

Unit assignments

Some units will consist of assignments from both the Aamodt text and the course pack (as Unit 1 does). Therefore when I refer to "Aamodt", I am referring to the text. If I do not indicate where the material is from, you will find it in the course pack.

Study Objectives: Page and paragraph designations. At the beginning (or end) of each objective I have indicated the page and paragraph where the answer to the objective can be found. The page is listed first, followed by a comma, and then the paragraph number is provided. The paragraphs should be counted down from the top of the page. Therefore "6,3" should be read as page six, the third new paragraph from the top of the page. When referring to material at the top of a page when the paragraph is continued from the previous page I will use a "0". Therefore, "12,0" would mean that the answer to the objective can be found on page 12 at the top of the page. I try to be as accurate as possible with these numbers. However, sometimes my computer makes a mistake - so if the answer cannot be found in the designated paragraph always look at the paragraphs that precede and follow the one that is indicated. If there are mistakes, please bring it to my attention in class so that I can inform the other students.

Unit 1: The history of I/O and OBM

1. Aamodt, Chapter 1
2. Dickinson, A. M. (2019). Credentialing in behavior analysis. Unpublished ms.
3. Dickinson, A. M. (2000). The historical roots of Organizational Behavior Management in the private sector. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 20(3/4), 9-58.

I have also included the following optional article in the unit. I have asked you to learn some of the material from the Bucklin et al. article which I abstracted and embedded in the study objectives; thus, you don't have to read the article unless you want to.

Bucklin, B. R., Alvero, A. J., Dickinson, A. M., Austin, J., & Jackson, A. K. (2000). Industrial-Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior Management: An Objective Comparison. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 20(2), 27-75.

Do not panic over the number of study objectives! Many are not for the exam.

Aamodt text: Chapter 1

1. 2,4. State the difference between IO psychology and business fields. You should refer to both and include the material that follows "such as" with respect to the business fields. (yes, I am dropping the "slash" in I/O –it's too annoying to type it over and over again)
2. 2,5-3,0. Not for the exam, but note that IO psychologists are not clinical or counseling psychologists.
3. 4,2-5,0. State what the "I" and "O" mean in IO psychology (also, personnel psychology = industrial psychology). I bet this is something you have been wondering about. The distinction is not valid any more as both of these areas overlap, but the historical name for the field and the distinction continues...)

The next material is not for the exam: The name of our field varies from country to country. In Europe, for example, our field is called "work psychology," and in Great Britain our field is called "occupational psychology."

4. 5,4 Based on the following material be able to answer:

- A. What is the oldest “organized” area of application in I/O – the one that still dominates the field today? The answer: Personnel Selection.
- B. When and how did this specialization get started? The answer: Selection and placement of military personnel in WWI and WWII.

5. 7, 2-8,1. Because I am going to cover the Hawthorne studies in detail later in this course, I am not going to focus on them now; for now, just learn the material below. They were critical to the development of IO. These studies actually put the “O” in IO psychology; prior to that the field focused primarily on the “I”.

For the exam:

State the name of the event that expanded the scope of IO psychology from industrial psychology- which includes personnel issues, such as personnel selection and training, to organizational psychology which includes human relations, the work environment, and attitudes (in particular, job satisfaction)

6. 8,2. Not for the exam. No other event in the history of IO psychology increased the number of IO psychologists than the civil rights legislation mentioned in this paragraph. These laws also account for the fact that personnel selection still dominates the field of IO psychology today. I do not cover any of these topics in this course because we offer a specialized course in Personnel Selection & Placement (PSY 6430).

7. 8,3. Not for the exam. It’s cool that Aamodt recognizes us here. However, it was **not** due to Skinner’s book *Beyond Freedom and Dignity*. My article in this unit describes the actual events that led to OBM. Also, the book that influenced most individuals with respect to the development of behavior analysis was *Science and Human Behavior* (1953), not *Beyond Freedom and Dignity*.

8. 8,4 Not for the exam but note the last sentence in this paragraph. This is absolutely true. I am often asked about the differences between “traditional” IO psychology training programs and ours; this is one of the major differences. And, as I shall come back to later, helps explain why there is a “deep divide” between IO psychology and OBM: most IO psychologists do not accept our single subject research designs and visual analyses as “scientific.”

Do you know that Dr. Huitema’s Ph.D. is actually in IO psychology, not statistics? But because of the traditional emphasis on statistics in IO, many IO psychologists became statisticians.

9. 10, Table 1.3

A. State the two top employers of MA level I/O psychologists, in rank order (you do not have to learn the percentages). Note that these two types of employers account for over 80% of MA level IO psychologists.

B. State the three top employers of Ph.D. level I/O psychologists, in rank order (you do not have to learn the percentages). Note that these three types of employers account for almost 90% of Ph.D. level psychologists

The following material is not for the exam but note that **40%** of Ph.D. level IO psychologists work in universities while 25% work in consulting firms and 23% work in the private sector. There is quite a difference in the percentages of those who work in universities vs. consulting firms and the private sector.

Again, the following material will not be on the exam, but note the differences in the percentages between the percentage of Ph.D. level IO psychologists and the percentage of MA level IO psychologists who work in the *private sector*. MA level psychologists are much more likely to work in the private sector than are Ph.D. level psychologists. These percentages are important to you when you are making career decisions (see also the last sentence in 10,2: I would now add to the list “process improvement” specialist – many of our MA students have gotten jobs in this area).

10. 10,3, last sentence. In 2014, the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated that the opportunities of IO psychologists are expected to grow by what percentage between 2012-2022?

The following material will not be on the exam: To get an idea of the growth of the field, look at Table 1.2 and the growth in the number of members in the main professional organization. Wouldn't it be nice if the OBM Net had that many members?

Finally, when looking for a job and the type of job titles relevant to IO psychology (in addition to the ones listed in Table 1.4), I strongly recommend that you look at the jobs listed through the Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology: siop.org

Our students often forget to check this web site when they get to a point when they are looking for jobs!

11. 10,4. Not for the exam. The text gives the median salaries for MA and Ph.D. level IO psychologists, however, these data are dated. I thought you would find the following information about salaries from the latest survey (2016) interesting.

Starting salaries. The median *starting* salary for new Ph.D.s is ~ \$80,000, (not in academia, mind you). The median *starting* salary for MAs is ~ \$67,000. This figure is more than the starting salaries of our recent graduates, however; that figure ranges between \$45,000-\$55,000.

Median overall salaries. The median salary for Ph.D.s is ~\$119,000 and the median salary for MAs is \$84,000. Practitioners earn about 12% higher median annual salaries than their academic counterparts; ~\$117,000 versus \$103,000 for academics.

Median salaries for men and women (PhD. and MA. combined). The median salary for men is ~\$117,000 and for women, ~\$104,000. The good news is that although the gender gap remains, it is getting smaller. In 1982 females earned 81.4% of what males earned; today they earn 89.7%. Additionally, median income levels have increased at an average annual rate of 3.30% for females and 3.00% for males.

Female and male faculty salaries at WMU. Also, alas for females, at WMU, females make less than males at **all** faculty ranks. At the full and associate professor ranks, females are paid about 90% of what males make, and at the assistant and instructor levels, 93%.

12. Turn to 17,4 and page 18, Table 1.5. Not for the exam. The name of the premier journal for IO psychology is the *Journal of Applied Psychology*. Note the interesting name – the journal

is devoted solely to IO psychology even though the name of the journal is *Journal of Applied Psychology*.

Also, look at Table 1.2 (page 6), you will see that this journal was first published in 1917. The first person who received a degree in IO psychology was awarded the degree in 1921 - so you can see the field became a "codified" field around 1917-1920.

Again, not for the exam, but notice in Table 1.5 that the *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management* is not listed.

Finally, and again, not for the exam: in 19,1-3, note the caution about the Internet!

13. For the exam but not in the text. Be able to state the percentage of psychologists that practice IO psychology. The answer: 4%

The following is not for the exam, but it is not a surprise that people don't know we exist (or that the field of OBM exists). 50% of APA's more than 96,000 psychologists are Clinical, Counseling, and School Psychologists.

Credentialing of Behavior Analysts: Certification and Licensing

Dickinson credentialing ms in course pack.

14. Based on the material below, be able to state the main reason why many (including SIOP as an organization), maintain that IO psychologists should not have to be licensed. This is a controversial issue, often pitting IO psychology against state licensing boards.

Licensing was originally developed to protect the public in health care areas (mental health, behavioral health areas which basically deal with populations that are vulnerable). IO psychologists are not health providers and do not deal with vulnerable populations.

15. 5, 1.

A. State the two main reasons for license laws for behavior analysts.

B. What do the license laws that accompany autism insurance laws do?

16. 5, 3-6,1. State two additional reasons why some behavior analysts feel all behavior analysts should be licensed.

17. 6, 1 State the two main types of laws and describe each (who is covered).

18. From lecture: State four reasons why many (most) people in OBM maintain that OBM (as well as many other applied fields in behavior analysis) should be excluded from licensing.

The following material is not for the exam. These are also the reasons why most people in OBM are not certified. Given that certification is voluntary, however, certification of behavior analysts is not controversial (except for the fact that it is making it very difficult for our students to get academic jobs – more on this in lecture). Licensing clearly is controversial.

19. 7,1 What is the current conundrum with respect to state license laws that cover all behavior analysts? Please note that some students had trouble with this study objective last year. If you have questions about it, please ask.

20. 8,1 A. What is an unintended and vexing result of credentialing and licensing?

B. State my rebuttal (argument against) this unintended and vexing result.

Some Major Differences Between traditional I/O Psychology and OBM. I am presenting this material because students often ask me what the difference is between traditional IO psychology and OBM. The information in these study objectives is based on the article by Bucklin et al. that I have included in the course pack. You do not have to read the article - I have included all of the information I want to learn in the study objectives. However, some of you may want to read the entire article. I have provided the page and paragraph numbers for the information I have asked you to learn, just so you can refer to the article for more detail should you want to do that.

To conduct the comparison, articles that were published in *JOBM* and *JAP* (*Journal of Applied Psychology*) between the years of 1987 and 1997 were analyzed and classified. I am only going to present some of the "highlights" of the results below. The article, unfortunately, is dated and it is time for an update. But I haven't been able to get anyone to do the update! Do I have any volunteers? It would be a great publication/comp.

21. 30,1 and 31,1. Not for the exam. There is no unifying theory underlying the field of I/O. In fact, there are dozens of different theoretical perspectives. There is one unifying theory for OBM: behavior analysis.

To get an idea of the number of different theories that exist, peruse the chapters on motivation and leadership in Aamodt. He presents at least 10 different motivational theories and 8 different leadership theories. And the motivational theories do NOT correspond to the leadership theories. Therefore, without delving very deeply, there are 18 different theoretical perspectives identified.

It is not very surprising, therefore that most of the research in IO psychology is designed to test hypotheses derived from the various theories (who is right, in other words?).

22. 48, Table 2. **For the exam:** Based on the material in this study objective: (a) Be able to rank order the top *three* areas of inquiry for I/O (you don't have to learn the top three for OBM), (b) and state of the top 12 topics addressed, how many were common to both I/O and OBM (you don't have to state what the three areas were).

The rank order of the top three topics that were addressed in articles in *JAP* and *JOBM* follow.

Traditional I/O: 1. Selection and placement; 2. Statistical analysis procedures; 3. Performance appraisal.

For OBM: 1. Productivity and quality; 2. Customer satisfaction; 3. Training and Development. Note that there is no overlap in the top three areas.

In the top 12 topics addressed there were only **three** areas common to both I/O and OBM: Training and Development; Productivity and Quality; and Health/Safety.

23. 49,2. Experimental vs. Correlational research. Based on the material below be able to state the primary research strategy for OBM and for I/O.

In *JOBM*, 95% of the research articles were experimental where at least one IV was manipulated. In *JAP*, 60% of the articles were correlational.

Thus, the primary research strategy, experimental manipulation versus correlational reflects a major distinction between the fields.

24. 49,3. Not for the exam, but interesting to know: Field vs. laboratory research. In *JOBM*, about 80% of *experimental* research was conducted in field settings; In *JAP*, 80% of the *experimental* research was conducted in the lab. “Experimental” is defined as a study in which at least one IV was actually manipulated.
25. 51,2. Based on the following material, be able to state what percentage of research articles in *JOBM* was designed to solve applied problems and what percentage in *JAP* was designed to solve applied problems.

In *JOBM*, about 45% of the research articles were designed to solve an organizational problem; in *JAP*, only about 5%! (I rounded these percentages to make them easier for you to learn.)

26. From the information in the two preceding study objectives, you can certainly argue that *OBM* has much more of an applied focus while *I/O* has much more of a theoretical focus.

Based on the material below, state and explain the two main reasons why *I/O* research tends to be theory-driven and conducted in laboratory settings.

I/O research tends to be theory-driven and conducted in laboratory settings for two main reasons: (1) the fact that there is no unifying theory in *I/O* and thus much of the research is focused on testing hypotheses derived from a particular theory and comparisons of the validity of various theories; and (2) a tradition of adherence to rigorous experimental methodology and between group designs *coupled* with a rejection/ignorance of within-subject designs as legitimate experimental methodology (because of the small N and reliance on visual analyses). For the second reason, be sure to include the material starting with “coupled” in your answer.

The following material is not for the exam: In the 8 *IO* texts I reviewed last summer, *not one* mentioned or acknowledged the existence of single subject research designs in their research section.

27. Why does strict adherence to between-group designs restrict research in applied settings *in contrast* to within-subject designs that are commonly adopted by behavioral psychologists. You must mention both types of research designs in your answer. (See page 57,1 for a discussion of this.)

Between-group designs are usually not feasible in applied settings because participants must be randomly assigned to experimental groups; within-subject designs do not require random assignment and thus can be more easily, from a practical perspective, implemented in work settings.

Companies are not willing and are usually unable to randomly assign employees to the experimental conditions. Because of this, most of the research gets conducted in the lab where such designs can be done. Thus in *I/O* psychology, research directed at applied issues/topics often takes the form of laboratory simulations.

28. 55,1-56,0 and Table 3 on page 56. Bucklin et al. identified the top 9 IVs that were examined by both *JAP* and *JOBM* researchers. Seven were the same. Yet, the data indicate that there are major differences with respect to the IVs examined in *JAP* and *JOBM*. Describe these major differences as I do below.

The main IV in I/O research is antecedent/information - traditional I/O researchers rarely manipulate consequences. In contrast, in OBM, (a) antecedents are rarely manipulated alone, (b) consequences are manipulated more often, and (c) "package" interventions (i.e., task clarification, checklists/job aids, goals, feedback, and rewards) are much more frequently used.

29. In OBM, package interventions are often used in applied settings but not in laboratory studies. Explain why, based on the material below and referring to the objectives of the two types of research.

In applied settings, it is important to get changes in performance as quickly as possible – delays can have adverse affect on profits and critical business outcomes. In contrast, lab research has a very different focus – lab research is designed to partial out the effects of various IVs.

The following is not for the exam. It makes sense that most OBM interventions in business and other applied settings are multi-component interventions. The following four review studies (including one that reviewed interventions in human service settings) have all reported that multi-component interventions are more effective than single-component interventions: (a) Balcazar, F., Hopkins, B. L., & Suarez, Y. (1985/1986). A critical, objective review of performance feedback. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 7(3/4), 65-89; (b) Alvero, A., M., Bucklin, B. R., & Austin, J. (2001). An objective review of the effectiveness and essential characteristics of feedback in organizational settings (1985-1998). *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 21(1), 3-29; (c) Stajkovic, A. D., & Luthans, F. (2003). Behavioral management and task performance in organizations. *Personnel Psychology*, 56, 155-194; (d) Reid, D. H., O’Kane, N. P., & Macurik, K. M. (2011). Staff training and management. In W. W. Fischer, C. C. Piazza, & H. S. Roane (Eds.), *Handbook of applied behavior analysis* (pp. 281-294). NY: The Guilford Press.

30. 59,1. One of the weaknesses in OBM in comparison to traditional I/O is the extent to which we assess social validity/satisfaction. Social validity was assessed in 51% of all I/O field studies, whereas it was assessed in only 27% of OBM field studies – this, in spite of the fact that OBM researchers conducted a much higher percentage of field studies. These data have not changed much: Only 20% of the articles in a review of studies published during the last decade in JOBM (VanStelle et al., 2012) assessed social validity.

Learn the following reasons why it is important to assess social validity.

(a) If current clients are satisfied with the interventions, they are more likely to continue them. (b) It could increase acceptance of our behavioral interventions in business and industry in general (assuming of course that the data indicate that employees and management are satisfied), and (c) it could mitigate complaints that our interventions/technology is manipulative and coercive (ethical issues that have been raised by traditional I/O psychologists).

Dickinson article

31. 10,1 When did the first signs of OBM become visible?
32. 18,1. Name the individual who is responsible for "programmed instruction."

33. 19,1 What area within the field was the first organized application of behavioral principles in the work place?
34. 19,2 Not for the exam. State the names of the authors who published what many consider to be the first applied article in the field of behavior analysis.

21, 0 Not for the exam. Also, according to Hopkins, who is the "father of behavior modification" and thus the "grandfather of OBM?"

The following is not for the exam but an interesting history lesson: Many of you know or know of Jon Bailey, who is a faculty member at FSU. Bailey was an undergraduate student of Jack Michael's at Arizona State University, and later received his Ph.D. from the University of Kansas. His advisor was Mont Wolf who received his Ph.D. with Michael at ASU (Wolf mentored Bailey at ASU and Michael told Bailey to go to UK and continue his studies with Wolf). Bailey was the doctoral advisor of John Austin and Jim Carr. Dave Wilder at FIT was a Ph.D. student of Carr's. Bailey retired about 7 years ago. He is still, however, teaching at the FSU Panama City campus in an MA program that focuses on training individuals to work in human services.

35. 22,1.
- A. What was the name of the first professional organization devoted to the advancement of behavioral applications? Give the full name, do not abbreviate.
- B. When was it founded?
- C. What is the name of this association now? Give the full name, do not abbreviate.
36. Learn the following contributions that Brethower made to the field of OBM: "programmed instruction", "performance management", and "development of behavioral systems analysis" (along with Rummel).

The following is not for the exam but is another interesting "family tree": Brethower took his first undergraduate class in behavior analysis from Jack Michael at the University of Kansas, which was Michael's first academic job. Brethower received his MA degree from Harvard, where he studied with Skinner; then went to UM, where he received his Ph.D. He joined WMU in 1978. Dr. Brethower was my doctoral advisor at Western Michigan University.

37. Based on the material below explain how programmed instruction led to performance management which led to the development of behavioral systems analysis.
- Experts in programmed instruction realized that they could get individuals to learn the material, however, they came to realize that often that training did not transfer to the job. Hence, the development of performance management. Then, they realized that even if trainees improved their job performance, the improved job performance still might not affect critical business drivers (results). Hence, the advent of behavioral systems analysis that examines not only the individual's job, but also the work processes (how the work gets done) and organizational level measures of success.*
38. 22-26. Not for the exam. This section explains why the works of Brethower, Rummel, and Gilbert are so similar. However, there is far too much detail for you to learn. Based on the following summary, be able to explain why their works are so similar.

Brethower and Rummler developed behavioral systems analysis while they were graduate students at the University of Michigan in the 1960s. Gilbert was invited to teach some of the training workshops at UM, and then later Rummler and Gilbert formed one of the first behaviorally oriented consulting firms together.

The following is not for the exam: Brethower and Rummler remained good friends their entire lives. Brethower and his wife built a house in AZ about 25 miles from where the Rummlers lived and retired there. Tragically, Rummler died suddenly in 2007.

