most of the money available for raises, and because most employees cluster heavily in the 3.5 to 4.5 range on a five-point scale (minimizing merit increase differences), the actual differences are often trivial in such systems. A much more powerful factor has been the original pay base, insofar as raises are often based on percentages rather than flat amounts for all employees; thus, employees with higher base rates get significantly larger pay increases. In the past decade the system of differentiating raises by strengthening merit evaluations, emphasizing qualitative differences in performance, and reducing or eliminating cost-of-living increases has become more common, in an effort to reward better employees and stimulate better performance. That is, the trend has been toward emphasizing social exchange theory rather than equity theory.

*This is the most common meaning of equity theory narrowly construed. It often refers to pay similarity for groups or classes, especially for women and minorities. Although the Equal Pay Act of 1963 did much to rectify discrimination in pay by grade or classification, it has not removed pay inequity by organizational level in that white men continue to dominate —on average—the upper ranks of most political, bureaucratic, and entrepreneurial organizations. Examples include Congress, the presidency, the judiciary, the Senior Executive Service, the chief executive officers and boards of Fortune 500 companies, and so forth.

working relationships. Everyone, from the clerk in the shipping department to the vice president for operations, wants to be a winner or a hero" (Yukl 1998, 105).

Rewarding involves tangible incentives such as promotions, increases in pay (e.g., base pay increases or one-time bonuses), increased discretion, superior work assignments, perquisites (called "perks") such as a better office or special supplies, additional responsibilities/authority,[3] and so forth. As already discussed, pay and promotion rewards are generally more highly constrained in the public sector than in the private. Nonetheless rewards do exist and are important to execute carefully. Performance standards, fairness, and clarity of reward determination are key to good implementation. Stated differently, rewards need to be based on performance goals that are important to the organization (e.g., not based on personal loyalty), and represent different types of contribution (e.g., high productivity vs. a "social" goal such as mentoring), using clearly explained guidelines. In utilizing recognition and rewards to their maximum, it is important to find out what individuals or groups find attractive, so that the incentives will be as motivating as possible. While one employee may find a public commendation of performance success sufficient, an employee who has been "underfilling" a position (performing higher-level responsibilities while maintaining a lower-level classification and salary) for several years may be difficult to appease with anything other than a reclassification and pay increase.

Sometimes employees do not work very hard despite positive incentives such as pay, recognition, and supplemental rewards; sometimes negative disincentives are necessary to set the acceptable bounds of behavior and to punish poor work and rule infractions. Of course, it has been well established that positive rewards are generally more motivating in terms of higher performance because they require less supervision and better suit the positive mindset of high quality. Thus, negative disincentives should be used more strategically and less often in most management situations. Negative disincentives include any sanctions that reduce perquisites, pay, work flexibility, status, honor, and pride, or even terminate employment and impose fines or imprisonment for actions that violate or defy administrative rules or laws. Disincentives can be very mild, for example, a verbal rebuke for carelessness, or extremely harsh, for example, a charge of criminal misconduct. If positive incentives are too uncommon, disincentives are too common and too relied upon. Disincentives are necessary in organizational settings but they are very difficult to use effectively. The unpleasant aspects of disincentives can easily lead to resentment, scheming, work sabotage, and litigious court battles. Further, negative disincentives can lead to even poorer performance, rather than the improved performance that is the ultimate goal, because of discouragement and loss of self-esteem. Yet, without the bounds that they set, someone is likely to go too far or not far enough, and not only under- or misperform in their own capacity, but disturb or anger other workers as well, if only by their obstreperous behavior. Some of the more important dos and don'ts of negative sanctions are discussed in the guidelines section below. Taken together, positive and negative disincentives work at the lower end of Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs such as meeting basic living needs (via income), security, and basic human interactions (e.g., positive work relations).

