# Chapter 1

# Introduction to the Fields of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior

The behavior of individuals acting as members of formal organizations has a tremendous impact on many aspects of our lives. The food we eat, the cars we drive, and the houses we live in all depend on the coordinated effort of individuals in organizations. This impact, in fact, is so pervasive that we often take it for granted. Typically, we only take notice when the results are at the extremes. For example, many marveled at the coordinated effort between the federal government and pharmaceutical companies that led to the development and testing of COVID-19 vaccines in record time but expressed disdain and strong criticism when COVID-19 led to problems with the supply chain resulting in higher prices and shortages. Most often, the impact of behavior in formal organizations goes unnoticed.

Organizational psychology and organizational behavior are two remarkably similar fields that utilize scientific methodology to better understand the behavior of individuals working in organizational settings. This knowledge is also used to help make organizations more effective and improve the health and well-being of employees. Effective organizations are typically more productive, often provide higher-quality services to their constituents, and are usually more financially successful than less effective organizations. For private organizations, financial success often translates into higher wages and greater job security for employees, and increased shareholder wealth for investors. For public

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*Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior: Evidence-based Lessons for Creating Sustainable Organizations*, Fourth Edition. Steve M. Jex, Thomas W. Britt, and Cynthia A. Thompson.

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organizations such as police departments, municipal governments, and public universities, success means higher-quality services and cost savings to taxpayers.

Enhanced organizational effectiveness, and the success that often comes with it, also provides many indirect benefits. Successful organizations provide employment opportunities, which helps foster the economic well-being of communities, states, and entire nations. Consumers also benefit from enhanced organizational effectiveness because well-managed, efficient organizations are often able to produce products and provide services at a much lower cost than their less successful competitors. Such cost savings are often passed on to consumers in the form of lower prices.

While the benefits of improved employee health and well-being are certainly not as easy to quantify compared to organizational effectiveness, they are certainly important. Employees who are healthy, satisfied, and fulfilled in their work are likely to be more productive. The also likely to be better parents, spouses, and members of communities. Organizational psychology and organizational behavior both seek to enhance the effectiveness of organizations and the health and well-being of employees through scientific research and the application of evidence-based interventions.

## WHAT IS ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY?

This book provides students with a comprehensive treatment of the science and practice of the fields of organizational psychology and organizational behavior. In this section, we focus on the field of organizational psychology, while the field of organizational behavior will be covered in a latter section. *Organizational psychology* is defined as the scientific study of individual and group behavior in formal organizational settings. Katz and Kahn, in their classic work, *The Social Psychology of Organizations* (1978), stated that the primary defining characteristic of an organization is "patterned" human behavior. When behavior is patterned, this means that some structure is imposed on it. In organizations, this structure typically comes from formal job descriptions and organizational policies. Most organizations also have a set of values that they want employees to abide by. Thus, an organization cannot exist when people just "do their own thing" without any consideration of the behavior of others.

Given Katz and Kahn's (1978) defining characteristic of organizations (e.g., patterned behavior), it is easy to see that there are many organizations in this world. A group of 10 friends who regularly attend music concerts once a month would fit this definition, as would a major multinational corporation. Therefore, to further define the field of organizational psychology, one must first distinguish between *formal* and *informal* organizations. A formal organization is one that exists to fulfill some explicitly stated purpose, and that purpose is often stated in writing. Formal organizations also typically exhibit some degree of continuity over time; that is, they often survive far longer than the founding members do. Business organizations obviously exhibit these defining characteristics of a formal organization, as do many other nonprofit organizations and government agencies.

An informal organization is one in which the purpose is less explicit than it is for a formal organization. Going back to our previous example of the concert group, these individuals are obviously spending time together because they enjoy music and, likely, each other's company. It is doubtful,

though, that their reasons for attending concerts are formally stated in writing, or even explicitly stated. It is also doubtful (though obviously possible) whether this group would remain intact if three of the five members of this group moved to another city or simply lost interest in attending concerts.

The field of organizational psychology is concerned with the study of *formal* organizations. That is not to say that the formal organizations of interest to organizational psychologists are always business or profit-making organizations (a common misconception that we have noticed among many of our colleagues trained in other areas of psychology). Throughout the chapters in this book, many of the studies described have been conducted not only in businesses but also in government agencies, universities, and nonprofit social service agencies. In some cases, organizational researchers study "virtual" organizations where people never even interact face-to face (Shin, 2004).

Another point worth noting is that the focus on formal organizations does not preclude the study of informal organizational *processes*, or even occasionally informal groups and organizations themselves. It has been shown, for example, that informal friendship ties exist in formal organizations, and they have important implications for employees (Nielson et al., 2000). In this same vein, processes occurring within informal groups and organizations may provide researchers with valuable insights into processes that occur in formal organizations. For example, the processes associated with the development of a status hierarchy on an intramural volleyball team may help researchers better understand the emergence of leadership in formal organizations. Stated differently, the laws of human behavior often apply regardless of the context in which they occur.