39. 28,0. State the name of the very influential book written by Gilbert and the date it was published. People in OBM still refer to this book all the time – you should get a copy and read it. In lecture I will talk a bit about why this book was so important, although I won't require you to know that for the exam.
40. 32-35. State the following three major accomplishments of Daniels with respect to the formation of OBM: (a) Formed one of the first major OBM consulting firms (specifically, BSI); (b) Was the first editor of the *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management* (in 1977); (c) Published one of the first OBM books in 1982, called *R+ Performance Management* (written for supervisors and managers).
41. 34,1. Where did the name for our field come from?
42. A. 37,1 What university was the first to offer OBM and behavioral systems analysis?
B. 37,1. State the name of the faculty member who was responsible for the systems analysis training program at WMU.
43. 45,1
A. According to Dickinson, how do early events in traditional management fields such as I/O psychology, organizational behavior and management science relate to the development of OBM? In other words, what type of precursors were they and what type weren't they? Where did the field of OBM emanate from?
B. Also, explain why she arrived at the conclusion that the field of OBM developed in relative isolation from I/O and emanated primarily from programmed instruction and behavioral applications in other areas.

Students have had trouble with this, so let me help: *The individuals who most influenced and pioneered the field, such as Aubrey Daniels, Dale Brethower, Tom Gilbert, etc., came from other areas in behavior analysis, not from I/O or management fields.* (Not for the exam, but note that there are exceptions: for example, Ed Feeney, Tom Mawhinney, and Fred Luthans.)

THE END

Unit 2: Traditional Performance Appraisal, Performance Measurement, Performance Assessment, and Task Clarification

Reading Assignment

Aamodt, Chapter 7

The following articles in the course pack:

1. Daniels, A. C., & Bailey, J. S. (2014). Chapter 7: Measurement Tools: Necessary but not sufficient for behavior change. *Performance Management, 5th edition* (pp. 71-95). Atlanta, GA: Performance Management Publications.
2. Pampino, R. N., Jr., Heering, P. W., Wilder, D. A., Barton, C. G., & Burson, L. M. (2003). The use of the performance diagnostic checklist to guide intervention selection in an independently owned coffee shop. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, 23* (2/3), 5-19.
3. Anderson, D. C., Crowell, C. R., Hantula, D., & Siroky, L. M. (1988). Task clarification and individual performance posting for improving cleaning in a student-managed university bar. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, 9*(2), 73-90.
4. Komaki, J. L. (1986). Toward effective supervision: An operant analysis and comparison for managers at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(2), 270-279.

Recommended Readings: Not required and not in the course pack

1. Systems analysis translated into performance improvement
Abernathy, W. B. (2014). Beyond the Skinner box: The design and management of organization-wide performance systems. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, 34*(4), 235-254.
This is an amazing article about how to do a systems analysis and translate the analysis into performance improvement. You should read everything that Bill Abernathy wrote.
2. Integrating organizational-culture and performance management.
Binder, C. (2016). Integrating organizational-culture values with performance management. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, 36*(2-3), 185-201.
3. Operant leadership applied to teams
Komaki, J. L., Desselles, M. L., & Bowman, E. D. (1989). Definitely not a breeze: Extending an operant model of effective supervision to teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(3), 522-529.
This is one of my all-time favorites – an applied article done with captains in an actual sailboat regatta. It extends Komaki's work in the article above to teams.
4. Operant leadership model: research, assessment of skills, and training leadership skills
Komaki, J., L., Minnich, M. L. R., Grotto, A. R., Weinshank, B., & Kern, M. J. (2011). Promoting critical operant-based leadership while decreasing ubiquitous directives and exhortations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, 31*(4), 236-259.
This is an exceptional article. It's one of the very few in our field that summarizes all of the research on her operant leadership model and presents a training study that developed leadership skills in actual managers. This should be required reading, but I chose to use her

earlier article that provides more of a detailed description of her actual model and leadership assessment tool.

5. Example of Gilbert's Behavioral Engineering Model to assess and improve performance
LaFleur, T., & Hyten, C. (1995). Improving the quality of hotel banquet staff performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 15(1/2), 69-93.
6. Example of Daniels' PIC/NIC assessment
Doll, J., Livesey, J., McHaffie, E., Ludwig, T. D. (2007). Keeping an uphill edge: Managing cleaning behaviors at a ski shop. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 27(3), 41-60.

This is an excellent example of Daniels' PIC/NIC as an assessment instrument. It also examines task clarification, and once again indicates that task clarification alone increases performance moderately, and that further increases can be obtained if feedback is combined with task clarification.
7. Review article of the percentage of empirical studies that used a preintervention diagnostic procedures in JOBIM (2000-2015) and type of procedure used.
Wilder, D A., Lipschultz, J. L., King, A., Driscoll, S., & Sigurdsson, S. (2018). An analysis of the commonality and type of preintervention assessment procedures in the Journal of Organizational Behavior Management (2000-2015). *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 38(1), 5-17.

Some Major Take-Home Points: Unit 2
(or perhaps, the World According to Dickinson)

These are not for the exam, but they do explain my choice of articles

1. Different traditional performance appraisal systems all have advantages and disadvantages; none is better than any other overall.
2. In the absence of more behaviorally based measurement systems, annual performance appraisals are a necessary "evil" for administrative purposes but have little effect on employee performance. It's not the type of performance appraisal form or system that is the problem; rather, it's the (a) *annual* evaluation combined with the (b) *subjectiveness* of the evaluation that causes problems.
3. There are several different behavioral assessment tools/instruments in OBM; most are descriptive, not functional, in nature. None has been shown to be better than the others.
4. Task clarification has been examined extensively and there are dozens of studies.
 - A. Task clarification increases performance in most cases, however, only modestly.
 - B. When task clarification is combined with feedback, the effects are much better.
 - C. When task clarification is combined with feedback and goal-setting, again the effects are much better. Goal-setting may increase the effectiveness of both feedback and task clarification by providing an "evaluative" component. More on this later in the course.
 - D. When task clarification is combined with feedback and some type of praise or tangible rewards, the effects are even better than when it is simply combined with feedback. Again, this is not surprising because when feedback is combined with either (a) some type of

evaluative component or (b) tangible rewards, its effects are greatly enhanced as well. Again, there will be more on this in Unit 6.

- E. None of the above should be *any* surprise to behavior analysts. Task clarification is an antecedent intervention. It's not clear whether feedback functions primarily as a consequence or antecedent; probably both in many situations, but it could be either one in any specific situation. It is clear, however, that any type of tangible rewards are consequences and that evaluation is also a consequence, or depending upon the type of evaluative component, at least implies consequences will be forthcoming, and thus we would expect both rewards and evaluation to have greater effects than task clarification or any other antecedent intervention.

Finally, the study objectives!

Aamdot, Chapter 7, Traditional Performance Appraisal

1. 235,1. Not for the exam but note that different performance appraisal methods are appropriate for some purposes but not for others; thus it is important for organizations to determine the reason for the evaluation.
2. 237,1 and ppt. When a particular employee is being evaluated, why is it that there may be little agreement between the supervisor's rating and ratings by peers, the person's subordinates, and the person's customers?
3. A. 238,3 and ppt. In general and when peers are similar and well acquainted with the person being rated how reliable and valid are they (how well do they predict future success)?
B. 238,4 (next to the last sentence) and ppt. However, what does the research indicate about how individuals react to feedback from peers? (include the type of feedback as well as the comparison with experts and supervisors).
4. Learn the following: The most serious obstacle in using peer assessments/evaluations *is that employees do not like them and object to doing them* (Muchinsky, 2015).

None of the rest of the material in this study objective will be on the exam: Our university provides a very nice example of this type of obstacle. For many years, the faculty participated in a peer assessment merit evaluation procedure. The union did not want the system because of the divisiveness it would create among faculty, but the administration insisted. About ten or so years ago, the union got its way, and faculty merit based on peer assessment was eliminated. Now, all of the merit money (when there is merit money available which has not been the case for the past ten years or so) is awarded by the administration (chairs and deans). Note that this is an odd thing - the administration originally insisted on giving a certain proportion of merit money to the faculty to award. The faculty protested the peer assessment and was willing to give the administration total control of merit increases to be rid of that type of performance appraisal procedure. Then, of course, the union and faculty protested that they did not know the criteria that were being used by the administration when awarding merit money - sometimes it really is the case that the administration can't win.

Another interesting note. While the Department of Psychology developed a rather good procedure for doing peer assessments, faculty in many other departments refused - and simply split the available merit money equally among all faculty in the department.

Now, while you are thinking about how strange this is, consider how you would feel if you were asked to assess the performance of the other students who are studying with your advisor, or the other students in your degree program. Further, assume that the peer assessments would influence whether or not students received financial aid and how much financial aid they received. Would you embrace such a system or not? Why or why not?

5. 239,1-2
 - A. Not surprisingly, why can subordinate ratings be difficult to obtain?
 - B. Feedback from which of the following sources resulted in the most performance change?
(a) supervisors, (b) peers, (c) subordinates (same thing as direct reports)
6. 240,1.
 - A. Not surprisingly, what is the main problem with self-assessments?
 - B. How do self-appraisals correlate with (1) actual performance, (2) subordinate ratings, and (3) supervisor ratings?
 - C. Note that there is little agreement between self-assessments and supervisory assessments. What are the very important implications of this difference, from a behavioral perspective? Answer: *Given that self-assessments do not agree with supervisory assessments and individuals rate themselves higher, **employees are not going to believe that the rewards they receive are truly contingent upon their performance. Clearly, from a behavioral perspective, that is likely hurt performance because people are going to believe that they are not getting the rewards they deserve. In addition, it can also lead to strained relations between supervisors and employees.***
7. 241,1-251,1. Not for the exam, but Aamodt does an excellent job in describing and explaining the various types of performance appraisal instruments. Remember this if you ever need to look up something about different types of performance appraisal instruments.
8. 243,6. Why do employers use employee comparisons rather than rating scales?
9. 245,3-246,0 and ppt. Describe and explain the major drawback with **forced distribution** performance appraisals (don't just say "unfairness" as in 245,2– explain why these are often/usually considered to be "unfair").

The following material will not be on the exam: As Aamodt states, more than 20% of Fortune 1000 companies use forced distribution systems. However, there have been some very public lawsuits over the use of these type of systems because of the extent to which underrepresented groups tend to be disproportionately ranked in the low category. As a result both Ford and Goodyear (targets of the lawsuits) have stopped using them (Levi, 2012). So, be careful with these.
10. 246,2. What is the greatest problem with all employee comparison methods?
11. 248,5. State and define/explain the two types of rating errors that are the main problems with graphic rating scales. Halo is defined on page 259, 5, 1st sentence and leniency is defined on page 259,2.
12. 248,6-249,1. Based on the following material, state the reasons why behavioral checklists should not be seen as "behavioral" (as in behavior analysis) method of performance appraisal.

Behavioral checklists are often referred to as a "behavioral" (as in behavior analysis) performance appraisal system because they are based on observable behaviors. And many in OBM recommend their use. However, they should not be seen as an acceptable way to measure performance from a behavioral perspective unless we have no other choice.

Why? Because behavioral measures rely on (a) the **objective** measurement of behavior/performance, not subjective judgment by the supervisor (b) **over time as it occurs on the job**, not an assessment that occurs just once or twice a year.

When we get to the Daniel's material, you will see that he recommends a behaviorally-anchored rating scale if an organization must rely on subjective judgment, but then qualifies that by stating that such an appraisal system can be gradually moved to a better one.

13. 251,2. What does the research indicate about the superiority of "complicated," more "sophisticated" methods of performance appraisal when compared to inexpensive and uncomplicated rating scales?
14. 252, 4. The material on the legal issues surrounding performance appraisals is very important, but I don't want to ask you to memorize all of the factors that increase the likelihood of surviving a legal challenge. But if you are ever in a position to develop a performance appraisal system, you should note these factors very, very well and use them as a checklist to determine the adequacy of your system. Lawsuits can cost companies millions and millions of dollars.

Daniels chapter: I am including this primarily so you have some examples of checklists and the performance matrix. I realize that many of you have read this chapter before.

15. 71, 3

A. Why do problems arise when we start to measure what people do in organizations? Hint - the answer is in the sentence that begins "These comments indicate..."

B. Explain, based on the material below, why people may resist measurement even if measures are stated positively.

I completely agree with Daniels and Bailey that measures that are stated "positively" are more likely to be associated with reinforcement than with punishment. However, it is also important to keep in mind that many people still resist measurement if measures are stated positively. Based on the material below, explain why Dickinson maintains that people will resist measurement **even** if what is measured is positive.

The key to understanding resistance is in the consequences, not whether measures are stated positively or negatively. No matter whether the measures are stated positively or negatively, if supervisors/managers respond to them by criticizing employees, (which is typical), employees will resist measurement. So even if you measure positive things, individuals are still likely to resist measurement.

Students are sometimes surprised at the resistance they encounter when attempting to implement a feedback/reward program in business and industry. The resistance is perfectly understandable, and it is important that you remember this when you go to intervene.

16. 74-79 and Figure 7.1, page 78. Not for the exam, but note the four categories of measures that should be considered when developing measures for any position (Quality, Quantity, Timeliness and Cost).
17. Again, not for the exam, but note carefully the material on pages 84-90: Measurement Tools – they offer examples of some very nice ways to measure behavior. The checklist provided in Figure 7.5 on page 86 is an **excellent** checklist for motel/hotel housekeeping staff and

provides an example that can be adapted for ANY type of “housekeeping” – in a manufacturing plant, cleaning up at the end of the shift; in a bar, cleaning and stocking items before the end of a shift, etc. And, although in this example, points are assigned to each and every task, a checklist does not have to be this detailed to be effective. A simple list of tasks, with percentage completed, usually works just fine.

18. 90-92, The Performance Matrix. If given a sample Performance matrix like the one in Figure 7.9, be able to state what each number means, what the circled numbers refer to, and, given the weight, how to determine the points. Or if I give you this matrix or a similar one, be able to indicate performance on the matrix, and determine the total points. *For some reason, students have had some problems with doing this on the exam. So study this carefully.*

Note that "current performance" is listed as a "5" on the matrix. The term "current performance" has confused students in the past. In this case, "current performance" refers to baseline, historical performance. Use the term baseline when referring to this column. When a person is evaluated, his/her actual "current" performance is written in the raw score column, and then the number in the row that corresponds to it is circled on the matrix. For example, on page 91, the "Accountability results: May" are provided at the bottom of the page and in the **Raw Score** column on the Performance Matrix in Figure 7.9.

The performance matrix is an excellent tool. Abernathy also used it in all of work with incentive systems, in a slightly different format, referring to it as the Balanced Score Card or more recently, the Performance Scorecard.

19. 93,1. Why can collecting the data be as much problem as developing the measure? We often forget that both time and effort can function as punishers – this has been shown to be true in the operant laboratory with nonhuman animals as well. Be able to provide the following diagram:

R (measuring) → Sp (time and effort) Note that both time and effort are important!!

Now on to preintervention assessment procedures

From lecture:

19. Excluding for the moment, Behavioral Systems Analysis and historical/archival preintervention assessment procedures, functional or preintervention assessment procedures have been classified into three categories based on how the assessment is conducted: indirect/informant, direct/descriptive, and functional/experimental *analysis*. Learn and describe these three types. After lecture, be able to recognize and label examples of each.
20. A. From Wilder et al. (2018). State the percentage of non-safety experimental field studies published in JOBM from 2000-2011 that included a preintervention assessment.
B. What was the most common type of assessment? What were the two least type of assessments?
21. Give the names of four functional assessment procedures that are currently popular in OBM today – as well as the names of the individuals who created them.

Pampino, Heering, Wilder, Barton, & Burson: Performance assessment & demonstration of a very effective component package consisting of task clarification, training, and consequence (public posting and a monthly lottery). They also assessed social validity – good for them!

22. 8,2. Based on study objective 19 above, what type of functional assessment was used: informant, descriptive, or analysis?
23. 8,4. Not for the exam, but note the multi-component intervention consisting of task clarification, training, and consequence (lottery). Recall from last week that most of the interventions in OBM are, indeed, multi-component. This particular combination has historically been shown to be a VERY effective combination.
24. 9,1.
 - A. Describe the method used to **post** the number of lottery tickets won. Note that I am not asking for the how the employees earned the tickets. Rather, I want you to focus on the type of feedback display that was used. Be sure to include all of the relevant aspects.
 - B. Also, for the exam, what factors from a behavioral perspective might influence the extent to which a lottery like this is effective? (this is not in the article).

The following is not for the exam, but what do you think about identifying the employees by name on the data sheet that was publicly posted?

25. 11, Figure 11. In this study, which categories were identified as the top two categories that were possibly responsible for the low performance levels?

The following is not for the exam, these two areas/categories are likely to be the same in most organizations – Gilbert in his book Human Competence also identified these as the “usual suspects.” Just food for thought – this may explain why it really doesn’t matter which assessment procedure you use to identify the barriers to performance. Each and every one of them includes an analysis of these two factors.

Anderson, Crowell, Hantula, & Siroky: I am including this article primarily because it showed that task clarification alone resulted 21 of 30 participants showed only modest improvement in behavior while the addition of feedback resulted in much greater improvement. Again, you should keep this in mind if you implement only task clarification – remember it is only an antecedent intervention, and by itself may not be very effective.

26. 79,2 Not for the exam, but again note that participation was voluntary and employees were told that the checklists would not be used to harass anyone or threaten their jobs. These are excellent HSIRB procedures.
27. 81,2. When task clarification was implemented, what was the overall improvement?
28. 81,2. After presenting the overall improvement of baseline the authors specify the percentage of participants in each group that improved performance. Why are these data important?

The latter answer is not in the text, so let me explain: These data are important because with group data you cannot tell how the intervention affected individuals. If the overall group average increases, and only group data are provided, you can’t tell whether that increase was due to a large increase in performance by just 1-2 individuals, or whether most or all of the individuals improved their performance. Thus, the individual data tell

you something about the generality across individuals – how likely is it that this type of intervention will affect most or all of the employees?

29. 84,1 At the end of the Feedback-3 phase, what was the *overall* average increase across *all* three groups? (in other words, don't memorize all three percentage increases; rather calculate the average of the three and memorize that one). I am having you learn this so you can compare this to the % for task clarification alone – from SO 27.

Komaki: I am including this article because it represents a way to assess the performance of supervisors and managers. Komaki and her colleagues are the only ones I know who have done research in this area. I had used this material in earlier 6450s but dropped it. But, after that, at ABAI, I went to some presentations by different consulting firms and they were all making extensive use of Komaki's work – so, I put it back in. ☺

30. Abstract. What were the two key differences between effective and ineffective managers?
31. 270,5 Why was performance monitoring believed to be important?
32. 271,1 State the two reasons why the author did **not** believe that antecedents such as instructions, reminders and training would discriminate between effective and ineffective supervisors?
33. 274,1. Approximately what percentage of time did managers, as a group, spend dealing with the performance of others? Does this seem small to you? This is an important point. When we intervene with supervisors and managers, it is very important to remember that they have many other responsibilities. Time management and the labor intensiveness of our interventions becomes a critical issue.
34. 275,1. Explain the important *implication* of the relationship they found between performance monitoring and technical expertise: Although it is important that managers/supervisors have good job knowledge and are technical experts, just because managers/supervisors are experts, it does not mean they will be good managers.
35. 275, 9. Not for the exam. Notice that there was no difference re the time spent providing consequences. In a subsequent study, Komaki and her colleagues found that providing consequences did make a difference *if* performance monitoring was adequate. Thus, in order for provision of consequences to matter, supervisors/managers must first monitor performance adequately. This does make conceptual sense!
36. 277, 1. Not for the exam. Note that Komaki stated that monitoring may function as an establishing (motivating) operation. We will be looking at motivating operations in the next unit, and I will return to this analysis.

THE END - but see the following amusing quotes from actual performance evaluations.