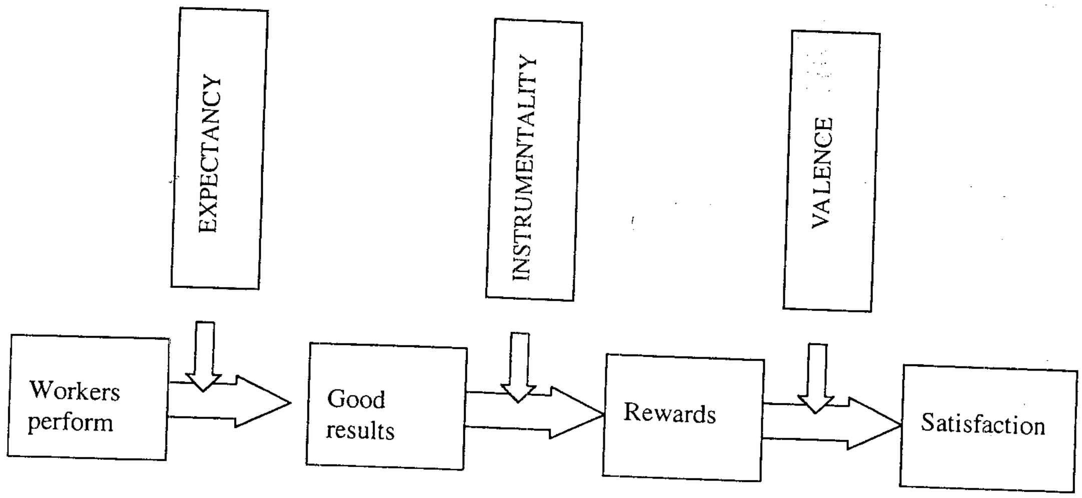
In stark contrast to providing disincentives is the motivational technique of inspiring, which works at the higher end of Maslow's hierarchy—achievement, self actualization, and spiritual connectedness. Inspiring involves providing encouragement to work for group and organizational goals regardless of personal benefit. Unlike positive and negative incentives, which tend to rely heavily on the effect on the individual and the near term, inspiring relies on the effect on the group and the long term. The classic example of inspiring is illustrated by soldiers at war who risk their lives for very low pay and terrible conditions, but do so with pride and satisfaction. More mundane examples include getting people to volunteer for organizational betterment teams, agree to work extra long hours without positive incentives, accept mentoring assignments despite the drain on time, or strive to work harder—not for personal benefit but for the good of the organization. Of course, positive benefits are more likely to accrue to the individual if the organization is successful as a whole, and inspiring behavior does not mean that both the individual and the organization cannot prosper simultaneously. Indeed, inspiring tends to emphasize that all fail if the organization fails (the rational appeal). It also uses emotional appeal ("do it for the team") and personal appeal ("do it as a favor for me"). When the motivational appeal of inspiring is effective, short-term sacrifice is seen as a justified and virtuous contribution or badge of honor. Although inspiring is merely useful in helping with daily work such as tackling an unpleasant task, it becomes crucial in dealing with crises and striving for long-term successes.

While the original work on motivation is based on behavioral conditioning, initially the work of Thorndike, Pavlov, and others, and later popularized through Skinner (1953, 1971, 1974), it was converted into management terms by Vroom (1964). Expectancy theory sets out the stimulus-response chain that must work effectively for high performance to occur through positive incentives. First, workers have to know that their efforts can in fact lead to good performance (this linkage is called expectancy by Vroom). There are many reasons why they might doubt this linkage: lack of innate ability, poor training, unclear assignment, lack of ambition, or even interest. The second linkage is between good performance and the delivery of work-related rewards (what Vroom calls instrumentality). Just because good performance is achieved, will rewards occur? This linkage breaks down when rewards are not awarded based on performance (but perhaps based on seniority or personal connections), are awarded inequitably (e.g., when the employee making an improvement gets the praise and the employee's superior gets the raise), or are altogether lacking. The final linkage, valence, is between the reward and the desirability of the reward to the recipient. Additional compensation may be a weak motivator if the recipient is more desirous of time off, more support (less stress), or better working conditions. Vroom speculates that these stages function in a roughly multiplicative fashion so that a "weak link" in any stage tremendously reduces motivation. Good managers monitor all the stages, not only identifying problems for the group as a whole but also examining the barriers to positive motivation for each individual. See Exhibit 7.6 for a figure identifying the basic elements of expectancy theory.

Perhaps the best-known leadership theory related to leadership style and motivation is path-goal (House 1971; House and Mitchell 1974). It holds that different leadership

Exhibit 7.6

Vroom's Expectancy Theory



styles are more effective in different conditions, largely using the logic of expectancy theory. Supportive leadership emphasizes consideration for the needs of subordinates and establishing a friendly work climate. It is especially important when the work is intrinsically less interesting because it is repetitious or boring. It is also useful when the work is dangerous or stressful. Directive leadership provides specific instructions, orders, and structuring for subordinates. It is useful when there is a lack of training and experience, and when work is unstructured or complex, and subordinates need direction to work coherently or organize quickly. Participative leadership provides opportunities for subordinates to share their opinions and ideas, and sometimes to share in decision making. It is useful when knowledgeable workers can help with work-related problems, or when highly trained workers are better than the leader at structuring new or unclear work. Achievement-oriented leadership emphasizes challenging goals, excellence, and high standards. As transformational theories implicitly acknowledged later in the field's development, an achievement focus actually functions on a different basis and is, therefore, not as mutually exclusive as the other three categories are. It is particularly important when morale is weak, goals are low, or long-term strategies are unclear. As with other contingency models of leadership, path-goal theory emphasizes that leaders pay a great deal of attention to the characteristics of situations and their followers, and then pick the right style to suit. Weak leaders, according to most contingency theories, rely too heavily on one or two styles, and use them in inappropriate situations. The extroverted, "nice-guy" leader may fail to give commands in a crisis and inspire the group to set challenging goals. The linear, "tough-guy" leader may fail to support people when they are discouraged or fail to take advice and include people when he is less capable than his followers at tackling the problems at hand. The consensus-builder leader may fail to distinguish situations in which he needs to act with authority or not overburden inexperienced followers with decisions that they are unequipped to handle. (See chapter 10 for an extended discussion of path-goal theory.)