Another point of clarification in the definition of organizational psychology has to do with the term psychology itself, since organizational psychology is part of this larger field. Psychology is the scientific study of individual human behavior and mental processes (Sanderson & Huffman, 2019). Two things are important to note about this definition. First, like any other psychologist, organizational psychologists use methods of scientific inquiry. This simply means that organizational psychologists use a systematic, data-based approach to studying organizational processes and solving organizational problems. The "data" used by organizational psychologists may come in a variety of forms, including survey responses, interviews, field observations, responses to laboratory tasks, and, in some cases, organizational records.

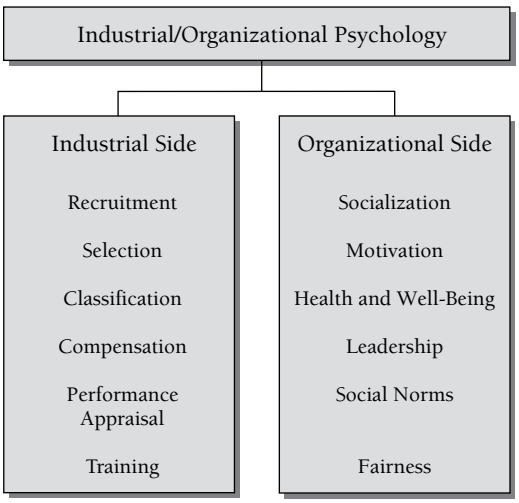
The other important part of this definition is that psychology focuses on individual behavior. This may seem a bit odd, given that significant portions of this text are devoted to group and organizational-level processes. What it means is that regardless of the level at which some process may occur, psychologists view individual behavior as central to that process (Porras & Robertson, 1992). Thus, to understand the impact of group and organizational-level variables, we must focus on how they influence, and are influenced by, individual behavior. Groups and organizations do not behave; people do. This strong focus on individual behavior also serves to distinguish organizational psychology from other social science disciplines such as sociology, economics, and political science. These fields attempt to explain organizational processes but are less focused on individual behavior.

## ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN CONTEXT

While organizational psychology represents a legitimate field of study on its own, it is also part of the broader field of industrial/organizational (I-O) psychology. I-O Psychology is defined as the application of the methods and principles of psychology to the workplace (Spector, 2021). Figure 1.1 provides a comparison of the topics that are typically of interest to those in the industrial and organizational portions of the field. Notice that the topics listed on the industrial side are those that are typically associated with the management of human resources in organizations. Contrast these with the topics on the organizational side, which are associated with the aim of understanding and predicting behavior within organizational settings.

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

FIGURE 1.1
**A Summary of the Major Topics in the Field of Industrial-Organizational Psychology**




Unfortunately, this "I" and "O" distinction obscures the considerable interdependence among the topics that constitute each of these subfields. To illustrate this point, let us say a large hotel chain wants to take steps to improve the health and safety of its housekeeping employees. To do so, this organization might conduct research to determine the major health and safety hazards facing these employees, and based on this research, develop interventions aimed at mitigating these hazards. Because employee health and safety are considered "O" topics (see Chapter 7), what relevance does the "I" side of the field have for the hotel chain in this example? Considering that the focus of this example is on employee health and safety, it would appear to be very little. However, if you stop and think about it, industrial psychology topics are highly relevant. For example, it is well documented that hotel housekeepers are among the lowest-paid employees in the hospitality industry (Douglass et al., 2020). Therefore, even if this organization takes the necessary steps to mitigate health and safety hazards, these employees may lack the financial resources to afford adequate health care. In addition, a key part of mitigating health and safety hazards is often training supervisors to recognize such hazards and encouraging their employees to report them (Sinclair et al., 2020). As this example illustrates, the health and safety of employees depend not only on designing healthy and safe workplaces but also paying adequate wages and providing proper training to supervisors—both important industrial psychology topics.

This point can also be illustrated by taking an "I" topic and describing the relevance of the "O" side of the field. Let us say a long-term care facility is interested in improving retention among its nursing staff. Fortunately, in industrial psychology,

**IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERS 1.1**

MONEY'S NOT EVERYTHING—SALARY AND RETENTION

When someone makes a job change, we often assume that this decision is primarily driven by the desire to increase one's salary. While that is certainly true in some cases, many years of research on turnover and retention suggest that retaining employees is far more complicated than simply offering them large salaries and generous benefit packages.

Decades of research suggests that the decision to change jobs is a complex process that involves numerous considerations. It has been well-established, for example, that dissatisfaction with one's job and a lack of commitment to one's employer are often important precursors to the decision to terminate one's employment. Research, however, has shown that people are also pragmatic when they are considering quitting their jobs since they are more likely to do so when there are other employment opportunities available.