For your Entertainment Only

Quotes Taken from actual Performance Appraisals

1. Since my last report, this employee has reached rock bottom and has started to dig.
2. His men would follow him anywhere, but only out of morbid curiosity.
3. I would not allow this employee to breed.
4. This associate is really not so much of a has-been, but more of a definitely won't be.
5. Works well when under constant supervision and cornered like a rat in a trap.
6. When she opens her mouth, it seems that this is only to change whichever foot was previously in there.
7. He would be out of his depth in a parking lot puddle.
8. This young lady has delusions of adequacy.
9. He sets low personal standards and then consistently fails to achieve them.
10. This employee should go far - and the sooner he starts, the better.
11. This employee is depriving a village somewhere of an idiot.

Unit 3: Work Motivation from a Traditional and Behavioral Perspective

Unit assignment

1. Dickinson's paper on Motivating Operations in Unit 3 of the course pack
3. Aamodt, Chapter 9: Traditional motivational theories

Recommended Reading: Not in course pack:

Michael, J., & Miguel, C. (2020). Motivating operations. In J.O. Cooper, T. E. Heron, & W. L. Heward (Eds.), *Applied Behavior Analysis* (3rd ed.) (pp. 372-394). Hoboken, NJ: Pearson.

Olson, R., Laraway, S., & Austin, J. (2001). Unconditioned and conditioned establishing operations in Organizational Behavior Management. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 21(2), 7-35.

Agnew, J. L. (1998). The establishing operation in Organizational Behavior Management. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 18(1), 7-19.

Lotfizadeb, Edwards, & Poling published an article about the use of MOs in OBM in JOBM, 2014. I am not recommending that article because I do not like it for reasons I would be happy to discuss with you in my office hours, if you would like. And, yes, Dr. Poling knows I don't like the article. ☺

MOs versus Setting Events: Not in the course pack and not for the exam

In the past, some students have asked me about the difference between MOs and setting events (a concept some behavior analysts use instead of MOs). I am not at all a fan of the concept of "setting events". Below are two references that discuss the difference and explain why I am not a fan of the "setting events" and hence, why I am not including a discussion of them in this class.

Nosik, M. R. & Carr, J. E. (2015). On the distinction between the motivating operation and setting events concepts. *The Behavior Analyst*, 38(2), 219-223.

Smith, R. G., & Iwata, B. A. (1997). Antecedent influences on behavior disorders. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 30(2), 343-375.

Motivation from a behavioral perspective:

The motivating operation (previously called "establishing operation") is the motivating variable in behavior analysis. We have not made much practical use of the MO in OBM, for reasons that are discussed in my summary of the MO; namely, we have been very successful in changing work performance (a) by changing antecedents and consequences, (b) most of the consequences we use in OBM are generalized conditioned reinforcers, and (c) and most of the behavior we are dealing with is rule-governed rather than contingency-shaped.

Nonetheless, the MO is a very important concept and is often used when analyzing the behavior of workers. Thus, it is important that you understand this concept. One year, I tried to teach the class without it, and found that it "just didn't work".

The papers I have recommended provide thoughtful analyses of the potential use of the concept of the EO/MO in OBM. At the current time, however, in spite of the usefulness of this concept in other areas in behavior analysis, it is not clear how useful the concept is or will become in OBM, which is why I did not include the articles in your course pack.

Dickinson's paper

1. 2,2-4.

- A. Provide two reasons why applied behavior analysts have been successful even though they have ignored the motivating operations of deprivation, satiation and aversive stimulation. This is true for OBM.
- B. Explain carefully why generalized conditioned reinforcers can be used successfully to alter behavior without manipulating motivating operations. **2,3-4.**

2. 5,4. State the name of the two **main** effects that MOs have and describe them.

3. 9, Table 2. Be able to state the reinforcer establishing effect and the evocative effect for the MOs listed in this table. On the exam, I may ask, for example:

What is the reinforcer establishing effect of becoming too warm?

What is the reinforcer establishing effect of an increase in pain?

What is the evocative effect of sleep deprivation?

What is the evocative effect of salt ingestion?

Note carefully, that in the first two questions, you should only state the “reinforcer establishing effect” (not the evocative effect) and in the last two questions you should only state the “evocative effect” (not the reinforcer establishing effect). Although these effects do occur simultaneously, they are very different effects.

There are a few different ways to answer the above questions correctly. In lecture, I will use slightly different ways to say the same thing – students sometimes benefit from my “saying the same thing in different ways.” That said, however, let me give you some language, or what we call “verbal frames” for the above answers that will perhaps make this easier for you:

Reinforcer Establishing Effect:

The MO makes what specific consequence more reinforcing.

Evocative Effect:

The MO evokes behaviors that have resulted in what specific consequence in the past.

On the exam, for the evocative effect, it is also OK to list specific behaviors that may be evoked as follows: The MO would evoke what specific examples of behaviors.

4. 9, Table 3. Be able to state the reinforcer abolishing effect and the abative effect for the MOs listed in this table. On the exam, I may ask, for example:

What is the reinforcer abolishing effect of water satiation?

What is the reinforcer abolishing effect of becoming warmer?

What is the abative effect of a *decrease* in pain or *no pain*?

What is the abative effect of activity?

Again, note very carefully that in the first two questions you should only state the “reinforcer abolishing effect” (not the abative effect) and in the last two questions you should only state the “abative effect” (not the reinforcer abolishing effect).

To help you out, I am going to give you verbal frames that you can use to answer these types of questions.

Reinforcer Abolishing Effect:

The MO makes what specific consequence less reinforcing.

Abative Effect:

The MO suppresses behaviors that have resulted in what specific consequence in the past.

On the exam, for the abative effect, it is also OK to list specific behaviors that may be suppressed as follows: The MO would suppress what specific examples of behaviors.

5. 10, first 2 paragraphs in the Section “Confusion with SDs.” Why are MOs most commonly confused with SDs? In other words, how are they similar? What is the main difference between SDs and MOs? (You do not have to learn the diagrams on page 11. I have provided these simply to help you understand the difference between MOs and SDs.)
6. 12. Not for the exam, but note that I explain that an MO not only affects the reinforcing value of an unconditioned reinforcer but also affects the reinforcing value of any and all conditioned reinforcers that have been paired with that unconditioned reinforcer. I give some examples on pages 13-15. The effects that an MO have on conditioned and generalized conditioned reinforcers are often the ones that “come into play” in a business or organizational setting. I am not going to ask any questions over this material, but you should be aware of this.

Also when an MO affects a conditioned reinforcer rather than an unconditioned reinforcer, the MO is, technically, a “*conditioned* motivating operation.” When an MO affects an unconditioned reinforcer it is, technically, an “*unconditioned* motivating operation.”

7. I am not going to ask any questions over the rest of the material in this article – we don’t have enough time to go into all of the complexities of MOs in this class.
8. Now, let’s consider some possible MOs in the workplace. *Learn these three examples.* Be forewarned – students often have trouble with these, so study them carefully.

A. Feedback.

Assume: R (making widgets) → Sc (sight of completed widget).

The sight of the completed widget is NOT reinforcing.

Now Assume: MO (Feedback): R (making widgets) → Sr (sight of completed widgets)

Feedback may make the sight of the completed widget more reinforcing and evoke making widgets.

For the exam: I may ask (a) in the example I gave in the study objectives about feedback, what is the evocative effect of feedback or (b) what is the reinforcing establishing effect?

Also for the exam be able to explain why, in this example, the feedback cannot be an SD. Note that the sight of the completed widgets was available before the feedback, but it was not reinforcing; hence the feedback cannot be an SD because the sight of the completed widgets is not differentially correlated with the feedback – that is, the sight of the completed widgets is available whether or not feedback is present as an antecedent stimulus.

B. Irritation or anger at the supervisor.

Assume: R (work not getting done as quickly or as well as usual) → Sc (signs of distress by supervisor)

Signs (stimuli associated with distress, such as frowning, yelling, etc.) by the supervisor are NOT reinforcing to begin with, and may even be punishing.

Now assume: MO (anger, irritation): R (sabotage, work slow down) → Sr (signs of distress by supervisor)

When you are not “angry” at the supervisor, signs of distress on the part of the supervisor are not reinforcing. Once you are “angry” at the supervisor, then signs of distress become reinforcing and behaviors that produce those signs of distress will be evoked.

For the exam: I may ask in the example I had on the study objectives about the MO of anger/irritation at the supervisor, (a) what is the evocative effect or (b) what is the reinforcing establishing effect.

Also, for the exam be able to explain why “anger, irritation” cannot be an SD. Once again, note that signs of distress on the part of the supervisor was available when you were not angry or irritated, but it was not reinforcing - hence the anger/irritation cannot be an SD.

C. Work sampling (objective measurement of performance – from Komaki in U2).

Assume: R (working) → Sc (supervisor praises or criticizes).

However, the supervisor’s praise and criticism are not very reinforcing or punishing because he really does not understand what you do and does not look at your work products.

Now: MO (supv. samples work): R (working) → Sr/Sp (supervisor praise/criticism)

The objective sampling of your work increases the reinforcing effectiveness of the supervisor’s praise and the punishing effectiveness of the criticism. **Again, I may ask about the evocative effect of work sampling and/or the reinforcing/punishing establishing effect of work sampling.**

For the exam again explain why in my example, work sampling cannot be an SD.

Note that the supervisor’s praise/criticism were available without the objective sampling of work, but it was not reinforcing/punishing (hence the objective sampling cannot be functioning as an SD).

- At the end of the study objectives for this unit, I have included an excerpt from Olson et al. This study objective relates to that excerpt, paragraph 3.

Explain how the UMO of activity deprivation could disrupt monitoring performance and how/why the UMO manipulation of stretching breaks might improve such performance – using behavioral terminology, of course (that is making use of the value-altering and behavior-altering effects). Be able to label each of the effects in these examples with the terms reinforcer establishing effect, reinforcer abolishing effect, evocative effect and abative effect.

Motivation from a traditional I/O perspective

Aamodt, Chapter 9

10. 322,1 Note that Aamodt defines motivation as “the **internal force** that drives a worker to action” as well as the external factors that encourage action. This is a common type of definition of motivation. Given this definition, you cannot measure motivation directly; rather you must infer it from “action” (behavior/performance).

One of the very important conceptual and empirical advantages of the MO is that you can measure it independently from behavior; that is, you can measure the extent to which a person is food deprived or water deprived.

For the exam (Aamodt and ppt): (a) How does the traditional way of conceptualizing and measuring motivation differ from a behavior analytic way of conceptualizing and measuring motivation? and (b) what is the important conceptual and empirical advantage of the MO from an objective scientific perspective?

11. 322,1 The MO does account for "driving a worker to action," although schedules of reinforcement also influence this.

For the exam, based on the material below explain how the MO accounts for the concept of *drive* in traditional motivational theory.

The MO determines what is or is not reinforcing at a particular moment in time and then evokes or abates behaviors that have, in the past, resulted in that reinforcer.

12. Skip to 330,2. Describe Maslow's theory as follows: Maslow maintains that behavior is motivated by the **satisfaction** of **innate/genetic** needs. According to Maslow, there are **five basic needs, arranged in a hierarchy. When lower level needs are satisfied, then the next need in the hierarchy "takes over" and motivates behavior.**
13. 332,1-4 Not for the exam. I have always found it interesting that the theory has been and remains very popular with managers (and, in general in business colleges), despite the fact that academicians have questioned it since the. I have to admit I have some problems with the fact that Aamodt states that “it may still be useful” even though it has not been supported by research (332,4).
14. In lecture, I will use Maslow's needs to demonstrate how to translate the concept of "needs" into behavioral terms. Learn this. Not surprisingly, I will be using the concepts of (a) the motivating operation, (b) unconditioned reinforcers and (c) conditioned reinforcers.
15. Skip to 347,3, Expectancy Theory. (I am going to cover the material on goal-setting and incentive systems in future units.)
- A. Define the major components of expectancy theory (I am going to give an expanded version of this in lecture and in the ppt presentation). The theory is summarized nicely in 348,1-2 - it may help you to understand how all of these factors influence motivation from this perspective.

B. Expectancy theorists end up recommending the same types of interventions that behaviorists recommend - it exists in a "cognitive" parallel universe to behavioral psychology, if you will. **I will provide a behavioral translation of the major components of the theory in lecture. Learn these for the exam.**

16. A. 350, 1. According to Adams’ equity theory, what motivates behavior? Note that it can be summed up rather easily – *inequity* between the ratio of one’s inputs and outcomes and another’s inputs and outcomes. Aamodt uses the term “outputs” rather than “outcomes.” It should be *outcomes*. “Outputs” connotes what a person does – his/her outputs – not what the person “gets.”
- B. If given examples of ratios with numbers for “Person” and “Other,” indicate whether they represent equity, underpayment or overpayment. While Aamodt is correct in that the ratios are determined by dividing the outcomes by the inputs, that is confusing. I will just give you numbers. For example:

You	Other	
Inputs/Outcomes	Inputs/Outcomes	
50/50	50/50	Equity
40/40	50/50	Equity
40/40	40/50	Underpayment
40/50	40/40	Overpayment

17. Not for the exam, but note in 350,7, that research tends to support this theory when we are underpaid. However, research is not as clear when we are overpaid – we tend to have a very high tolerance if we are overpaid. See the last sentence in 351,2.
18. On the other hand, I believe the social comparison concept is a valid one (most of us do this) and we do need to incorporate that when we discuss motivation in industrial settings. The following represent possible behavioral analyses of the concept of inequity. **Learn these two examples for the exam.**

1. (**General analysis**) Signs of (more behaviorally, stimuli correlated with) inequity function as an MO that (a) make equity more reinforcing and (b) evoke behaviors that have in the past, restored equity.

2. (**Underpayment specifically**) Signs of inequity related to underpayment function as an MO that (a) makes one's current consequences less reinforcing and (b) abates behaviors that have in the past resulted in those reinforcers, and/or (c) evokes other behaviors that have in the past, restored equity.

The following material is not for the exam, but food for thought: Why would underpayment be more likely to function as an MO than overpayment? Why would overpayment for **some** individuals function as an MO to evoke behaviors to restore equity? I guess what I am asking here is why signs of equity would function as reinforcement for individuals in our culture (some individuals anyway) even if the individuals are overpaid?

What I am getting at here, by the way, is agreement with Adams that we are dealing with a learned motivating variable, not a biological one. If one has been reinforced in the past for behaving in a “fair” and “equitable” way, then “fairness” and “equity” become conditioned reinforcers. On the other hand, if you have been reinforced in the past for behaviors that lead to your own advantage even if it results in the disadvantage of others, then “fairness” and “equity” will not become conditioned reinforcers (and stimuli correlated with “getting more than your fair share” will become conditioned reinforcers).

19. OBM representation in IO Psychology textbooks: Based on the following material, state how many of the 8 top selling IO textbooks both (a) include OBM in their discussion of “motivation” and (b) portray OBM favorably and reasonably accurately? (you only need to include the material that is boldfaced below)

I recently reviewed the 8 top selling textbooks in IO psychology and discovered that times are changing. In the past OBM was not included in texts, and if it was, the field was not portrayed well or accurately.

My review revealed that: (a) **four of the eight discussed OBM in their “motivation” chapters favorably**; (b) one included OBM or, I should say, “Reinforcement theory” very unfavorably, and (c) three didn’t mention OBM at all in their motivation chapters (although two of these do talk about the importance of reinforcement in their training chapters).

Muchinsky, which is by far the top selling IO text has deleted all material related to “reinforcement theory” in his most recent edition. Given the way he dealt with it in the past, I can’t decide whether this is a good thing or a bad thing.

20. Not for the exam: but turn to 338 and read how Aamodt deals with operant conditioning. It is actually a nice treatment. Note his statement in 338,2 that “research and applied literature abound with studies demonstrating the effectiveness of reinforcement.”

Now, for a sample of negative presentations, see the course pack, the section titled, “Reinforcement Theory:” Excerpts from four of the top selling textbooks. I have underlined or drawn lines in the margins so that you can note the most important parts of these excerpts.

Consider the implications of some of the material. This is what students in traditional IO psychology programs are reading about our field. Overall, would you be inclined to support OBM if this is what you had read?

In fairness to these authors, I want to point out that we do not have academic text in OBM (which is why I use a course pack). For the most part, the books in the area have been written by our consultants for managers and supervisors. Thus, the traditional IO psychologists do not have a scholarly treatment available to them or a model on how we would deal with some of these issues – particularly the ethical concerns. It’s a problem.

21. Excerpts from the top selling textbooks and ppt.

A. What is the **main** argument or concern about “reinforcement theory?”

B. What is the most frequently cited “secondary” concern?

The secondary concern is mentioned quite frequently in the texts, but I did not copy the sections that addressed that issue for you. Again, I will talk just a bit about this one in lecture.

We really need to help traditional IO psychologists understand our positions on these issues. It is unrealistic to assume they are going to read books on behavior analysis or articles from *JOBM*. I am of the opinion that it is our responsibility to dialogue with traditional IO psychologists about these issues in a cogent, scholarly way. (And, no I haven’t done that – I always thought I would write an OBM book, but I never have gotten around to it! So, I realize I am part of the problem.)

THE END: But the excerpt from Olson et al. for SO9 is on the following page.

Study Objective 9

Olson et al., pages 18-19

Note: I have updated the terms used in this article because in the past students found the old terms confusing.

Unconditioned reinforcers and punishers and their supporting UMOs are of central importance for shaping for shaping the types of behaviors that will keep an individual healthy enough to survive and likely to reproduce, but they are rarely used directly to motivate workplace performance. Unconditioned reinforcers and punishers occur regularly during a person's workday, but these consequences are usually not contingent upon performances of special value to organizations (e.g., opportunities to eat are usually provided independently of performance). In most cases, generalized conditioned reinforcers (e.g., monetary incentives, social praise, stimulus changes intrinsic to tasks, completion of an assignment, "signs" of progress or success) maintain important organizational performances rather than unconditioned reinforcers. When this is the case, UMOs play only a supporting role in establishing the effectiveness of conditioned reinforcers, when those conditioned reinforcers have been "backed-up" by unconditioned reinforcers. However, UMOs may be important to workplace performance for reasons beyond a supporting role for generalized conditioned reinforcement.

If a person is hungry, tired, uncomfortably cold, or otherwise affected by a UMO, his or her behavior at work will reflect their motivational state. For example, a hungry employee will think about food, look for opportunities to take a break and have a snack, or procrastinate work and plan a dinner with a co-worker. Such behavior may compete with or displace the types of behavior that are of value to the organization. In this regard, UMOs can be powerful *distracters* from work tasks. One such UMO is activity deprivation, which is a pervasive condition when jobs require near continuous use of personal computers or other stationary electronic technological devices.

Some organizations manipulate activity UMOs for employees whose work involves restricted or minimal activity. For example, employees at an Intel microprocessor fabrication plant in New Mexico are periodically prompted during their shift by music over the loudspeaker to do 5-10 minutes of stretching exercises (Page, 2000). This activity is programmed for both office personnel and employees who participate in the microprocessor fabrication process. Although the prevention of cumulative stress injury is probably one rationale for this intervention, its effects as a UMO might also reduce the chances of costly manufacturing errors by reducing the likelihood that employees will be distracted during important performances. Once such performance might involve monitoring screens that track the operation of expensive manufacturing processes. Employees would need to detect subtle changes in machine operation and make necessary adjustments to avoid costly product defects. Fidgeting, looking around, and pacing are incompatible with such monitoring and might be evoked by activity deprivation. As a UMO, the stretching exercise breaks would momentarily decrease the reinforcing effectiveness of stimuli arising from gross muscle activity (reinforcer-abolishing effect), and decrease the momentary frequency of all behaviors that had produced such stimulation in the past (abative effect). The UMO manipulation would therefore reduce the relative frequency of fidgeting, looking around, or pacing when careful monitoring was required, thereby enhancing an important target performance of value to the organization.