The research on motivation in leadership is extensive but it is placed in very different conceptual packages that are rarely identical in what they include and exclude. Many researchers include all the aspects of motivating discussed in this section *in addition to* consulting, delegating, and developing others into a single "leadership" category (e.g., Mintzberg 1973). On the other hand, Yukl (1998) divides recognizing, rewarding, and motivating/inspiring into three categories. Therefore, it is particularly important to discern how motivation concepts are operationally defined in comparing such studies. In a study of federal managers, motivating was ranked as highly important with one or two of the subcompetencies being placed in the top twenty for executives and supervisors respectively. For example, "provide recognition and rewards for effective performance" was ranked fifth (of 150) for both groups. Inspiring behaviors ranked 31 and 54 for executives/supervisors, respectively.[4] Supervisors were far more interested in employee behavior problems (21st) and conducting disciplinary actions (74th) than executives who did not place either of these competencies in the top 100. In a study of local government managers, motivating was frequently pointed out as both a strength and weakness (Van Wart 2001).

Guidelines

1. *Recognize as many people as possible and appropriate.* Because recognition is effective in motivating people and costs nothing except the effort, it should be an important practice for leaders. Leaders can recognize improvements in performance, maintenance of high standards and reliability, out-of-the-ordinary work accomplished for the group, displays of good organizational citizenship, commendable efforts that failed, solutions to problems, and so on. It is important not just to reward a few good performers or those with high-visibility jobs. Leaders who never recognize a subordinate may be sending a message that either they find the person's work unsatisfactory or that s/he is part of the "out" group, even if this is not true. Frequent and timely recognition is more motivating than recognition long after the fact, such as in an annual evaluation. For management purposes, specificity in recognition is particularly important for a number of reasons. First, recognizing specific behaviors illustrates an understanding that makes the praise more believable. Second, it reinforces ideal practices whereas general recognition does not necessarily do so. Third, specificity reduces the risk that recognition is perceived primarily as a popularity contest.
2. *Use an appropriate form of recognition.* There are many forms and levels of recognition, and it is important to use as many as possible for appropriateness and variety. While managing by walking around, the manager should be able to

intersperse verbal praise, as well as occasional suggestions for improvements. Most staff meetings should have a recognition component in which the leader quickly reviews current or special accomplishments. Written notes recognizing praiseworthy activities are very motivating. This requires that notes stipulating improvement areas also be written to balance personal records; however, negative notes and evaluations are better accepted when both the positive and negative aspects of performance are in writing. Informal appreciation lunches can be as motivating as formal awards programs. "Nice try" discussions should quickly follow failures; such discussions can then easily segue into analyses of what went wrong and how things might be done differently next time.

3. *Explain how rewards and significant commendations are distributed.* People must know the rules of the game in order to follow the rules, and be motivated to seek high levels of performance. If a desirable internal position will be opening in the next year or so, it is useful to tell those eligible what you will be looking for so that they can groom themselves for the position if they are interested. If priorities have shifted, it is important to let people know this as soon as possible so that they are not surprised later. The act of explaining how rewards and commendations are distributed will ensure that managers are clear about the elements and standards of performance that they will later be identifying and tracking.
4. *Find out what rewards are attractive.* More money is always nice, but money may not be available, and it may not be the prime motivator in every case. A sense of what people value in rewards, as well as what type of recognition is meaningful, is a critical task in using recognition and rewards most effectively.
5. *Explain rules and procedures to ensure that subordinates understand the consequences of deviations.* When rules and procedures are not explained and documented, the liability generally flows up to the manager! For example, when an employee has not been provided training on sexual harassment and reported incidents are not followed up by the supervisor with documented coaching, then the employee may be legally absolved of legal culpability while the supervisor and the organization may become the legal target. It is important for managers to respond to infractions promptly and fairly, without showing favoritism to any individual or group. Additionally, it is important to note that not administering punitive action for noncompliance may result in lost credibility, encourage wayward behavior, and ultimately redound upon the leader.
6. *In order to avoid hasty and wrong conclusions, always investigate the facts before using reprimands and punishment.* Any savvy leader (or lawyer) knows that there are two or more sides to every story and that it is imprudent not to have the data from alternate perspectives before acting. When infractions are reported, leaders need to be trained to withhold judgmental or accusatory comments until additional information is gathered. Comments such as "I will not stand for that"