What role, then, does salary play in the turnover and retention process? Research suggests that *contingent rewards* are an important consideration in the turnover process. What this means is that when employees feel like their salary increases are linked to their levels of performance, they are more likely to stay in their present jobs. Conversely, when employees feel like salary increases are not linked to their performance, they are likely to seek an employer who will do so.

These findings suggest that organizations have a multitude of options when it comes to retaining employees, since there are many ways to improve job satisfaction and increase commitment (see Chapter 8). They also imply that *how* employees are rewarded is important and highlight the importance of recognizing good performers.

*Source:* Griffeth et al. (2000).

there is a considerable amount of research on predicting employee turnover and this facility could draw on this research to design interventions aimed at increasing retention (e.g., Griffeth et al., 2000). Can issues that are relevant to the "O" side of the field be ignored? Absolutely not. Although it is true that employee retention may be impacted by several characteristics of applicants that can be screened prior to employment (e.g., prior employment history), conditions on the job do contribute to employee retention (Steiner et al., 2020). Thus, regardless of the steps this facility might take to select nurses who are most likely to stay or take steps to design competitive and fair compensation systems, the social environment of their facility will be a major contributing factor driving turnover (see Implications for Managers 1.1). Stress, including stress resulting from interpersonal mistreatment, is a major topic on the "O" side of the field.

## WHAT IS ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR?

Having defined organizational psychology and examined how it fits within the broader field of Industrial-Organizational psychology, we now do the same for field of Organizational Behavior. Uhl-Bien et al. (2020), define organizational behavior as "The study of human behavior in organizations, focusing on teams, interpersonal processes, and organizational structures"

(p. 2). Based on this definition alone, it is almost indistinguishable from organizational psychology. However, Uhl-Bein et al. further state that "It is an interdisciplinary body of research with strong ties to the behavioral sciences—psychology, sociology, and anthropology—as well as other social sciences such as economics and political science" (p. 2). This second part of the definition provides a clue to what is perhaps the most meaningful distinctions between the two fields. While organizational psychology is strongly tied to the methods and theories of psychology, the field of organizational behavior is more theoretically eclectic.

Given this difference between the two fields, a logical question to answer is: Does it matter? In short, yes it does matter. As discussed in the previous section, organizational psychology is grounded in the broader field of psychology and therefore not only has implications for training but also places limitations on the theories and methods used to study organizations. Most training in organizational psychology takes place in departments of psychology, and theories guiding most research in organizational psychology come from psychology. Training in organizational behavior typically takes place in departments of management, which are typically located within business schools. Also, since it is less strongly tied to any broader field of study, theories guiding research in organizational behavior tend to come from a wider variety of disciplines.

Despite the differences between the two fields, there are strong reasons to believe that as time goes by those differences will continue to narrow even further. For example, researchers trained in both fields belong to the same professional organizations, publish in many of the same journals, and many of the brightest scholars trained in I-O Psychology (the broader field of which organizational psychology is part of) have chosen to work in business schools due to more attractive salaries (Aguinis et al., 2014).

## ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR IN CONTEXT

Just as organizational psychology exists within the broader field of I-O Psychology, and even broader field of psychology, organizational behavior exists within a broader context. However, compared to organizational psychology, it is a little less clear what exactly that broader context is. As stated earlier, most doctoral programs in organizational behavior are housed in departments of management, which are housed in schools of business. Given that, it would seem quite reasonable to consider organizational behavior as a sub-field of management. While there is considerable variability in the sub-fields represented in departments of management, most have the following sub-fields in addition to organizational behavior: *Human Resource Management*, *Strategic Management*, and *Entrepreneurship*. Each of these is defined below and shown how it is related to organizational behavior.

The field of *Human Resource Management* is identical to the Industrial side of the field of I-O Psychology. That is, the focus is on HR functions such as selection, learning and development, performance appraisal, compensation and benefits, labor relations, managing diversity equity and inclusion, and managing work-life programs. The one difference, albeit a subtle one, is that Human Resource Management programs, especially at the master's level, are focused on training future human resource managers as opposed to future organizational researchers. However, like doctoral programs in I-O Psychology, some doctoral programs in Human Research Management

are focused on training future researchers and academicians. As far as the relationship between Human Resource Management and Organizational Behavior, the examples provided in discussing the Industrial and Organizational sides of the broader field of I-O Psychology apply—just substitute Human Resource Management for Industrial and Organizational Behavior for Organizational Psychology.

*Strategic Management* is a sub-field of management that is focused on understanding the managerial and organizational determinants of firm-level outcomes. It includes the study of strategic decision-making by organizational leaders and how these decisions increase organizational effectiveness, and in the case of publicly traded organizations, increase shareholder wealth. Some common examples of strategic decision-making include decisions to consider entering new markets by acquiring other organizations, expanding an organization's strategic focus to become more eco-conscious, and merging with another organization to create synergies and economies of scale.