Unit 4: Indirect Acting Contingencies and Feedback

Direct acting contingencies and rule-governed behavior

As most of you are probably aware, most of the performances we deal with in organizational settings represent rule-governed behavior rather than contingency-shaped behavior due to the delay between the behavior and its consequences, or between the antecedent and the behavior. I have decided that (a) I really don't have time to cover the conceptual aspects of rule-governed behavior in this class and (b) that content is more appropriate for other courses in our curriculum (PSY 6100, Conditioning and Learning; PSY 6166 Conditioning Principles; and PSY 6760 Skinner's Behaviorism). Thus, I just want to make sure you understand the general point in this class.

For those of you who are interested in the theory/conceptual analysis of rule-governed behavior, there are two different widely accepted analyses. One was developed by R. Malott, the other was developed by two of Michael's students, E. Blakely and H. Schlinger. While Malott's is more popular, I prefer Blakely and Schlinger's analysis although their analysis has not received as much press or attention as Malott's. Of course, you should also read what Skinner had to say about this topic, so I have included the "classic" reference on rules. For those of you interested in learning more about these analyses, and importance in our field, please see the following articles.

- Skinner, B. F. (1969). *Contingencies of reinforcement* (chapter 6, particularly pages 157-171). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Agnew, J. L. & Redmon, W. K. (1992). Contingency specifying stimuli: The role of "rules" in Organizational Behavior Management. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 12(2), 67-76.
- Schlinger, H., & Blakely, E., (1987). Function-altering effects of contingency-specifying stimuli. *The Behavior Analyst*, 10, 41-45.
- Blakely, E., & Schlinger, H. (1987). Rules: Function-altering contingency-specifying stimuli. *The Behavior Analyst*, 10, 183-187.
- Malott, R. W. (1992). A theory of rule-governed behavior and organizational behavior management. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 12(2), 45 -65. (Included in this issue are several commentaries on Malott's theory.)

Reading assignment for the exam

1. Michael, J. (2004). Chapter 9: Behavioral effects of remote contingencies. *Concepts and principles of behavior analysis* (revised ed.) (pp. 163-167). Kalamazoo, MI: The Association for Behavior Analysis.
2. Graph of proof operator performance from Union National Bank (to be explained in lecture).
3. Peterson, N. (1982). Feedback is not a new principle of behavior. *The Behavior Analyst*, 5, 101-102.
4. Balcazar, F., Hopkins, B. L., & Suarez, Y. (1985-1986). A critical, objective review of performance feedback. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 7(3/4), 65-89.
5. Johnson, D. A. (2013). A component analysis of the impact of evaluative and objective feedback on performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 33(2), 89-103.

Molecular vs. Molar

1. ppt slide and lecture.

- A. Bradley & Poling (2010), state the three perspectives in our field regarding whether delayed consequences should be referred to as direct acting consequences (reinforcers and punishers). Also, label two of the three perspectives with the correct conceptual/philosophical name (molecular or molar).
- B. Explain Malott's distinction between "reinforcement" and a "reinforcer" as relevant to the delay between behavior and the consequence.
- C. Compare and contrast Michael's position on the terms "reinforcement" and "reinforcer" with Malott's position on these two terms.

Michael article

2. Learn the distinctions between direct and indirect acting contingencies in the first paragraph.
3. 163,2-164,1 Michael is making a very complex argument. It is very important and represents one of the main arguments in the molecular vs. molar analyses of behavior.

Because Michael's argument is complex and often misunderstood by students, I have provided the following material as an explanation.

- A. Learn Michael's argument in detail. *Note very carefully that he does not argue in terms of the delay per se (and thus neither should you)* – he uses the concept of the automaticity of reinforcement.
- B. Explain why/how the example I give below about an FT schedule is related to this argument.
- C. In lecture I will provide diagrams of how my explanation re the schedules of reinforcement are related to Michael's example; learn these for the exam.

Michael is saying that receiving money for a grant is sometimes viewed as "reinforcement" for grant writing, and thus grant writing will increase in the future. However, without a complex verbal repertoire, the delayed receipt of money would not affect grant writing - thus is cannot be seen as operant reinforcement. Let's assume the grant money was awarded six months after the grant was written. Now assume that the grant was written, and six months later, instead of the receipt of grant money, the person gets a large inheritance. That large inheritance would NOT influence grant writing. If operant reinforcement was at work, however, BOTH the receipt of grant money AND the receipt of a large inheritance should influence grant writing.

Why? Because we know for a fact that operant conditioning is "automatic." Reinforcement will increase behaviors when consequences are causally related to them, of course. But reinforcement also increases behaviors when consequences are *not* related to them - that is, if a response is accidentally or what is called "adventitiously" reinforced (Skinner referred to such behaviors as superstitious, but that is a side point).

Let's say that we have a food deprived pigeon in the chamber. And the E is going to deliver food on an FT 20 s schedule - that is, the E is going to deliver food every 20 s regardless of what the pigeon is doing at the time (hence there is not a contingent or causal relationship between any behavior and the food delivery). But let's say the pigeon is pecking the floor

right before the food is delivered. The food will reinforce the peck at the floor even though the peck at the floor was not related to the delivery of food - this is called accidental reinforcement. In other words, the key peck to the floor will increase even though the consequence is not causally related to it.

Thus, given the automaticity of reinforcement, if the increase in grant writing was in fact an example of direct reinforcement, then it should increase whether the consequence is the money from the grant OR the large inheritance. But grant writing is not going to increase in both cases, thus receipt of the grant money cannot be viewed as direct operant reinforcement even though it was causally related to it. Grant writing increases as a result of receiving grant money only because of more complex behavioral processes relating to verbal behavior about past events, rule-governed behavior, verbal stimulus equivalencies, etc.

4. 164,3-166,0. Note the types of things in OBM that function as indirect consequences. Be able to recognize and distinguish between direct and indirect consequences. Or, if given the consequences be able to state what the direct effect would be and what the indirect effect is likely to be.
5. 166-167. List all the clues that indicate that an effect is indirect (note that Michael has already discussed the delay issue - be sure to include this one). Give an *original* example of each. By original, I mean that you cannot use any of the consequences or behaviors that Michael uses in his examples (or, if I give any in lecture, any of the ones I use).
6. 167,3. Why shouldn't we use technical language to explain the effects of indirect effects?
7. 169,2-4.
 - A. **Explain completely** why we as behavior analysts have been successful from a practical perspective even though in the past many indirect effects have been discussed as if they were direct effects. He states three reasons - some students have real problems with the second one - study it carefully.
 - B. To make sure you understand that second reason, provide an example from OBM that illustrates the difference between how a traditional I/O psychologist might approach a performance/safety/quality problem vs. how a behavioral psychologist would. That is, what are different causes of behavior these two groups would come up with that would then influence their interventions? But see the ppt slide on this re behavior-based safety (BBS).

Peterson article

8. 101, 2-101, top of the second column. Explain why, according to the author, the question about which function feedback serves or even whether it serves a dual function as a discriminative stimulus or reinforcement is inappropriate.
9. A. Explain the reasons why feedback the way it is commonly provided in applied settings, cannot be examples of simple reinforcement or discriminative stimulus control (there are two given, one in the first sentence in 101, 3 and one in the last full sentence of the paragraph - students often miss this second point but it is extremely important and I will be expanding on it in lecture.). Note that on the exam I may ask two separate questions: First, why feedback, in most situations, should not be considered simple reinforcement; and second, why feedback should not be considered a simple discriminative stimulus.

- B. I will discuss this in lecture and provide diagrams that explain these reasons. Learn the diagrams.
10. Lecture objective: Peterson argues that you cannot consider feedback a reinforcer because it is not provided contingently upon a response, as is reinforcement. That is, reinforcers are provided when a particular response occurs but is not provided if that particular response does not occur. On the other hand, in applied settings, "feedback" is typically provided when the appropriate response occurs and when it does not occur. But is this true? After lecture, be able to explain Peterson's point and also my reanalysis in which "feedback" can be viewed as being contingent upon a response.
 11. Lecture objective: There is another reason that Peterson doesn't address why, from a behavioral perspective, feedback cannot typically be a reinforcer as described/presented in OBM. This reason does not relate to the feedback, but what the feedback is supposed to "reinforce." Call this Dickinson's additional reason why feedback typically cannot technically be either an SD or a reinforcer the way it is described/presented in OBM. Provide this reason as well.

Balcazar, Hopkins and Suarez. Note this is a classic article in our field with which all professionals are well acquainted. Alvero, Bucklin, & Austin conducted an updated review of feedback, that was published in *JOBM* in 2001. This is also a very good review, however, I am including the Balcazar et al. paper because of their astute conceptual and theoretical analyses, which of course Alvero et al. didn't repeat in their article because they were already contained in the Balcazar et al. article. There has not been an update since 2001. But the interest in these analyses is evidenced by the fact that the Alvero et al. article was the **most frequently cited article** and the Balcazar et al. article was the **next most frequently cited article** in *JOBM* in **2018/2019**.

12. 66,0 Below, I update the information about the % of studies that have used feedback as an intervention. Over a thirty-year period (based on the current review and the two I cite below), what is the range of the percentage of studies published in *JOBM* that have used some form of feedback? 65%-70%

What this means is that these data are very, very stable.

Nolan, R. V., Jarema, K. A., & Austin, J. (1999). An objective review of the *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*: 1987-1997. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 19(3), 83-114.

VanStelle, S. E., Vicars, S. M., Harr, V., Miguel, C. F., Koerber, J. L., Kazbour, R., & Austin, J. (2012). The publication history of the *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*: An objective review and analysis: 1998-2009. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 32(2), 93-123.

13. 74,3. Based on the following material in this study objective: Currently, what do we know about the relative effectiveness of daily, weekly and monthly feedback in organizational settings? Based on two experimental studies (see below), daily feedback appears to be **moderately/somewhat** more effective than weekly feedback. There haven't been any direct comparisons of weekly and monthly feedback (but given that daily feedback is better than weekly, one would assume that weekly is better than monthly).

The following material is not for the exam:

Surprisingly few studies have directly compared the relative effectiveness of daily, weekly, and monthly feedback. Balcazar et al. found that daily and weekly feedback were equally effective, and both were more effective than monthly feedback. The two more recent experimental studies found that daily feedback was somewhat more effective. The cost/difficult of providing feedback daily vs. feedback, of course, must be weighed by whether the moderate difference is worth the cost to organizations.

The main support for the position that daily feedback is somewhat/moderately more effective comes from:

So, Y., Lee, K., & Oah, S. (2013). Relative effects of daily and weekly feedback on customer service behavior at a gas station. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 33(2), 137-151.

Additional support, although the data were not definitive comes from:

Pampino, R. N., Jr. MacDonald, J. E., Mullin, J. E., & Wilder, D. A. (2003). Weekly feedback vs. daily feedback: An application in retail. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 23 (2/3), 21-43.

Another question that is raised is that given the moderate increases in performance seen in So et al., is it feasible or cost-effective for an organization to provide daily feedback? Most articles that have used daily feedback that have maintenance data or a discussion about sustainability, state that the organization has requested to moving to less frequent feedback. It is an interesting issue for us to deal with in organizations. Is the improvement re daily feedback worth the costs (economically and behaviorally) to supervisors? How hard should we push? I don't have an answer – I don't think there is one. I think it is going to depend upon the organization.

14. For the exam: Based on the material below, explain why you need to be cautious when interpreting the results of the reviews of feedback (Balcazar et al. and Alvero et al.) as well as other types of similar reviews.

While these type of reviews provide useful guidance, conclusions are based on the structural analyses of procedures that varied along many different dimensions. Only systematic experimental comparisons with appropriate controls can ultimately determine whether different types of feedback affect performance differently.

The following is not for the exam: There have been at least three instances where the results of direct comparisons of feedback procedures have differed from the conclusions of the review articles: Goltz, Citera, Jensen, Favero, & Komaki (1989), the So et al. article I mentioned in the preceding study objective, and the recent results of Sarah VanStelle's dissertation. **So be very cautious about the conclusions of the review studies; the results are not based on experimentally controlled studies.**

15. 76,3. Describe the most parsimonious explanation for why feedback is only sometimes "reinforcing" (I have "reinforcing" in quotes because, as Peterson explained, we typically are dealing with indirect acting contingencies).

16. 77, 1. Why is it that if reinforcement already exists for the appropriate behaviors, feedback may improve performance? Provide a careful analysis as the authors do. (A second analysis is provided in 77,2 but this one has some serious flaws when it is analyzed carefully, so I am not going to ask you to learn that one.)

The following material is not for the exam. There are a number of studies that have attempted to show that feedback enhances the effectiveness of incentives. However, until recently, the attempts were not successful because of methodological problems. We finally have good data showing that feedback does enhance the effectiveness of incentives! Yngvi Einarsson, one of my doctoral students, completed two years ago, showing that both graphic individual feedback and graphic social comparison feedback improved performance when individuals were paid monetary incentives. Unfortunately, that study is not yet published.

17. Based on the material below, state the percentages of applications in which performance improved consistently when (a) used alone, and (b) used in combination with other interventions. This is very important.

78,4. Note that when feedback was combined with some type of tangible reward, performance improved consistently in 13 of 15 applications. The percentage works out to almost 90% (87% actually). Now, return to Table 1 on page 71. When feedback was used alone, performance improved consistently in only 28% of the articles – you can round to 30% for the exam.

Not for the exam: Alvero et al. also reported that feedback when combined with other interventions was more consistently effective than when used alone, the discrepancy was not as large.

18. 81,4 - 82,0.

A. Explain why supervisory feedback may be more effective than when feedback is provided by other sources.

Let me provide an expanded analysis that relates to the point the authors are making. Given that the feedback evokes supervisory behavior, when feedback indicates that a subordinate's performance is good, that may cause to supervisor to praise the subordinate, which may actually be what controls the worker's behavior - not the feedback itself. Alternately, if the feedback indicates that a subordinate's performance is not good, that may cause the supervisor to criticize or prompt better performance. It may be these differential consequences that the supervisor provides to the employees (again, not the feedback itself) that affects the performance of employees.

B. After lecture, provide a second reason why feedback may be more effective when provided by the supervisor.

19. 84, 1 What is the fundamental conclusion that resulted from this review? Please, please, please remember this - for some reason, students tend to forget this. If feedback "works" **over the long run** in the absence of explicit correlation with other reinforcers/punishers, then it is no doubt the case that the feedback is being implicitly tied to other reinforcers/punishers.

20. 84,2 If feedback is going to be established independently of careful consideration of the existence of functional consequences as was the case in most of the studies reviewed, what type of feedback system is the best bet for achieving results?

Johnson article: This article is an important article, indicating that to be maximally effective feedback must have both an objective and evaluative feedback component. This is related to the Balcazar et al. article because of their analysis/position that in order to get consistent and significant improvements in performance, feedback must be paired/linked to more “primary” rewards/consequences (an evaluative component is important). Also, in the next unit, you will read some applied articles that suggested that both evaluative and objective components are necessary, but the results weren’t as definitive as the results of this study.

21. 90,1-2 and 91,1. Not for the exam but note the exquisite behavioral analyses of the potential functions of evaluative feedback and objective feedback: if you ever need to do this type of analysis, you should refer back to this paragraph.
22. 97,3 State the results of the study in terms of the percentage increases for objective feedback alone, evaluative feedback alone, and the combined objective and evaluative feedback in comparison to no feedback.
23. 99,2. Based on the material in the article and the following explanation:
 - A. What factor could account for the fact that Johnson et al. (2008) found no benefit of using objective feedback while the current study found a benefit?
 - B. Why may this factor be important? (see below for the answer)
 - C. Why might people respond differently to computer- vs. human-delivered feedback? (see below for the answers)

23B&C answers: Although not expanded upon in this article, these results have implications for using electronic devices (computers, smart phones, iPads, etc.) to provide feedback. Specifically, electronically-provided feedback may not be as effective as when a person provides the feedback (although Warrilow’s thesis results may negate this analysis). The implications are that evaluation is implied when the source of the feedback is a human – that is, it is rare that people who give us feedback aren’t evaluating our performance while evaluation is not implied by a computer or electronic device. It would also be interesting to determine whether evaluative feedback by a human and by the computer would have the same effect.

The following is not for the exam. Chae, Moon, Lee, & Oah (2015, May) as yet unpublished, found that face-to-face feedback led to significantly better performance than emailed feedback and that the difference was more pronounced when a faculty member provided both face-to-face feedback and emailed feedback (as opposed to an RA). This, thus, supports the implications re face-to-face feedback provided below.

On the other hand, one of Dr. Johnson’s former students, Garrett Warrilow, investigated the differential effects of objective (a) face-to-face feedback, (b) computer-delivered feedback, and (c) texted feedback. The preliminary results indicated that all types of objective feedback increased performance, and that there were not significant differences among the three types of feedback. Thus, the issue remains to be resolved – stay tuned!!

THE END.

Unit 5: Feedback cont. and Goal Setting

Reading Assignment

1. Crowell, C. R., Anderson, D. C., Abel, D. M., & Sergio, J. P. (1988). Task clarification, performance feedback, and social praise: Procedures for improving the customer service of bank tellers. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 21, 65-71.
2. Gaetani, J. J., & Johnson, C. M. (1983). The effect of data plotting, praise, and state lottery tickets on decreasing cash shortages in a retail beverage chain. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 5(1), 5-15.
3. Aljadeff-Abergel, E., Peterson, S. M., Wiskirchen, R. R., Hagen, K. K., & Cole, M. (2017). Evaluating the temporal location of feedback: Providing feedback following performance vs. prior to performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 37(2), 171-195.
4. Crawley, W. J., Adler, B. S., O'Brien, R. M., & Duffy, E. M. (1982). Making salesmen. In R. M. O'Brien, A. M. Dickinson, & M. Rosow (Eds.) *Industrial Behavior Modification* (pp. 184-199). New York: Pergamon Press.
5. Aamodt, Chapter 9, pages 334-342
6. Wilk, L. A., & Redmon, W. K. (1998). The effects of feedback and goal setting on the productivity and satisfaction of university admissions staff. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 18 (1), 45-68. Oddly, this is listed as 1997 on the web site for JOBM. The issue was published in 1998.

Recommended Readings

1. Gaetani, J. J., Johnson, C. M. & Austin, J. T. (1983). Self-management by an owner of a small business: Reduction of tardiness. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 5(1), 31-41.

This is another one of my favorite articles. I like this article for two reasons. First, it is hard to believe that an owner of his own business would routinely show up to work an average of 3.75 hours late (he opened the store; his machinists worked second shift). Second, while self-logging and data plotting decreased the tardiness of the owner, it was not until the researchers had him record the potential number of lost customers due to his tardiness that his tardiness remained consistently low. That is, it wasn't until an important (and certain) *personal* consequence was made clear to him by recording these data that his behavior was affected: "If I am late, I will lose customers and business."

2. Jeffrey, S. A., Schulz, A., & Webb, A. (2012). The performance effects of an ability-based approach to goal assignment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 32(3), 221-241.

This is a very interesting lab study that showed that ability-based goals are more effective than "one-goal" for all with low and middle performers (not for high performers). These data not only support the notion that the most effective goals are those that are just above, but within reach, of the participant but also that goals that are too high will have a detrimental effect on performance.

3. Roose, K. M., & Williams, W. L. (2018). An evaluation of the effects of very difficult goals. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 38(1), 18-48.
doi:10.1080/01608061.2017.1325820

This is a very nice behavioral study showing that a goal of medium difficulty (set at 150% of baseline performance) improved performance significantly more than (a) a very difficult goal (set at 175% of baseline performance) and (b) a “do your best” control condition. There was virtually no difference between the difficult goal condition and the “do your best” control condition. Seven of eight participants met the medium difficulty goal whereas only one of eight met the difficult goal. These data, thus, support the behavioral analyses that I will be presenting in class about the detrimental effects of goals that are too high.

4. Tammemagi, T., O’Hora, D., & Maglieri, K. A. (2013). The effects of a goal-setting intervention on productivity and persistence in an analogue work task. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 33(1), 31-54.