or "That is unacceptable on the part of Matt" before an issue has been discussed with the accused can be construed as a prejudgment or bias. Further, if the original data are wrong, skip over significant facts, or omit substantial mitigating factors, then the leader is put in the position of contradicting her/himself. Comments that show concern but neutrality are much wiser: "I will look into that as soon as I can," "I will talk to Matt immediately to see what the problem was," or "We will need to investigate to see exactly what transpired." Some additional suggestions are: to remain calm and collected during the process, to express a sincere desire to help the subordinate, and to try to engage the target person in the problem resolution process.

7. *Use punishments that are fair and commensurate with the seriousness of the violation.* The general management practice of progressive discipline covers much of this guideline. This practice recommends that disciplinary actions be administered sequentially such that the target has the opportunity to understand problems/concerns and to take self-corrective actions. Assuming minor or low-grade problems, a target should first get coaching—recommendations on how to improve without a reprimand being involved. Next the target receives an oral warning—a clear statement that improvement will be necessary. Such warnings should be documented as notes in an activity record or desk personnel file. After one or more oral warnings the manager moves to a written reprimand that is maintained as an official document, whether or not it is sent to a central personnel file. An especially important opportunity in this regard is the annual evaluation in which written reprimands should be cited. Next, punitive action can be taken to include: suspension with or without pay, no pay raise, a fine, demotion of responsibilities (informal) or classification (formal), increased or special supervision, and ultimately termination of employment. In a fully articulated progressive discipline sequence a lesser formal punishment or two would precede termination. It is important to note that discipline is fact and situation specific: No set regimen can be determined in advance without knowing the specific facts and context. For example, some low-performing employees may gradually move up to written reprimands, improve for extended periods, and later have deteriorating performance requiring starting over at the oral reprimand level. Or occasionally an employee's violation is egregious or serious, requiring skipping steps in the chain. To use the example from above, the first case of sexual harassment may be egregious and documented, requiring a stern written warning and a corrective course of action (e.g., mandatory training and a distance restraint). Or, if an employee commits a serious enough violation, such as theft of government property, the organization may elect to move immediately to termination. Of course, due process must be carefully followed, such as a pretermination hearing (generally known as Loudermill rights[5]) and appropriate post-termination grievance procedures.

8. *When attempting to inspire, use energetic or emotional language with symbols, metaphors, and inclusive terms such as "we," "us," and "our."* Inspiring is both a technical and emotional undertaking. In technical terms, inspiring is assisted by language that captures the imagination or strikes clear mental images. "Fred, imagine what it would be like if we could announce that we had solved this problem at the annual retreat." Or, "This first phase of data gathering and logistics will be like setting the pylons for a bridge: hard work that is largely unappreciated. But once we have accomplished that, the program edifice that we can achieve will be a means of transport for thousands of needy clients from poverty to self-reliance." Appeals are not only to rational logic (especially self-interest), but also come in the form of emotional appeals (e.g., emphasizing group membership and pride) and personal appeal (based on the request of the leader). Effective appeals enable people to appreciate the long-term benefits of hard work and sacrifice. The emotional element is the sincerity and energy that it takes to make inspiration work. Lethargy and lack of trust are sure killers of inspiration.

BUILDING AND MANAGING TEAMS

The array of groups that organizations use is extensive (Hackman 1990). Unfortunately, the nomenclature for this complex area varies extensively. "Intact" or "functional" work groups (i.e., all the members of a unit) are generally distinguished from "true" teams, which have various distinguishing features such as selective membership (discussed below). Teams are indispensable in most organizations today and require a special set of skills to manage. Yet all groups—work groups and teams—share some common needs in terms of the values, identification, and group bonding that enhance the likelihood of optimal performance. This aspect is generally referred to as team building. Therefore, managing teams *involves creating and supporting "true" teams in addition to traditional work units, and team building involves enhancing identification with the work, intramember cooperation, and esprit de corps of both work groups and teams.*

There are three important parameters that capture most of the differentiation of groups in organizations. One parameter is group membership. Is group membership inclusive of all the members of a unit more or less automatically, or are members selectively recruited or assigned? Additionally, are all the members selected from within a work unit or are they chosen from a variety of units? Second, what is the work function and scope of the group? Is it to produce a service or product on an ongoing basis (a basic operational function), or is it to make a specialized, part-time, or one-time contribution to the process? Third, what is the degree of authority for independent decision making of the group? Are most ideas proposed, monitored, and approved by a leader with formal authority in the area (as is common in traditional work groups), or does the team have some degree of independence