I am not recommending this article because of the study or the results of the study, but because of the analyses of the possible behavioral functions of goals and what reinforces goal-related performance. The authors discuss all of the possibilities that have been presented before including an RFT (relational frame theory) analysis. They do an excellent job, although to really understand some of the analyses, you would have to refer back to the original articles.

Feedback

Crowell et al. article: I am primarily including this article because it is an applied study that nicely demonstrates that task clarification by itself improves performance, but only moderately. Performance improved further when objective (non-evaluative) feedback was provided and increased again when supervisors praised performance when presenting the feedback (added evaluative feedback). These results are consistent with Johnson (2013), the article from last week. The distinction between “objective” feedback and “evaluative” feedback is an important one.

1. 65,2-66,1. Not for the exam, but note the discussion of whether feedback exerts control as an antecedent, consequence, or both, and thus the rationale for the study. They make an excellent point: if you implement a feedback program you are also, to some degree, providing task clarification as well.
2. 70,1. Task clarification effects emerged quickly and were stable over time. On the other hand, the feedback intervention produced a gradual improvement in teller performance over time.
 - A. These performance patterns are consistent with what behavioral mechanisms or behavioral principles? In other words, what behavioral principles are likely to have been responsible (a) for the effects of task clarification and (b) for the effects of feedback?
 - B. Why? (I have answered the “why” in my two sentences above.)
- 3 70,2.
 - A. What results/specific data, other than the ones related to task clarification and feedback, were of potential significance?
 - B. What does the finding suggest?

Gaetani & Johnson – cash shortage article: This is a very interesting study for a number of reasons. First, it is one of the few, if not the only one, that examined supervisory praise *without* feedback. And, interestingly, it was not very effective. Again, these results are consistent with Johnson (2013). Perhaps Daniels was right when he said, “In God we trust, all others bring data.” Also, this ties in nicely to the results that Komaki found (U2 article) in which *work sampling, not the number of consequences provided*, distinguished effective managers from ineffective managers (because, in this study, supervisory praise was only effective when combined with objective performance data).

Second, the study also examined data plotting (what we typically now call self-monitoring) by itself. And, it was not particularly effective by itself. **This is a consistent finding in the OBM literature** – one that we will be revisiting with the Richman et al. article in U8. **Self-monitoring alone is not a very helpful intervention.**

Note that Crowell et al. (preceding article) found that social praise increased performance *after* feedback had been implemented, but in that study, praise was *added* to the feedback. In the current study, supervisory praise was provided without objective feedback, a la Johnson (2013). (You are getting an idea of why I found the Johnson article so interesting and important.)

So, to sum up, (a) self-monitoring (data plotting) by itself isn't a particularly powerful intervention; (b) supervisory praise by itself doesn't appear to be a particularly powerful intervention; and (c) the combination of feedback, praise and tangible rewards appears to be the most powerful intervention. Again, **remember your consequences!!**

4. 7,2 After reading the material below, be able to state and explain three reasons why EEs were used as the measure. The first is from the material in 7,2 and the second two are below.

Reason 2. In 8,1, note that the EE was calculated from *archival data*. This is a very nice procedure because the organization does not have to wait until baseline data are collected before the intervention is begun. Reason 3. Also, notice that *the organization already collected the data used for the measure, thus the researchers did not introduce any new measures and did not have to introduce any new data collection procedures*. This is an excellent procedure, and you should remember this when developing measures for your own interventions. ***If at all possible, it is good to take advantage of already existing measures/data in organizations.***

Gaetani and colleagues published several applied articles around this period of time– he always had a terrific “knack” of finding already existing measures to target.

5. 8,5. Describe the lottery intervention, including what the performance criterion was, how many lottery tickets were delivered and how much each lottery ticket cost. Notice the very small cash value of the lottery tickets – only \$1.00 a piece!
6. 10, Figure 1. Not for the exam, but the black triangles represent both feedback and praise – since praise was graphed with an open triangle and data plotting was graphed with closed (black) circle.
7. 11,2. Rank the interventions in terms of their effectiveness, starting with the interventions that were *least* effective.

Be careful when answering this, not just to say “data plotting and praise” for the least effective interventions – that answer would suggest that you are referring to when those two interventions were used together – rather, be sure to say something like “data plotting *alone* and praise *alone*.”

And, for the most effective intervention, remember that the intervention consisted of data plotting, praise AND lottery tickets, not simply lottery tickets.

8. Not for the exam, but notice the cost/benefit analysis in 13, 2.
9. Not for the exam, but notice in 14,0, the fact that “some of the store managers won up to \$25 from their earned lottery tickets.” It would have been nice to know how many store managers won money and how much money they won. The lottery was in effect for only 4 weeks – thus, it would also have been interesting to see how long the improvements would have lasted using the lottery tickets.

Aljadeff-Abergel et al. article: This is the first experimental demonstration (that I know of) that demonstrates that, in training situations, providing feedback immediately before performance improves performance more than providing feedback after performance. I am going to talk more about this in lecture.

10. 173, 0 Why, as in the Scheeler et al. (2012) study is it often difficult to determine whether feedback improves performance because it follows or precedes performance?
11. 178, 1. Explain the feedback procedure during intervention (the material that begins, “During the intervention...”)
12. 179, 3.
 - A. Did researchers provide objective, evaluative or both objective and evaluative feedback? Explain. In other words, if they used objective feedback, what did that specifically consist of? If they used evaluative feedback, what did that specifically consist of?
 - B. In addition to the feedback, what else did the researcher “remind” them of during the feedback sessions? Notice, thus, that each feedback session was also clearly a task clarification session as well.
13. 186, 1, last sentence. State the number of participants that preferred receiving feedback before the session and the number that preferred receiving feedback after the session.
14. 186, 2, last sentence – 187,0. State the results of the study as the authors do.

This next part is not for the exam, but I wish the authors had summarized the results across participants quantitatively. Note that the performance differences for the two feedback procedures were very large and consistent across all four participants. This is a very convincing demonstration of the fact that when training employees, feedback should be provided before, not after performance.

15. 191, 1. The authors have made an important point re the acquisition of new skills with novice learners.
 - A. From lecture and ppt. State, according to Tosti, the difference between “formative feedback” and “summative feedback” and whether each should be provided before or after performance.

- B. From lecture and ppt. be able to give Dickinson's opinion about when it might not matter, assuming that we are dealing with verbal individuals, whether feedback is provided before or after performance.

Crawley et al. article

I am including this because it is the best article I have seen in improving sales behavior (rather than results), and is, of course, a very fine example of the use of prompts and feedback (*feedback before performance as well as after performance*). Note that the sales reps were already on commission yet this program dramatically improved sales by focusing and training appropriate sales behaviors. Moreover, I expect that the behaviors that are identified in this article would generalize to other sales positions as well. Also, note the use of the performance improvement opportunity analysis.

16. 185, 6 and 187,0-1.

- A. Carefully explain the approach that was NOT successful in identifying what made a sales representative effective. Explain WHY this approach was not successful.
- B. Also, there is a general point to be learned from this. Be able to provide this general point for the exam as well. Often your exemplary performers cannot tell you why they perform as well as they do – that is, they cannot specify the exact behaviors they engage in that makes them successful. Those behaviors are often *contingency-shaped* and under the control of immediate contingencies of reinforcement - employees have never had to describe them. (This is often true of excellent skilled workers such as automobile mechanics, electricians, etc.).

17. 187,2. Not for the exam, but notice how many top sales reps were observed for how long for how many hours in order to develop the list of sales behaviors. This is exquisite. Also, who else was interviewed? Stop and think about this a moment – this was an extremely labor-intensive process.

Again, not for the exam but note the incredible specificity of the behaviors identified as listed and discussed in 193,1-196,3 – I just want you to recognize how impressive it is.

18. 188, 3 State (a) who the coach was; (b) when the prompts occurred; (c) what and how many behaviors were prompted; (d) what occurred after the correct behavior; and (e) when the sales representatives reviewed their own performance – which the authors call the post-call learning cycle. You do not have to memorize the whole procedure – If I ask this on the exam, I will give you the information that I am giving in this study objective.
19. 188,5. What are two reasons that commissions did not function as effective rewards? For the first, note specifically the 3-month lag time in the reflection of their performance (they couldn't have been reinforcers because they were too delayed). That is, sales reps received commissions monthly, but the commission they received during the current month reflected their performance 3 months earlier.
- For the second (last sentence in the paragraph) note that commissions are based on actual sales, an accomplishment measure. If the sales reps cannot engage in the appropriate behaviors, providing rewards for accomplishments will NEVER increase performance. And, it became clear that the sales reps did not know what behaviors would lead to better sales.
- Not for the exam: When Tom Gilbert's classic book, *Human Competence*, was published in 1978 it generated an incredible amount of controversy. Why? He stated that we should be

focusing on accomplishments, not behavior. Accomplishments added value and were “worthy” to an organization while behavior was costly to an organization. That is, if a worker could produce an accomplishment with fewer behaviors (more efficiently) the better; thus we should not be rewarding behaviors, but accomplishments. Some behavior analysts went ballistic, on the grounds that you cannot “reinforce” accomplishments, only behaviors (and, after all, we were *behavior* analysts). There were a very large number of presentations at ABA for several years that addressed: Accomplishment versus Behavior (not unlike recent presentations on systems analysis versus performance management). I always felt the talks were silly. **You start with the accomplishments**, but if employees do not know how to produce the accomplishments, or there is indication that employees are producing accomplishments by unethical or aversive means, then you need to focus on behaviors.

Perhaps needless to say, I also believe the controversy surrounding systems vs. performance management is a “straw man” argument. You need both. You should use systems analyses to identify the critical accomplishments and areas you should focus on; but there certainly are times you need PM. You can change systems, but employees must change their behaviors in order for those systems to change.

20. 197,3 -4. Not for the exam. Notice the very nice analysis of the negative consequences for in-home calls and the changes in behavior when these consequences were changed. Things like this happen all the time in the real world and as a performance manager you must be constantly alert for such things.

Goal Setting

Aamodt, Chapter 9, pages 333-337

21. 334, 2. Not for the exam, but notice the really nice acronym for the qualities goals should have. And, also note that OBMers would agree with each of the qualities listed.
22. 334,3 Locke and Latham maintain that specific goals are better than general goals such as “do your best” or “do as many as you can.” We certainly agree.
- A. After lecture, but able to provide a behavioral analysis of why specific goals are indeed better than general goals (generally). [this analysis is actually from Fellner, D. J., & Sulzer-Azaroff, B. (1984). A behavioral analysis of goal setting. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 6(1), 33-51.]
 - B. After lecture and the ppt be able to provide a behavior analysis of the problems with “do your best” goals.
 - C. After lecture and the ppt be able to state what the research indicates about the effectiveness of “do your best” goals.
23. 334,6-335,0. Note the very nice example of problems that can occur when goals are too difficult. Just as the students in the example in 334,7-335, 0, employees also sometimes set goals too high. In lecture I am going to provide a behavioral analysis of why goals should not be too difficult.

After lecture, provide a behavioral analysis of why goals should not be too difficult – be able to provide both the diagrams and verbal analysis.

The following is not for the exam: These analyses can explain the results of the Jeffrey et al. study and the Roose & Williams study I describe above. Consistent with this, Daniels argues

that it is better to set easy goals and then gradually increase them over time – because performance is “successful” more immediately. However, note my caution above re ensuring that if tangible or monetary rewards are based on goal attainment, higher rewards should be provided when workers meet higher goals.

Also, not for the exam but interestingly, there is no set criterion for when a goal is too easy, “challenging but attainable”, and too difficult. Researchers from a traditional goal setting perspective have operationalized this to some extent by determining the percentage of employees (or participants in studies) who have met a specified goal in the past. Difficult goals have sometimes been defined as a goal that only 10% of employees can meet (also called stretch goals), while a challenging but achievable goals has been defined as a goal that 50% to 20% of employees can meet (note that is a very large range) and if set at those levels 50% to 80% of the employees will still not be able to meet the goal!

24. ppt and lecture: List Dickinson’s dos and don’ts re goal setting strategies.
25. 335,1. “Commitment” is an interesting issue. All of the factors listed in the last sentence are important. For the exam, be able to list them, noting very carefully the part about reward.
26. 335, 6 and ppt. Does participating in goal setting increase performance?
27. A. Based on the following, when implementing a performance improvement intervention, what specific components should be included?
 1. We know that the combination of goals and feedback is more effective than either alone. (from both traditional IO and OBM studies)
 2. Although no direct comparisons have been done, the literature suggests that graphic feedback is the most effective type of feedback to use with goals: better than written or vocal. (preferably the graphic feedback should be provided at least once a week) (from on OBM studies)
 3. Performance improves more when consequences are added. (this next part is not for the exam, but performance has improved more when monetary rather than nonmonetary incentives were used) (from both traditional IO and OBM studies)

Thus (and finally the answer to 27A): When possible, (a) goals, (b) graphic feedback that shows performance over time at least once a week, (c) performance consequences, preferably monetary.

- B. When using group rather than individual goals, what factor should be taken into account? Why?

The size of the group. Group goals with small groups appear to be more effective than group goals with large groups

This next part is not for the exam: We don’t know the critical “number” – no studies have systematically manipulated the size of the group. It would be an interesting study. While size of the group has not been manipulated with either group goals or monetary incentives, a recent meta-analysis that you will be reading in the incentive pay unit determined that group size did affect performance when people received incentives: the smaller the group, the more incentives increased performance.

28. Not for the exam, but the following are the prevalent analyses re behavioral functions of goals. They parallel the analyses of feedback, with one exception: progress toward reaching

the goal can serve as a reinforcer. Although part of me would like you to learn these analyses, I think it would be too much material for the exam, so I'll just present them here.

- A. SD or indirect acting SD: Rewards are provided in the presence of goals, but not in their absence.
 - B. MO: Makes reaching the goal and, more immediately, progress toward reaching the goal reinforcing and evokes behaviors that have resulted in progress toward/reaching the goal.
 - C. RFT: The goal evokes a verbal relational statement: "My current performance is **less than** the goal." This evokes goal-directed behavior, with the reinforcer being statements related to reductions in discrepancies – that is "My current performance is still less than the goal, but closer." Note that this analysis is very close to the fact that the MO may make progress toward the goal reinforcing (as well as goal attainment).
 - D. A bit more complicated: Malott's rule governed analysis, which I am not going to do full justice to. The goal evokes a verbal rule such as "If I don't reach the goal, I am going to look bad or get criticized by my supervisor" which is an MO that makes noncompliance aversive. Goal-directed behavior is reinforced by an immediate decrease in aversiveness created by noncompliance (which is a direct-acting escape contingency). The aversiveness is not terminated until the goal is reached.
29. From lecture: Daniels maintains that if you set a goal and performers meet that goal but do not exceed it, it indicates that the behavioral contingency controlling the performance is a *negative reinforcement contingency* (an aversive contingency) rather than a *positive reinforcement contingency* (which he advocates). I will argue in lecture that this is an incorrect analysis.

After lecture and for the exam, provide the main point of my analysis, but be sure to include the critical points about negative vs. positive reinforcement. (You do not have to learn the Union National Bank example which I use to argue this point.)

30. From lecture again:
- A. What is the most common mistake that business people make after implementing a goal setting program for employees?
 - B. Why is the answer to A a problem?
 - C. What are employees going to do when management does the above?

Wilk and Redmon article

Leslie Wilk Braksick, who founded CLG in 1993 and served as its president and CEO for years, conducted this study as her doctoral dissertation at WMU. The study was conducted at University of Michigan. It is an excellent example of how to do research in the real world. There are few better models. This study is a follow-up of Wilk & Redmon (1990). The 1990 study was conducted at WMU as Leslie's thesis. The supervisor was Pam Liberacki, who retired about 4 years ago, but was the Associate Director of Admissions and Orientation. She was a very staunch supporter of our program and behavioral approach. Leslie Wilk was hired as a consultant to UM based on the success of the program at WMU.

31. 50,2. Why was the efficiency measure used – in other words what does the efficiency measure tell us that the number of tasks completed for each section does not? (Do not just use the material in 50,2 to answer this - rather include the material in 60,0. It is an important point from an economic and productivity perspective).
32. 50,3. Not for the exam, but note the satisfaction questionnaire that was used. If you are looking for one to use, this sounds like a very good one.
33. 53,1. Not for the exam. The first time I saw this type of intervention - **daily** adjusted goal setting was in the earlier Wilk and Redmon article. It is a great solution in situations where the type of work fluctuates greatly from day to day or week to week.
34. 54,1. How often was verbal feedback given?
35. 54,1. How and when was the graphic feedback was delivered to each employee. (one thing I want you to notice is that the goals were individualized in this study and feedback was given individually.)
36. 54,3. What procedure was used to verify that the supervisor actually delivered the feedback? This is a great procedure. It is often used in studies to verify that the person who was supposed to deliver feedback actually did. I have used it myself in studies.
37. 57, 2-3. Not for the exam, but also note that performance was measured for approximately 30 weeks during the actual study and follow up data were taken for 30 weeks. Thus, the entire dissertation took 60 weeks to conduct. Admirable.
38. 57,3-61,0. Not for the exam, but note the experimental design and the results! In 69,0, note the reduction in notification time, and the decreased cost of absenteeism. Again, this is very impressive.
39. 61,0. Most importantly, what does this study reveal?

THE END

Unit 6: Performance and Pay

1. Amadot, Chapter 9, pages 341-347.
2. Bucklin, B. R., & Dickinson, A. M. (2001). Individual monetary incentives: A review of different types of arrangements between performance and pay. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 21 (3), 45-137.
3. Honeywell-Johnson, J. A., McGee, H. M., Culig, K. M., & Dickinson, A. M. (2002). Different effects of individual and small group monetary incentives on high performance. *The Behavior Analyst Today*, 3(1), 88-103.
4. Garbers, Y., & Konradt, U. (2014). The effect of financial incentives on performance: A quantitative review of individual and team-based financial incentives. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87, 102-137.

An Introduction to Pay Systems

The majority of workers in this country are paid by the hour or receive a set salary per year. However, in an effort to increase employee productivity and the flexibility of labor costs for the organization, many companies have or are adopting monetary bonus and incentive payment plans. In addition, some companies now organize employees into work teams, and many of these have or are moving to team incentive systems. I am going to focus on incentive systems, but before I do, I want you to understand a few things about compensation systems in general.

Aamodt

1. 341,5 and Figure 9.2. What components should a compensation plan include and why should each be included?

The following material is not for the exam. In Figure 9.2, base pay is divided into two components: market value and job evaluation. Market value relates to the salary that other companies are offering for the same position (external salary comparison). Job evaluation refers to whether the salary attached to the position is fair in terms of the importance of the job to the organization (internal salary comparison). The process by which this is determined is called job evaluation. All organizations do this. Together with the benefits package (and adjustments due to location – NYC and CA have much higher living expenses than Kalamazoo), these factors determine whether companies will attract and retain employees. However, as discussed below, because all employees in a position are offered the same salary and benefits, they do not differentiate between good and poor employees and thus they do not usually “motivate” employees to perform well.

2. The motivation problem: Based on the material below explain two reasons why hourly wage systems do not result in well-motivated employees from a behavioral perspective.

If I ask this on the exam I will give you the reason; for example, for the first one I would say explain the following reason why hourly pay does not result in motivated employees: Reason 1: You get what you pay for, or Reason 2: consequences. In other words, you don't have to memorize the two reasons, but you do have to be able to explain each one.

Reason 1: you get what you pay for. First, if you pay by the hour you are paying for hours worked, not performance. Economically, it makes sense for employees to take as much time as possible to complete their work -- the more hours, the higher the pay. In other words, if you pay

for hours you get hours - exactly what you pay for!! This is particularly true if workers are given the opportunity to work overtime - for which employees receive 150% of their regular salary. Most companies experience a large surge in overtime in the weeks that precede Christmas - surprise, surprise!

Reason 2: consequences. Second, in hourly wage systems, there are very clear consequences for performing below a minimally acceptable performance level - criticism from the supervisor, threat of termination of employment - but no clear consequences for performing above that minimum. Thus, hourly wage systems tend to support minimally acceptable performance levels.

3. A. Based on the following material, explain, according to Skinner, what maintains performance under hourly wage systems (the bold faced material is the important part for you to focus on). Do not forget to include the role of the supervisor - this is a very important part of the analysis, because it is the supervisor that provides the negative reinforcement contingency.

Many people object to monetary incentive systems because they are "aversive." And, there is no doubt that they can be when implemented incorrectly, which many are. In *Contingencies of Reinforcement*, Skinner (1969) described the aversive contingencies commonly associated with hourly wage systems. He stated:

No one works Monday morning because he is reinforced by a paycheck on Friday afternoon. The employee who is paid by the week works during the week to avoid losing a standard of living which depends upon a weekly wage. A supervisor who can discharge him is an essential part of the system. Rate of work is determined by the supervisor (with or without the pacing stimuli of a production line), and special aversive contingencies maintain quality. The pattern is therefore still aversive. (p. 18).

He goes on to say: "Somewhat better contingencies are available under schedules of reinforcement based on counters rather than clocks" (p. 19), referring specifically to piece rate pay systems.

- B. Now, based on the following material, explain why Skinner believes that incentive systems may be "better contingencies" in the sense of not being as aversive as hourly pay.

Skinner readily acknowledges that piece rate pay systems have been misused, nonetheless, he notes in *About Behaviorism* that incentive systems may **evoke feelings of confidence, certainty of success, and enjoyment arising from a sense of mastery and effectiveness, and interest in the job as occurs when behaviors are frequently reinforced.**

Note that the evocation of feelings is a respondent, not an operant relation. I'll talk more about this in lecture.

Variable pay versus pay for performance systems

4. Based on the material below, state the features, from a behavioral perspective, that a performance pay system must have to truly be a "pay for performance system".
- (1) The incentives must be based on the actual on-the-job performance (or performance result) of the employees; (2) Performance must be objectively measured; (3) There must be a pre-existing formula/contingency for how pay is tied to performance; (4) Incentives/money must be distributed relatively frequently (weekly, biweekly, monthly, and in some cases if necessary given the performance being measured, quarterly; but certainly not annually).

The next material is not for the exam. Bill Abernathy was without a doubt the leading behavioral expert in pay systems. Unfortunately, he passed away in 2015 when he was still quite young. Throughout his career, he made the distinction between **variable pay** systems and **pay for performance systems** based on the above features. This distinction is not made within either the business or compensation field. Also, note that Aamodt restricts the term “pay for performance” to individual performance plans, but Abernathy never did – he expanded the term to small group/team performance as well.

5. Below, I describe some of the popular variable pay plans that are being used in business and industry right now. I am not going to ask you to name or describe them for the exam but see Study Objective 6 for some material I am going to ask you to learn.

I want to provide some explanation before you read about these pay plans. Aamodt mentions some of these plans in Figure 9.2 on page 342 and describes some but not all of them in the subsequent material. I would have divided things up a bit differently but in Aamodt's defense this is an undergraduate text in IO psychology and not a compensation text. Nonetheless, I believe it is important for you (and from a behavior analytic perspective) to know that there are really **three** categories of variable pay plans, not two: individual plans, work group/team plans, and organizational plans. Aamodt leaves out group/team plans.

However, once again, in Aamodt's defense, sometimes you cannot classify a specific plan, particularly gain sharing or profit sharing in the abstract – while typically they are implemented at the organizational level, both can also be implemented at the unit, departmental, or divisional level. If they are implemented at one of these levels, one could argue that they are “team/group” incentive.

Individual plans

- A. Tenure-based: An individual's base pay is increased based on length of service.** This is a very popular plan with unions. This is not a pay for performance plan.
- B. Pay for skill or knowledge.** An employee's base salary is increased based on the number of tasks or skills that he/she can do, regardless of the particular job he/she performs. This creates a much more "flexible" workforce for the organization. This is not a pay for performance system because it is only based on the number of tasks/skills the employee can do; not on how well he/she performs the tasks/skills when they perform them.
- C. Merit pay:** See Aamodt, page 345. Merit pay is the most common type of pay raise system. Pay raises are annual and almost always based on annual, subjective performance ratings of supervisors. The raise is typically given as a percentage of base pay. There are some data suggesting that while merit pay may increase performance for a short period of times, the gains seem to be short-lived. This is not a pay for performance system.
- D. Special recognition bonuses, also called lump sum bonuses:** While these are individual recognition awards, in most cases, employees do not know the distribution method in advance or what criteria will be used to determine whether or not they will receive a bonus. Bonus plans are administered at the discretion of management. Bonuses can be given “sporadically” (whenever management decides they are warranted) or annually but are usually given “sporadically”. Some people in the compensation field have nicknamed these “Give and go” bonuses. This is not a pay for performance system.

- E. Employee suggestions:** Companies give employees a monetary reward based on their suggestions about how to improve performance/productivity. Some of these programs tie the amount of the monetary award to the amount the company saves once it implements the suggestion or based on a projection of how much money will be saved. This is not a pay for performance system.
- F. Commissions:** These are common in sales. Sales representatives are given a percentage of the cost of the item when they sell the item. This is a pay for performance system.
- G. Piecework:** See Aamodt's section "Pay for Performance" on page 344. He mentions Union National Bank, which is really cool. Only a few companies actually use "straight" piecework pay. Most now offer employees a base salary and then piecework pay for above standard performance (which is what Union National Bank did). The incentive money is distributed in the regular paychecks of employees and thus is distributed weekly or biweekly. This is a pay for performance system.

Group/team incentive plans (only one type)

- A. Group/team incentive plans.** These are typically implemented at the team/work unit level (for example, work teams of five to ten) or departmental level. Employees typically receive an hourly wage and can earn additional incentives when the group's productivity exceeds some predetermined level. All employees in the group typically receive the same amount of money, but in some cases the payouts are based on an individual's contribution to the group's performance or based on a % of base salary. For example, all employees get 5% of their base pay in incentives - the actual amount earned will vary depending upon the base pay, therefore. The incentive money is added to the regular paycheck of the employee and thus received weekly or biweekly. This is a pay for performance system.

Organizational plans

- A. Profit-sharing.** See Aamodt, page 346. Bonuses are based on the annual profits of the organization and typically distributed annually. Notice that while Aamodt indicates that profit-sharing results in greater employee commitment, he does not say that profit-sharing results in better performance. There are no conclusive data that profit-sharing increases productivity when implemented in large organizations. This is not a pay for performance system, although again, many business and compensation experts will say it is.
- B. Gainsharing.** See Aamodt, page 346. Bonuses are based on "savings" of the organization and typically distributed annually, although as Aamodt indicates, some plans pay out more frequently. This is not a pay for performance system as typically implemented although again, many business and compensation experts will say it is. However, this one is admittedly tricky to classify. It could be classified as a group/team pay for performance system depending upon how many employees are covered (5-10 who work as a team) and how frequent the payouts are.
- C. Stock options (also sometimes called employee ownership plans).** See Aamodt, page 347. This is not a pay for performance system, although again, many business and compensation experts will say otherwise.

6. Based on the material in SO5, Be able to state why the following plans should not be called “pay for performance” plans from a behavioral perspective: (a) Pay for skill or knowledge plans; (b) Merit pay; (c) Special recognition bonuses; (d) Profit sharing.

If I ask this question, I will give you the name(s) of the plan(s). That is, you do not have to memorize the names of the plans. Also, you do not have to describe the plan(s). All I am asking you to do is tell me why these plans typically should not be classified as pay for performance plans.

Bucklin & Dickinson article

7. 45,1-46,0. Abstract. Note the summary of the conclusions - the material beginning with "Taken together..." and the following sentence.
- A. The abstract is too wordy. I am going to summarize the three main conclusions of our review in the ppt: Learn these three conclusions.
- B. Be able to state the important implication of these conclusions which follows: *It appears, therefore, that you don't have to worry a lot about the details of how money/consequences are related to performance – as long as they ARE related in some type of ratio schedule, delivered fairly frequently, and supported by an on-going feedback system.* This is a VERY interesting point that is not commonly known in our field.

The following is not for the exam but explains why I am not covering schedules of reinforcement in this class. The same year Barbara and I published this article (2001), Don Hantula, a professor at Temple University, published a review entitled “Schedules of Reinforcement in Organizational Performance, 1971-1994.” Among other things, he concluded that (a) the parameters of the schedule did not result in consistent differences in performance; rather (b) the presence of a contingent relationship between performance and rewards/reinforcement was the most important factor with respect to improving performance.

Hantula’s review included both monetary and nonmonetary rewards, while ours was restricted to monetary incentives. We arrived at our conclusions independently. Neither knew that the other had written their articles until they were published.

Anyway, what this means is that performance-contingent rewards do increase organizational performance but different schedules (fixed vs. variable ratio schedule; FR1 vs. FR4; CRF vs. VR2, etc.) do not differentially affect performance. It may well be that people learn a simple “rule” – the more I produce, the more I earn or get.

In case you are interested, Hantula’s article is published in the following edited handbook (pages 139-166): C. M. Johnson, W. K. Redmon, & T. C. Mawhinney (Eds.). (2001). *Handbook of organizational performance: Behavior analysis and management.*

8. 49,1 Be able to state three reasons why it is not surprising from a behavioral perspective that profit-sharing has **not** been shown to increase productivity. I will talk about these in lecture and clarify them, providing additional information. Learn this material from lecture and the ppt.

The three reasons I am going to focus on are: (a) profitability is based on the aggregate performance of all members of the organization - the explanation for this one is actually provided later on page 51,2; (b) profitability is based on organizational factors that are clearly outside the control of employees such as mergers, investment of funds in research, etc., and (c) the fact that profit sharing bonuses are distributed annually or placed in the employee's retirement account. The fourth reason (actually, the third one given in 49,1) - economic measures - is not as important as these three, so I am not going to cover it in this class, although it is relevant.

9. 56,1 Not for the exam, but note the analysis of the complexity of pay systems - clearly, I was responding to molar analyses and those who fail to recognize the multiple contingencies that influence and affect performance at work. Organizational settings and hence behavior is not simple and *cannot* be explained simplistically.
10. 61,0 Fill in the blank: Historically, compensation experts have claimed that performance would not be affected by incentives that were less than (what percentage - and what does the percentage refer to), nor would performance be affected by percentages that were greater than this.
11. 72,1 (next to the last sentence on the page). What was the actual (not planned) *lowest* percentage of incentives examined by Frisch and Dickinson?
12. 73,1.
- A. What relationship was found between the amount of pay earned and the percentage of incentives?
- B. State two reasons why these data are important (the last sentence in the paragraph sums it up nicely)?
13. 73,2. Why were the results of Frisch and Dickinson "particularly interesting?"
14. 77,2. Not including 0%, what was the lowest percentage of incentive examined in LaMere et al.'s field study with truck drivers? What was the highest percentage (feel free to round the high percentage to 10%).
15. 80,1 Not for the exam but notice the length of each of the phases. We collected data for about four years.
16. 84,1. What consistent results were obtained by all five studies that examined the effects of the percentage of incentive pay on performance? Surprised? We were! And yes, I realize this is very similar to the answer to SO13 – I wanted you to notice those results when you read Frisch & Dickinson, before we got to the overall conclusions.

The following is not for the exam. Contrasting results were reported by Oah & Lee (2011) in a study published in *JOBM*: workers were more productive when they earned 100% of their pay in incentive pay vs. 10%. I think there are two reasons he may have found that.

Oah, S., & Lee, J. (2011) Effects of hourly, low-incentive, and high-incentive pay on simulated work productivity: Initial findings with a new laboratory method. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 31(1), 21-42.

First, participants in the 10% incentive group actually earned only 1.6% of their total pay in incentives. 2 of 4 performed the same when given 1.6% incentives and hourly wages: when group data for all were statistically analyzed, no difference between 1.6% and hourly wages. It's likely 1.6% incentives was simply too low to affect performance: functioning the same as hourly pay. Thus, it's not surprising there was a big difference between the 100% incentives and 1.6% incentives (which was designed to be 10%).

Second, he used an alternating treatment design and my guess is that some of the differences may be due to contrast effects. We have found such contrast effects when we have used within-subject designs. I may talk more about these types of methodological issues in lecture. If I don't (or even if I do), I strongly recommend that you read the following chapter:

Komaki, J. L., & Goltz, S. M. (2001). Chapter 4. Within-group research designs: Going beyond program evaluation questions. In C. M. Johnson, W. K. Redmon, and T. C. Mawhinney (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational performance: Behavior analysis and management* (pp. 81-137). New York: The Haworth Press.

Stay tuned! I have a doctoral student working on a "response" study to Oah & Lee....

17. 107,1. State two idiosyncratic factors in a work setting that could account for differences that occur when employees are exposed to various ratio schedules of reinforcement. Give one example of each factor from the ms and/or lecture.
18. 111 (sentences beginning "Subjects in the accelerating pay condition earned....").
 - A. What were the results of the Oah and Dickinson study with respect to the amount of money earned and the effects of linear vs. accelerating piece rate pay? Do NOT learn the average amount earned by Ss in each group - a general summary statement will do here.
 - B. Why are these results important? (conclusions on the ppt slide – note there are three)
19. 123,2. What two factors appear to affect ratings of satisfaction with various types of incentive pay plans?
20. 126,0-127,0 In general, to date, what do all of the data suggest regarding the generalizability of laboratory findings to actual work settings?

The following is not for the exam but this is a **very** important point. Many individuals question whether the results from the laboratory (particularly when college students are used as subjects) are relevant to the work place. To date, the data suggest that the results do, indeed, generalize, if care is taken to include the critical variables in laboratory simulations.

The following references/studies support the generality of lab studies. Remember this if you conduct a lab study and someone questions your study! And yes, you can probably tell this is a pet peeve of mine. Given the literature and the consistent findings, it irks me that people in our field still question the legitimacy of lab studies. In fact, Tim Ludwig and I have had this conversation a number of times and we had it again at ABAI 2018 despite the fact that I sent him the following references before!

Anderson, C. A., Lindsay, J. J., & Bushman, B. J. (1999). Research in the psychological laboratory: Truth or triviality? *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 8(1), 3-9.

Berkowitz, L., & Donnerstein, E. (1982). External validity is more than skin deep: Some answers to criticism of laboratory experiments. *American Psychologist*, 37, 245-257.

Garbers, Y., & Konradt, U. (2014). The effect of financial incentives on performance: A quantitative review of individual and team-based financial incentives. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87(1), 102–137. doi:10.1111/joop.12039

Jenkins, G. D. (1986). Financial incentives. In E. A. Locke (Ed.), *Generalizing from laboratory to field settings* (pp. 167–180). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Jenkins, G. D., Gupta, N., Mitra, A., & Shaw, J. D. (1998). Are financial incentives related to performance? A meta-analytic review of empirical research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(5), 777–787. doi:10.1037//0021-9010.83.5.777

Latham, G. P., & Lee, T. (1986). Goal setting. In E. A. Locke (Ed.), *Generalizing from laboratory to field settings* (pp. 101–117). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Locke, E. A. (1986). Generalizing from laboratory to field: Ecological validity or abstraction of essential elements? In E. A. Locke (Ed.), *Generalizing from laboratory to field settings* (pp. 3–9). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Mitchell, G. (2012). Revisiting truth or triviality: The external validity of research in the psychological laboratory. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 7(2), 109–117.

Honeywell-Johnson et al. article.

21. 89, 1. Conceptually, (a) why might individual incentives control performance more than small group monetary incentives; (b) on the other hand, why might small group incentives control performance as well as individual incentives?
22. 90,2, last sentence. Summarize the results of studies with respect to the comparison of the effects of equally-divided group incentives and individual incentives. **Provide the range of the number of subjects in the groups that were examined which you can get from Table 1** (for the Turkow et al. study, use the average group size). This is important.
23. 90,3.
 - A. When would individual performers be likely to perform the same under individual and group monetary incentives and why?
 - B. When would performers be likely to decrease their performance under group monetary incentives and why?

The following is not for the exam: What are the implications of these results for team/group projects in classes and/or in business settings?
24. 100, 2nd col, 2. What were the results of the study? What do these data indicate?
25. 100, 2nd col, 2.
 - A. Which of the following three pay systems did all four high performers prefer: Hourly pay, individual incentive pay, group incentive pay?
 - B. Which of the following three pay systems did the majority of participants (three out of four) find to be the most stressful? Hourly pay, individual incentive pay, group incentive pay?

The following is not for the exam: The above preference data are interesting. Many people would probably assume that the individual incentive pay would be seen as the most stressful, yet three of the four found the group pay system to be the most stressful. Also, in spite of the fact that three of the four participants found the hourly pay to be the least stressful form of pay, all four preferred the individual incentive pay.

26. Not for the exam: We confirmed the effects of group incentives on the performance and satisfaction of high performers in a subsequent study conducted by Dr. McGee (as her dissertation). I prefer the Honeywell-Johnson article for this class because Dr. McGee's was rather complicated and also used a new type of statistical analysis developed by Dr. Huitema specifically for within-subject data. Both the study and the analyses are rather difficult to understand without intense study – more study than I thought was appropriate for this unit. It was published in the *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, which is the research journal of ISPI (ISPI funded the study rather handsomely). (Also, it really is too long –the ISPI reviewers required us to justify the fact that we conducted a laboratory study and also used a within-subject design, which did not “go over” particularly well with some of the reviewers.) But, just in case you are interested here is the reference:

McGee, H. M., Dickinson, A. M., Huitema, B. E., & Culig, K. M. (2006). The effects of individual and group monetary incentives on high performance. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 19(4), 107-130.

Garbers & Konradt: I wanted you to have this study even though I am not going to ask many questions over it. The results confirm a number of points about incentives that I feel are very important, and it is the most recent meta-analysis of incentive studies.

27. 102, Abstract

A. How many individual incentive studies were included in the meta-analysis? (feel free to round to 115).

B. How many team-based incentive studies were included in the meta-analysis?

I am having you learn this to point out how few studies really have examined the effects of incentives on performance. Although you may think these numbers are significant – they aren't. I address this in my ppt introduction to this topic.

28. 108, 3-4.

A. Describe what is meant by both “equitably-distributed” team awards and “equally-distributed” team awards.

B. Historically, what has the empirical literature indicated about which type leads to higher increases in performance?

C. Which type of team-based incentives resulted in higher performance in the current study?
102, Abstract

29. 109, 2. Why might the effectiveness of incentives decrease as the complexity of the task increases?

30. 102, Abstract; 109, 2; and 113, 2. Not for the exam, but keep in mind it is very important to read a study carefully. The results of this meta-analysis, contrary to the results of other reviews, indicated that incentives affected complex tasks more than less complex tasks. The reason for that is the way they coded “complexity.” If you look at 113,2, they used a very different coding system than most studies. They did this to take into account the team-based type of performances. However, I am not comfortable with their coding system; thus, I would argue that you should **not** use this article as support for the statement that incentives affect complex tasks more or as much as less complex. I still hold the position that incentives have been shown to affect rate-oriented and less complex tasks more than complex tasks.

31. A. 116, 1. What were the results with respect to the effectiveness of team incentives and size of team?

B. Based on the information below, be able to state why as the team size increases, we would expect any type of group-based reward/contingency to become less effective. I have mentioned this earlier in this class – and again, this is not just related to monetary incentives; it is relevant to any type of team-based incentive. The authors do cite a paper I coauthored with Honeywell-Johnson on page 119,2, but I am not comfortable with the way they “translated” what we said. So, learn the following instead.

In small groups, any one individual has a lot of influence over the performance of the entire group; that influence decreases as the size of the group becomes larger.

32. 118, 1.

- A. What were the results with respect to the effectiveness of individual incentives and team-based incentives in field vs. laboratory studies?

This next part will not be for the exam, **but don't skip 32B below**: If you read 111,1-5, you will see that this has historically been the case. An important implication of this is that the results of lab studies underestimate the effects that incentives have in the real work place. Thus, these data actually support the generality of lab results: if you get good results in the lab, they are likely to be larger in actual settings!

- B. Now turn to 111,3 and 111,5. Historically, what have reviews indicated about the effectiveness of incentives in field vs. laboratory studies?

The following will not be for the exam. Interestingly, these authors did not cite an earlier study by Jenkins (1986) that reported the same thing: Effects were larger in field studies.

There are at least two possible reasons for these results: (a) in an actual work setting, employees who are incented are typically skilled employees, thus learning/acquisition does not cap performance to the same extent as in laboratory studies; and (b) in work settings, the incentives are tied to other organizational rewards (for example, recognition, promotions, etc.). Can you think of any others?

THE END

Unit 7: Interventions in Human Service Settings

1. DiGennaro Reed, F. D., & Henley, A. (2015). A survey of staff training and performance management practices: The good, the bad and the ugly. *Behavior Analysis Practice*, 8, 16-26.
2. Richman, G. S., Riordan, M. R., Reiss, M. L., Pyles, D. A. M., Bailey, J. S. (1988). The effects of self-monitoring and supervisor feedback on staff performance in a residential setting. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 21, 401-409.
3. Parsons, M. B., Cash, V. B., & Reid, D. H. (1989). Improving residential treatment services: Implementation and norm-referenced evaluation of a comprehensive management system. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 22, 143-156.
4. Gil, P J., & Carter, S. L. (2016). Graphic feedback, performance feedback, and goal setting increased staff compliance with a data collection task at a large residential facility. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 36 (1), 56-70.

This set of articles represents a rather odd collection of articles. Although I am going to talk about Carbone's monetary incentive program for staff, I chose the other articles because they represent interventions that can be implemented with little cost to the organization. Over the past few years, I have had several students in the behavior analysis program take the class, and they suggested that I include some articles that addressed low-cost effective interventions that could be used in human service settings. Thus, I have done that.

Richman et al. article

I like the Richman et al. article for several reasons: (a) the relatively simple, but effective measurement system; (b) it demonstrates what we know about in-service training – that it is NOT effective; (c) as with the Gaetani & Johnson article in U5, it raises the question of whether self-monitoring alone is an effective intervention over time.

Parsons et al. (1989)

If you are interested in staff management, I would be remiss if I did not encourage you to read *everything* you can get your hands on that has been published by Denny Reid, Marsha Parsons, and Carolyn Green; both their staff management publications and their clinical publications. I have been amazed over the years at the consistently high quality, innovative things they have done.

Gil and Carter article

This is an excellent article describing a very successful long-term program in 13 different residential facilities for individuals diagnosed with intellectual and other disabilities. It makes use of public graphic feedback for groups (not individuals), group social comparison feedback, and goal-setting for supervisors. Performance improved dramatically without the use of monetary incentives or a lottery (which also involves cost to the organization). **This has real potential for multi-site organizations.**

Not for the exam but a comment on the effectiveness of general performance management training/workshops for staff versus specific, targeted interventions

I have often been asked about the effectiveness of general performance management workshops/training for staff as an intervention. I have looked at that literature and it is not at all

encouraging, even when the staff management training programs are done well. The literature clearly suggests (at least at this point) that the best approach is to target specific behaviors/performances of either the staff or the clients and implement a staff management program based on the tried and true PM procedures that we have covered in this class (feedback, goal-setting, consequences).

Below are three articles that assessed the effectiveness of performance management training programs for staff. All programs were top notch, done by top-notch behavior analysts. And while they were somewhat effective initially, if you compare the results to the results of the types of interventions I described above, they are just not as effective and their effects don't last over time. Thus, if workshop/training effects will not sustain in these types of supportive settings, the "prognosis" isn't good for sustainability in less "friendly" and supportive settings. Of course, the challenge is to perhaps come up with procedures that will make such workshops effective; but from a practice perspective, at the current time, *your time and effort will be better spent targeting specific behaviors/performances of staff and clients and building a staff management intervention around that.*

Fleming, R. K., Oliver, J. R., & Bolton, D. M. (1996). Training supervisors to train staff: A case study in a human service organization. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 16(1), 3-25.

Gravina, N., & Austin, J. (2018). An evaluation of the consultant workshop model in a human service setting. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 38(2-3), 244-257.
Although this was just published, Nicole conducted this study as her dissertation in 2008.

Methot, L. L., Williams, L. W., Cummings, A., & Bradshaw, B. (1996). Measuring the effects of a manager-supervisor training program through the generalized performance of managers, supervisors, front-line staff, and clients in a human service setting. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 16(2), 3-34.

Additional recommended articles/book

Gravina, N., Villacorta, J., Albert, K., Clark, R., Curry, S., & Wilder, D. (2018). A literature review of organizational behavior management interventions in human service settings from 1990 to 2016. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 38(2-3), 191-224.

Reid, D. H., Parsons, M. B., & Jensen, J. M. (2017). Maintaining staff performance following a training intervention: Suggestions from a 30-year case example. *Behavior Analysis Practice*, 10, 12-21.

Reid, D. H., Parsons, M. B., Rotholz, D. A., & Braswell, B. A. (2007). *Positive behavioral support training curriculum and trainee resource guide*. Washington, DC: American Association of Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities.

This is a superb manual that provides detailed training procedures for staff. Unfortunately, it costs \$300.00. Our library does have it, however.

OK – finally the study objectives!!

Once again, the number of study objectives may seem daunting, but many are not required for the exam. I tried to focus on the main reasons/points of each article, without getting too caught up in the methodological/experimental procedures.

Intro to staff management, ppt

1. ppt. State the percentages that (1) developmentally disabled consumers and (2) staff spend in off-task activities in residential and group homes.

References for the above: Bensberg & Barnett (1966); Quillitch (1975); Iwata et al. (1976), Green et al. (1991). Note the span in the time frame! The data have been consistent for decades.

2. ppt. State the differences between human service professionals and professionals in business and industry that help account for staff management problems.
3. ppt. State three reasons why human services professionals have not been trained in staff management/OBM.

DiGennaro Reed & Henley article

This article clearly demonstrates the need for OBM in human service settings and documents that HSS are using the **least** effective training and management procedures!

4. 19, Table 1 Not for the exam, but notice that only ~52% of respondents indicated that their degree area of study was within the behavior analysis field (I included the following areas when calculating this: applied behavior analysis, behavioral psychology, experimental analysis of behavior, and organizational behavior management). That means that almost 50% of BCBA's and those seeking a BCBA did not identify behavior analysis as their major field of study. Interesting data.
5. 18, 2nd clm, 2, Initial or Pre-service training: Not for the exam, but I am going to come back to this in SO 7. Note the percentage of respondents who indicated that upon hire they received an initial orientation or training before working independently? *Of course, this means that about 50% did not receive any initial or pre-service training – Yikes!! As the authors state in 21, 2nd clm, 2, This is “alarming.”*
6. 19, 2nd clm, 1.
 - A. What were the two most common training methods?
 - B. What were the two least common training methods?
 - C. How many reported that a mastery criterion was used for training?
7. 19, 2nd clm, 1. Based on the below, be able to state the percentage of respondents who reported that either (a) they did not receive any initial orientation or training before working independently or (b) the training they received did not prepare them to perform successfully/adequately on the job!

Note that while 63% of respondents reported that the initial orientation/training prepared them to perform successfully on the job, that means that almost 1/3 did not feel prepared. Add this to the percentage who said they did not receive *any* orientation or training before working independently (from SO5) and those statistics are not at all good.

If my math is correct, it means that 66% of the respondents reported that either (a) they did not receive any initial orientation or training before working independently or (b) the training they received did not prepare them to perform successfully/adequately on the job!

8. 19, 2nd clm, 1, Ongoing or In-Service Training. State the most “frequently endorsed” type of ongoing training. Note once again, that this is not good! We know that workshops and in-service training have *very little effect* on the performance of staff!

And, be careful not to mix up the answer to this SO and the answer to SO6.

9. 19, 2nd clm, 1, Ongoing or In-Service Training. 66% of respondents indicated that they received ongoing feedback (that, of course means that 34% did not). However, this is pretty high. That said:
- A. Of those that indicated that they received ongoing feedback, how often did the majority of respondents indicate that they received it?
 - B. From lecture: What is the most likely reason that (a) a high percentage of respondents indicated that they received ongoing feedback and (b) the reason that feedback is most often given monthly?
10. 20, 2nd clm, Not for the exam: Incentives. Only about 25% of respondents indicated that they received monetary or non-monetary incentives or bonuses.
11. 20, 2nd clm, Supervisory Training. Of the 75% of respondents who indicated that they supervised staff, approximately what percentage indicated that they did **not** receive training on effective supervisory practices? Feel free to say ~65%.

Richman et al. article

12. 402,3-402,4.
- A. What two general categories of behaviors were recorded?
 - B. For the first category, how would a person be scored if a staff member was in the correct location with the appropriate materials, but was reading, drinking coffee, or interacting with another staff member - that is, not actually conducting the training?
 - C. For the second category, how would a person be scored if the staff member was engaging in an appropriate activity, but not the one that happened to be scheduled for that particular time period? In other words how would a person have been scored if he/she were doing one-on-one training when a group activity was scheduled?

These are very nice (and relatively simple measures of behavior): always a plus in any study. Many studies in Human Service Settings have VERY complex measures of behaviors, unlike the current one. That is one of the reasons I like this study. Remember, if the measurement system is too complicated and takes a lot of time, there is less of a chance that people will actually do it.

13. 403,3. Not for the exam, but some type of scheduling system is used in a large number of interventions in human service settings – and it is a very effective procedure as well as one that is relatively easy to implement. I return to this issue in the Parsons et al. article. Anyway, the one used in this article is one of the best I have seen.

Each staff member copied down his/her schedule (in 1/2 hour blocks) onto a card. *The E initialed each card. Staff members initialed each activity as they completed it or wrote an*

explanation of why they couldn't complete it. They turned their cards in at the end of the day.

14. 403,5. Not for the exam, but when and how many times did supervisors give feedback to each direct care staff member?
15. 404,3 and graph on page 405. Baseline data were fairly low and inconsistent. What effect did the in-service have on the behaviors of staff? Whenever researchers have evaluated the effects of in-service training or staff training memos, this IS the typical result.
16. 404,5. Self-monitoring increased the performance of staff members substantially.
 - A. Why, then was supervisory feedback added? That is, what happened to the performance of 5 of the 10 staff members during the self-monitoring phase?
 - B. What are the implications of these data? They suggest that self-monitoring alone may not be effective long-term for many employees (50% in this study).
17. 404,7 and 408, last sentence in article. Not for the exam but note that generalization occurred and also that the procedures were still in effect at that facility 2 years after the completion of the research and also had been adopted at 12 other facilities around the state.

Carbone Staff Incentive System: from the ppt presentation

18. What are the two components that incentives/bonuses are based on?
19. State any three of the five reasons why this system is so “cool.” You may not realize the importance of the fourth reason on the ppt slide; this is actually very important.
20. A. What is the criterion for earning the bonus/incentive for training?
B. What happens if instructors do not meet the criterion?

Parsons et al. article.

In this article, I am going to point out some very useful procedures that could be implemented in any human service setting although this study was conducted in five group homes for the developmentally disabled. Quite frankly, this is the best study I have seen of a large-scale OBM intervention in a human service setting. It can be used as a model for any human service setting, although, clearly some of the details of the procedures would have to be modified.

21. 148, 2nd col., 1- 149, 1st col, 0. Not for the exam. There were essentially three main components to the “structure/scheduling” intervention.

Prior to the intervention, tasks for targeted times during the day were designated with terms like “leisure.” Notice how this was changed during the intervention.

Again, notice the importance of scheduling activities and providing clear task clarification for the direct care staff – this is a recurrent theme in OBM interventions, and one we saw in earlier in the Richman et al. article. This should always be a first step.
22. 149, 1st col., 1. What three benefits from a PM perspective are derived from assigning staff to specific responsibilities/roles? Answer: task clarification, decreased conflict with other responsibilities, and individual accountability – by which I mean, individuals could be identified, their performance measured, evaluated, and consequated.
23. 149, 2nd col., 1.
 - A. How often did the cottage supervisor (or assistant supervisor) observe each staff person using a checklist of behaviors relevant to each job role?

B. What procedure was used to verify that the cottage supervisor not only observed the staff person's behavior, but provided *feedback to the staff person immediately afterward*? This is virtually the same procedure that was used by Wilk &. It is an excellent procedure to ensure/measure that the observations/feedback are being provided by supervisors – and yet is NOT labor intensive for the researcher/consultant.

24. 149, 2nd col., 2-150, 0. Not for the exam

Note the very important and nice systems approach here. (a) Each cottage supervisor observed each staff member at least once a week. (b) The area director reviewed the observation and feedback forms for each cottage supervisor weekly. (c) The facility program director reviewed the graphs displaying the % of intervals during which active treatment was being conducted for each unit weekly and sent those to the area director with comments. Thus, you have four levels of organizational employees involved here: (1) cottage staff, (2) cottage supervisors, (3) the area director, and (4) the facility program director.

When people implement OBM procedures with staff and supervisors, they sometimes “forget” that someone has to monitor and give feedback to them as well. The procedures employed in this study are *excellent*.

A couple of years ago, one of the students asked me to address maintenance. This study provides an example of what you need to do in order to get PM interventions to maintain – **the supervisors/managers must be held accountable for their PM practices, and they must be evaluated on them – not only on client goals**. That means that the top person in the organization must create a system of accountability for good PM practices at every level of the organization.

25. 150, 2nd col., 1. Not for the exam, but initially I was confused about the specific number of times that the treatment was implemented, but if you turn back to page 148, 1st col, 1, you will see that they implemented the treatment for a total of 23 time periods, across the five buildings, which would also mean for different staff members. On the graphs in Figure 2, the numbers in the boxes are the time periods (i.e., 3:30 – 5:30 pm, 5:30-7:00 pm, etc.).

26. 150, 2nd col., 2. Explain, as I do in this study objective, the very nice contribution that the normative data that permits comparison with other agencies adds.

Most studies would simply have reported baseline data, which would have been sufficient, but *with the across-agency normative data, these group homes could not only show that they had improved, but that they were doing considerably better, for the most part, than other state residential facilities*. (The original normative data was collected for 22 living units in six state facilities in three states – see page 144, 2nd col., 1). This is especially nice since one reason that the study was being conducted was because of the impending state Medicaid review team visitation.

27. 154, 1st col., 0. Be able to state why, *from a staff perspective* (and hence reasonable management expectation), it was important to collect normative data. Include in your answer “given typical staff-to-resident ratios.”

This point is important. The agency can only hire a certain number of staff due to budgetary constraints – and usually the agency is understaffed. Given the number of staff, it is unrealistic to assume that residents will always be in active treatment and never be off-task. Thus, it becomes important to determine what percentage of intervals *is* realistic.

28. 154, 1st col, 2-154, 2nd col, 0. Not for the exam, but notice how many total staff and residents actually participated in this management procedure. Again, this is impressive.

29. 155, 1st col., 0. From an applied perspective, what is the disadvantage of targeting and focusing on *staff* behavior rather than *resident* behavior? And, what, therefore, may be one important result of focusing on resident behavior?

The following material is not for the exam: It’s interesting, but I never thought of the fact that individuals may prefer to have their accomplishments monitored rather than their behavior (resident behavior would be the equivalent of measuring an “accomplishment” for someone in business).

This would be an interesting study for someone to do; that is to compare a staff monitoring system where the staff behavior is observed, measured, plotted and consequated with a system where the resident behavior is observed, measured, plotted and staff consequated on that basis. An important component of the study would be to compare the extent to which the staff found the two systems acceptable.

Babcock et al. conducted a very interesting study with nurses that found that nurses improved their performance *when given feedback on their assistants’ behavior in contrast to when they were only given feedback on their own performance*. I don’t know of any other study that has examined this.

In that study, Babcock et al. measured the number of times the nurses gave feedback to their assistants about wearing gloves when handling soiled linens in a head-injury treatment center (to prevent HIV infection). The researchers first gave the nurses feedback on the number of times they gave written “feedback slips” to their assistants. While that improved performance significantly, nurses gave even more feedback slips to their assistants when they were also given data on the percentage of time that the assistants actually used gloves when handling soiled linens. And, most of the assistants’ glove-wearing behavior increased more during this phase of the study.

Although the researchers assessed satisfaction of both the nurses and their assistants, they did not ask the nurses if they preferred one type of feedback to the other.

Babcock, R. A., Sulzer-Azaroff, B., Sanderson, M., & Scibak, J. (1992). Increasing nurses’ use of feedback to promote infection-control practices in a head-injury treatment center. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 25(3), 621-627.

Gil and Carter article

I like this article because it is a large-scale study showing that **group** social comparison feedback (comparing the performance of groups to each other) together with goal-setting for supervisors can dramatically improve performance (without the use of any type of monetary incentives, tangibles that cost money, or a lottery). Interestingly, the authors don't mention or address the (group) **social comparison** component of the study, but I believe it might have been essential to the success of this study.

30. 58, 0. Approximately many total DCS participated and about how many per home? The reason I am asking you about the per home number is that it indicates the **size** of the group involved in the group feedback contingency. This is important.
31. 58, 1. What was the DV?
32. 59, 3. Percentage of compliance was calculated for "periods". About how long did the periods last? The reason I am asking this is because this is also how often the feedback was provided to staff on the graphs, thus, this relates to the frequency of feedback that the staff received. Note that this is not considered to be "dense" feedback – most studies use daily or weekly feedback. This is an important point when it comes to the feasibility and maintenance of procedures.
33. 59, 5: Baseline. How many homes were in each group? This is important because it relates to the number of "comparison" homes. That is, in Group 1, for example, the staff in each home had four comparison groups.
34. 60, 1, Graphic feedback.
 - A. Again, how often were the graphs prepared?
 - B. What content was displayed on the graph?
 - C. The authors state that bar graphs were used because DCS didn't need to see a trend. State the other reasons that bar graphs were used. This latter reason is important to keep in mind. We think line graphs are very easy to read, but DCS don't find them as easy to read. Also, data for 5 homes were displayed on two of the graphs. Line graphs would have been "busy" and confusing.
 - D. How were the graphs displayed to staff? (in other words, describe the public posting procedure). You do not have to include the specific places the graphs were posted as indicated in the last sentence. This is an important feature of the intervention because the graphs were publicly posted, not privately presented to staff.
35. 60, 2-4, Goal setting.
 - A. How often were the goals set?
 - B. What data and type of data display were given to supervisors to set the goals? Why was this type of display chosen rather than bar graphs?
 - C. In addition to setting the goals, what was also discussed and recorded? This may have been critical to the success of the intervention.
 - D. What was the "intervention" for supervisors? Include both what occurred and what did not occur. (60,4, first sentence)

E. In 61,1, the authors indicate that goal-setting improved performance, and, in fact, improved performance considerably over feedback about compliance. What information/data was not collected/measure that would have been useful in determining why the goal-setting intervention was successful? (60, 4, last two sentences)

36. 61, 1, Results. Not for the exam but these are very impressive!
37. Not for the exam, but we don't have a lot of studies that have examined **group** social comparison feedback. The comparison to other groups adds an evaluative component (how good are we in comparison to other similar groups), a "goal" (if another group is performing better), and a competitive component (we want to be the best).

Although I have serious reservations about **individual** social comparison feedback (in which names and performances are displayed), I have no problem with group to group comparison, particularly when it occurs across organizations rather than within an organization.

Below is a really fun example of the use of group social comparison feedback and competition to improve performance.

Kortick, S. A., & O'Brien, R. M. (1996). The world series of quality control: A case study in the package delivery industry. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 16(2), 77-93.

To improve quality control in sorting and loading packages in a package delivery company, a competitive program of feedback and positive reinforcement was implemented using a baseball analog system. Existing work groups were paired in daily games in which points were scored based on company quality control measures. Fourteen teams were divided into leagues and divisions leading to playoffs and a world series. The program demonstrated quality increases, prompting management to replace the local program with a regional competition between facilities. Awesome!!!

38. 66, 1. How long did this study last?
39. 66,1 What is the attrition/turnover rate of DCS at this facility? The reason that I am asking you to learn this is because that figure is actually the **norm**. Many facilities have even higher turnover rate. Imagine how much time HSS spend hiring and training new employees, which is another challenge for HSS that most businesses do not have.
40. 67, 2, Discussion and back to 60, 5-61,0, Follow-up. Not for the exam but note that even though the data were excellent during the follow-up probes, when there were two probes, data were trending down. In the discussion, the authors indicate that they do not know whether or not the intervention was continued. Augh. The study lasted **2 years, the results were terrific, but we don't know if the supervisors in the homes continued the intervention**. During the intervention, one person, no doubt the author did all of the calculations, prepared the graphs for both the DCS and supervisors, and met monthly with the supervisors.

What do you think will happen over time if the intervention was withdrawn? If supervisors did not continue the intervention, could it perhaps be due to the fact that (a) they did not receive any consequences if goals were not met and (b) their supervisors were not involved? In other words, if you want maintenance, build it into the system.

41. 68, 0. How much time per week was spent managing data, creating graphs and meeting with the supervisory staff? How nice to include these data! And, it might be that one reason the intervention may not be continued is that someone has to do this and the organization doesn't appear to have assigned anyone to do it.

The END!

Unit 8: The Hawthorne Studies, Job Satisfaction, and Intrinsic Motivation

1. Parsons, H. M. (1974, March 8). What happened at Hawthorne? *Science*, 183, 922-932.
2. Hantula, D. A. (2015). Job satisfaction: The management tool and leadership responsibility. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 35 (1-2), 81-94.
3. 2-page book review of Daniel H. Pink's "Drive" by Richard Eisenberg, USA TODAY
4. Dickinson, A. M. (1989). The detrimental effects of extrinsic reinforcement on "intrinsic motivation". *The Behavior Analyst*, 12(1), 1-15.
5. Dickinson, A. M. (1995). Rewards and punishment: A fine distinction. A behavior analyst's reply to Alfie Kohn's (1993) *Punished by rewards*. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 8(2), 131-136.

Admittedly, this is an odd unit. There are three separate topics (Hawthorne Studies, Satisfaction, and Intrinsic Motivation), but I believe each is important. If only I had more time in this class!!!!

Re the third topic: Daniel Pink is a writer/motivational speaker that once again raised the issue about the "evils" of extrinsic rewards and "carrot and stick" management. Our consultant colleagues (ADI, CLG) have told me that he is very popular in business and industry and have given them a lot of "trouble". If you want to learn more about Pink's perspective (I just include a brief 2-page book review of his book "Drive"), he has a presentation on youtube that presents his views very well: www.youtube.com/watch?v=rrkrvAUbU9Y I talk about this more later in the study objectives.

Interestingly, the Cerasoli et al. article I recommend below starts with a quote from Dan Pink and then goes on to dispute Pink. I almost included that article in your course pack but decided not to because of its length and the fact while the conclusions are valuable, the article is not written from a behavioral perspective.

Pink's perspective is actually VERY popular in educational settings, so you may encounter it in those settings as well.

Recommended readings for opposing views on the damaging effects of extrinsic rewards:

Cerasoli, C. P., Nicklin, J. M., & Ford, M. T. (2014). Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic incentives jointly predict performance: A 40-year meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 140(4), 980-1008.

Cameron, J. (2005). The detrimental effects of reward hypothesis: Persistence of a view in the face of disconfirming evidence. In W. L. Heward, T. E. Heron, N. A. Neef, S. M. Peterson, et al. (Eds.), *Focus on behavior analysis in education* (pp. 304-315). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Chance, P. (1992, November). The rewards of learning. *Phi Delta Kappa*, pp. 200-207. This is actually my favorite for school personnel.

Parsons article

As indicated in Aamodt (U1), The Hawthorne Studies are often cited as one of the most important episodes in the development of I/O psychology, if not the most important – primarily for putting the "O" in I/O psychology. People talk about them and refer to them all the time. Moreover, a common phrase in experimental psychology, regardless of area of specialization, is "well, were the results due to a Hawthorne effect?" This article dispels the myth of the Hawthorne effect, accounting for the changes from a behavioral perspective. This is an

incredible article. It is an article that every I/O psychologist, if not every behavior analyst, should know about. Most of us in OBM know about it, but few others actually do.

An article that is easier to read, and perhaps to understand, was published by Parsons in *JOBM* in 1992, pages 27-43. The article was invited by Mawhinney, the editor of *JOBM*, as a contribution to a special issue entitled "Pay for Performance: History, Controversy, and Evidence." I could have included this article instead of the one I did, but I prefer the original, historical account. But, if you are interested in reading more about this, do read Parsons article in *JOBM*. I do like a phrase from that article. Parsons stated that "***the Hawthorne studies became the biggest Rorschach blot in the history of behavioral and social science.***" And he was so right!

1. Based on the material below, learn what is typically meant by the "Hawthorne Effect."

Experimental methodology texts inevitably refer to the Hawthorne effect: It is typically defined as changes in the behavior of subjects that are *NOT due to the IV that was manipulated* but rather that were due to the fact that the Ps knew they were in an experiment.

2. 922, 2nd colm, 1. How many studies were conducted, and what were the dates of those studies?
3. 922, 2nd colm-3rd colm, 0. Most identify the illumination study as the locus for the "Hawthorne effect" however this emphasis is not justified. Why isn't this justified?
4. 922, 3rd colm, 1. Not for the exam, but the first experiment conducted in the Relay Assembly Test Room was really the actual source of the so-called "Hawthorne effect," not the illumination study.
5. 923, 2nd colm, 2 - 3rd colm, 0. In the Relay Assembly Test Room, describe the incentive system in detail and indicate how that was altered during the experiment.

The key to the change, from a behavioral perspective, is provided in the last sentence of the paragraph – however, that change would not have been important if the incentive system had not been a *group* incentive system so it is critical that you mention this in your article and describe the features of the group incentive system. I will discuss the essential features in lecture as well. But note carefully that the way in which the incentives were calculated *was not changed* - the only thing that differed was that the group incentives were based on the 5 workers rather than the whole department of 100 or more workers. But this is a very important change because after that change an individual's productivity contributed 20% to the total productivity of group upon which the group incentives were contingent as opposed to 1% of the total productivity of the group.

6. 924, 2nd colm, 1. What other very important difference existed between the test room and the regular department?

What I am looking for here is not just "feedback" but a general description of the feedback and measurement system, that includes the key components, from a behavioral perspective (counter for each completed relay which was visible at all times to the operators, readings taken every half hour or so by the supervisor, and daily reports of production, defects and rejected parts).

7. 924, 3rd colm, 1 *Note that no primary source ever gave details about the feedback system* (nor did secondary sources), which no doubt contributed to misinterpretations of the results. I think this is a *very* important point to know about.

Based on the below, be able to state why was the feedback overlooked for such a long time, given that it can have such a powerful effect on performance?

The Hawthorne studies were conducted between 1924 and 1932. In those days, people were not aware of the powerful effects of feedback, particularly when combined with monetary incentives. As typical of studies of the time, the Hawthorne studies were examining the effects of physical variables on performance (# of breaks, scheduling of breaks, lighting, etc.) rather than the effects of consequences or rewards for performance.

Remember that Skinner did not publish *Behavior of Organisms* until 1938 and *Science and Human Behavior* until 1953; thus there was no field of behavior analysis or operant conditioning (although Thorndike's law of effect was known).

8. 926, 2nd colm, 2 - 3. Few people ever refer to this second Relay Assembly Test Room Study, but it contributed greatly to Parson's analysis and argument – so once again, I consider this to be very important to know about.
 - A. Second Relay Assembly Test Room Study: Who were the participants, how many were there, and how was their payment method was changed?
 - B. What type of experimental design is represented by the way in which the conditions were implemented?
 - C. What were the results?
 - D. At the end of the 3rd paragraph, Parsons quite correctly notes that the results of the Second Relay Assembly Group experiment substantiate the hypothesis that the formation of the small group was an important factor in the first Relay Assembly Test Room Study. In the first part of the 3rd paragraph, however, Parsons contrasts the results of the Second Relay Assembly Group experiment with the results from the first Relay Assembly Test Room, noting how they differed.
 1. How did they differ?
 2. To what does Parsons (albeit subtly) attribute these differences?
9. 927, 1st colm, 3-2nd colm, 1-2. According to Homans, what factor made workers in the bank wiring room maintain rather than increase their performance and also made them punish members who worked too fast? In your answer don't just state the factor, also state its implications for workers (the second part of the sentence.) Also, what does "lower the piecework rate" mean? It is essential that you understand this in order to understand the point that Homans is making.

Not for the exam: In spite of the fact that we have known about this since the days of Hawthorne, raising standards or decreasing the per piece incentive amount is still the Number 1 error that managers make when they implement incentive systems! (Raising the standards and cutting the piecework rate, while different, have the exact same effect for the worker – they must work harder for the same amount of money.)

Also, not for the exam: The factors that Rothlisberger and Dickson's mention are also quite reasonable (except that I can't understand why workers would be upset if management *increased* rather than *decreased* the piecework rate), but there are too many for you to learn.
10. Often people believe that "cohesive" groups will perform better than "noncohesive" groups. The above results dispel that myth as well. Cohesive groups can perform worse. It all depends upon what group contingencies are implemented within the group. (The group

norms were very different in the first relay assembly test room - those workers ostracized and punished poor performers.) For a very interesting example of how cohesive groups can go wrong, read 469,3 in Aamodt: an example about the Hollywood Division of the Los Angeles Police Department.

For the exam: Based on the following material (which I will also talk about in lecture) be able to answer the following question about cohesive groups. It is often said that cohesive groups/teams will perform better than noncohesive groups/teams. In lecture I stated that this is not true. Explain and include an example in your answer

Answer (include the point about the power of the contingencies – that is the reinforcers and punishers provided by members of cohesive groups have more reinforcing and punishing value): The social contingencies within a cohesive group determine what type of performance cohesive groups will have – those contingencies can support good performance, bad performance, and even unethical behavior. When the group is cohesive, the social contingencies will be more powerful and be more likely to affect the performance/behavior of the individuals within the group.

11. Not for the exam. Note that he discusses interpretations in terms of Locke's goal-setting theory and instrumentality theory (same thing as expectancy theory) on page 929, 1st colm. Also note that he states that expectancy (instrumentality) theory has much in common with an incentive approach as it emphasizes contingent relationships.
12. Not for the exam. The rest of the article is intriguing as well, particularly how he handles other interpretations of the data - this is a true scholarly work. Do read 930,3, for the typical way people interpret the results from Hawthorne (the first sentence is what people typically mean when they talk about a "Hawthorne effect" as I indicated earlier). Note how Parsons argues against this claim.

I also like his redefinition of the Hawthorne Effect in the last paragraph. *"I would redefine the Hawthorne effect as the confounding that occurs if experimenters fail to realize how the consequences of subjects' performance affect what subjects do."*

Hantula article

My study objectives over this article are a bit “pedantic”, but I feel that it is very important that you understand the facts about job satisfaction and what it is and is not related to in terms of behavioral outcomes. Additionally, as behavior analysts, we sometimes dismiss attitudes/satisfaction as not being very important. In fact, I have heard a number of OBM professionals say that they don’t care one whit about satisfaction. This article makes a very compelling case that we should indeed be concerned about job satisfaction. In addition, he makes the point that if our interventions are, indeed based on positive reinforcement/rewards as most of them are (all of them should be?), then they are likely to increase satisfaction and we should be documenting that. Mawhinney (1984, 1989) wrote two excellent articles about our ethical obligations as behavior analysts and I highly recommend those articles as well, but they are harder to “slug” through and could be perceived as being dated even though most of the points Mawhinney made still “stand.” The references are in the Hantula article so I won’t repeat them here.

13. 82, 1-2, Beginning with a quiz. Why should we be concerned with job satisfaction? As an answer, I want you to rephrase the three questions and answer “workplace” into statements; that is, for example, for the first one: “Because the adults in industrial societies spend the majority of their conscious, waking hours at the workplace.”

14. 83, 0.
 - A. What is the assumption about the relationship between morale (satisfaction) and productivity?
 - B. What does the research show about correlations between satisfaction and behavioral outcomes such as absenteeism and turnover?
 - C. What does the research show about the correlations between satisfaction and performance, and what are the conclusions about the causal relationship between satisfaction and performance? Note, I am just asking for something like “Correlations between satisfaction and performance range from being nonexistent to moderate and that research has concluded that there is no causal relationship between the two.”
15. 83, 2
 - A. What is meant by a dispositional approach to satisfaction? Again, I am just asking for a brief answer.
 - B. State Arvey’s two cautions about a dispositional approach.
16. 86, 3 – 87, 0, Responsibility Revisited
 - A. The meta-analysis of 485 studies conducted by Faragher clearly showed that job satisfaction is related to what?
 - B. What two work-related behavioral outcomes are negatively correlated with higher job satisfaction? Hint: the one identified by Barling et al. (2003) and the one identified by Bockerman & Ilmakunnas (2008) as well as by others.
17. 87, 1, second sentence. Why does Hantula argue that job satisfaction as a **social good** (key words for this study objective) extends beyond the workplace?
18. 88, 0 What is Hantula’s argument “herein”? Let me help: The point he is making is that given the fact that work environment can be controlled, and managers and leaders are the ones who control the work environment, it implies that they have a responsibility and imperative to use that control not only for the good of the organization but for the social good.
19. 88, 2 Instead of targeting either job satisfaction or work-related behaviors directly, what third variable should be targeted that might result in the dual goal of high-performing organizations and high job satisfaction?
20. 89, 0.
 - A. What stock in trade OBM interventions and systemic interventions have been shown to increase job satisfaction?
 - B. But, unfortunately, what are two problems with the measurement of job satisfaction in OBM?
 - C. Given B, what are important future directions for OBM research as it relates to job satisfaction?
21. 90, 0. Not for the exam, but I love how he ends this article: with a recognition that the science of behavior is powerful, but along with that we have great responsibility.

Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic rewards. Due to a book published in 2010, *Drive*, by Daniel H. Pink, this area has come back to haunt us in OBM. I say has come back because it was controversial in the in the early to mid-nineties to due to Deci & Ryan’s research and books and due to a book written by Alfie Kohn (1993), *Punished by Rewards*. I was of the firm opinion that we had laid this issue to rest then. I admit I am annoyed that I have to cover this again in this class: I covered it from 1993-2000 and then felt it didn’t have sufficient relevance any more to continue to talk about it.

Deci’s claim that extrinsic rewards decrease intrinsic motivation, while discussed in the business literature, after a relatively brief period, lost “traction.” It is not consistent with many of the traditional IO motivational theories and certainly not with behavior analysis. It has remained controversial in the educational field, however. But because Pink’s books, talks, and writings have resurrected this issue, I felt it was once again important to include it. This is because (a) his book and views have become so popular in business and industry that my OBM consulting colleagues have told me he is “driving them crazy,” and (b) some of my senior graduate students, who never learned this material, have been asking me about it.

Because Pink is basically “channeling” Deci and Kohn (with but a few new twists), I have not written any new material; rather I am including articles that I wrote when the issue first came up. Also, I have included two articles that I have written. The first, in 1989, is clearly targeted to behavior analysts. Given that you are graduate students in behavior analysis, my objectives primarily come from this article. My second article is a response for practitioners and I included it because you may find this helpful if you ever have to respond to lay folk about this issue.

I am not going to ask any questions over the book review – this just summarizes Pink’s position. I have boldfaced some of the critical issues.

Dickinson, 1989.

22. 1, 2nd clmn. Why are people concerned that extrinsic rewards may decrease intrinsic motivation?
23. 1, 2nd clmn, 1. Not for the exam, but the material in this paragraph is extremely similar to what Pink is saying. He starts with both Harlow’s and Deci’s studies in his introduction to his book to justify his position. His position about what motivates behavior is *very* similar to the motivational theories I mention here (and note the dates of these theories –nothing new here; he has just repackaged it).
24. 2, 1st clmn, 0. How has “intrinsic motivation” historically been defined (either the first full sentence or Zimmerman’s quote will do just fine).
25. 2, 1st clmn, last paragraph, starting with, “From this perspective...”
 - A. Define “intrinsic motivation” behaviorally.
 - B. Illustrate your answer with an original example and be able to explain your example (see below).

Examples: when you paint a picture, your painting behavior is automatically reinforced by the picture/paint on the canvas. Similarly, when you do a jigsaw puzzle, your behavior is automatically reinforced by the pieces fitting together and progress on completing the puzzle.

For a groundbreaking paper on automatic reinforcement see:

- Vaughan, M. E., & Michael, J. L. (1982). Automatic reinforcement: An important but ignored concept. *Behaviorism*, 10(2), 217-227.
26. 2, 2nd clmn, 1. State the other very important difference between the traditional and behavioral views of “intrinsic motivation” versus “intrinsic reinforcer” – the difference related to genetic versus learned.
 27. 3, 1st clmn, 1. In addition to intrinsic reinforcers, behavior identified as intrinsically controlled may in fact be controlled by what?
 28. 7, 2nd clmn, 1-2.
 - A. When decrements have been observed by behavioral researchers after they have terminated the extrinsic rewards (which as I indicated in 7, 1st clmn, 3, has been rare) what have been the results when they have repeatedly measured task performance?
 - B. What is the very important conceptual implication of the above results? You might want to review the material in 7, 1st clmn, 2 (the first paragraph under the heading “Transience”).
 29. 8, 1st clmn, 1-2nd clmn, 0.
 - A. What type of rewards do appear to result in post-reward decrements? (do not just say task-contingent –describe what task-contingent rewards are).
 - B. Bandura’s quote – why is this fact “of no great social import?”
 30. 9, 1st clmn, 1. What type of rewards do **not** result in post-reward decreases?
 31. 9, 2nd clmn, 0. Deci maintains that success-contingent rewards increase intrinsic “motivation” yet he (and if you read my other article, Kohn) still clearly opposes all performance-contingent rewards. This has always seemed strange to me.
Provide my argument to Deci’s statement that “many people end up receiving the message that they are not doing very well.”
 32. 11, 1st clmn – 12, 1st clmn, 0. What critical difference in studies by nonbehavioral and behavioral researchers, supported by the results of Williams (1980), could account for the fact that decreases in task performance have been observed by nonbehavioral researchers but not behavioral researchers?
 33. 12, 2nd clmn, 3-13, 1st clmn, 0. Not for the exam, but I love this paragraph and Bandura’s quote.
- You have enough for this exam, so I won’t ask any questions over my other article. The study objectives below just point out what I think are some of the highlights in case you are interacting with business and educators about this issue.
34. 131, last sentence – 132, 1st clmn, 0. Is it immoral to use rewards?
 35. 132, 2nd clmn, last paragraph – 133, 1st clmn, 0. Do rewards punish?
 36. 133, 2nd clmn. Do rewards ignore reasons?
 37. 134, 1st clmn. Do rewards discourage risk-taking?
 38. 134, 2nd clmn. Do rewards decrease intrinsic interest and motivation?
 39. 135, 2nd clmn, next to last paragraph. Do rewards “offer a temptingly simple way to get people to do what we want.”?

THE END, the REAL END, No more study objectives in the course!!!!