Organizational behavior is certainly related strategic management, and vice versa. When an organization acquires another organization, there are often exceedingly difficult issues merging two distinct organizational cultures, so this must be considered before making the decision to pursue an acquisition and then managed post-decision. A strategic decision made by an organization may itself impact the social environment within an organization. For example, an organization that chooses to create a competitive advantage by being very customer-focused will have a vastly different social environment than one that is more results oriented and competitive. The bottom line is that strategy impacts behavior, and behavior impacts strategy.

*Entrepreneurship* is another sub-field of management that is focused on the dynamics of entrepreneurial activity—that is, how people turn ideas into new business ventures. Given that approximately half of start-up businesses fail within 5 years (U.S. Small Business Administration, 2021), it is important to understand what drives new venture development, what business models are most effective for various kinds of ventures, what common pitfalls exist and how to overcome them, etc. By developing a better understanding of this process, entrepreneurs can gain knowledge of strategies that can help new ventures become successful.

Although there are many things that go into starting new businesses such as raising capital or finding physical space, the behavior, attitudes, and personality characteristics of entrepreneurs are important. Thus, organizational behavior and entrepreneurship are certainly interrelated. As an example, organizational behaviors researchers have studied the creative process extensively (see Chapter 14) and the findings of such research have contributed to a greater understanding of entrepreneurial activity. Studies have also been done on the *effects* of new venture development on entrepreneur health and well-being (Williamson et al., 2021) and on the effects of employment status (e.g., self-employment) on the experience of stress and work-family conflict (Prottas & Thompson, 2006). Such studies certainly contribute to the more general understanding of the health and well-being of workers in all types of employment situations, from entrepreneurial ventures to employment in public and private organization.

As was evident in our coverage of organizational psychology and organizational behavior, there is considerable overlap in these two fields. Given this overlap,

throughout this book, we refer to those trained in both fields collectively as "organizational researchers" rather than organizational psychologists or organizational behavior specialists. We do, however, occasionally refer to the *fields* separately.

## THE SCIENTIST-PRACTITIONER APPROACH

Both organizational psychology and organizational behavior are scientific disciplines. Because of that, much of the content of this book is based on scientific studies of behavior. Both fields, however, are also concerned with the *application* of scientific knowledge to enhance the effectiveness of individual employees, work groups, and entire organizations. The *scientist-practitioner model* captures this dynamic interaction between generating scientific knowledge and the application of that knowledge for some practical purpose. At a general level, the scientist-practitioner model states that science and practice are not independent and, in fact, often "feed off" each other.

To illustrate how the scientist-practitioner model works, let us say the branch manager of a bank wants to improve the level of customer service provided to the bank's customers. Fortunately, this individual can draw on the findings of many scientific investigations of customer service to guide his or her efforts to improve it (e.g., Schneider et al., 1998). Conversely, scientific investigations of organizational phenomena are often motivated by the practical concerns of organizations. For example, starting in 2020, there was a considerable rise in research investigating the impact of virtual work due to the COVID-19 pandemic (Karl et al., 2021). Although such research is certainly useful from a purely scientific perspective, it is particularly important for practical reasons, too. Because virtual work may become permanent for many organizations, managers need to understand how to make such working arrangements work successfully (see Translating the Science 1.1).

Within the broader fields of I-O Psychology and Management, the scientist-practitioner

**TRANSLATING THE SCIENCE 1.1**

MAKING VIRTUAL MEETINGS MORE EFFECTIVE

While most of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic are thankfully behind us, one thing that has become permanent in many workplaces is virtual work meetings. Many organizations that initially pivoted to virtual work during this period never went back to face-to-face work arrangement, and others simply got used to the convenience of virtual meetings even though most work operations went back to normal.

Researchers at the University of Tennessee Chattanooga and Linwood University (MO) conducted a descriptive study of things that employees like and dislike about virtual meetings by analyzing 549 comments about virtual meetings posted on LinkedIn. Based on a qualitative analysis of these comments, the researchers identified six themes that suggest ways in which virtual meetings can be improved:

1. *Camera on versus off—Lurking.* Many participants expressed dissatisfaction with meeting participants who left their

cameras off. This suggests the need to specify up front whether cameras are required to be on.

2. *Meeting management issues*. These included things such as a lack of an agenda, participants showing up late, too many meetings, back-to-back meetings. While the increased use of videoconferencing highlighted these issues, they were (and are) issues regardless of whether meetings are virtual or face-to-face. Good meeting management is important regardless of the format.
3. *Camera issues*. These comments reflected technical issues with cameras, as well as things such as poor positioning and lighting. When virtual meetings first became widespread many organizations provided training on the use of video conference, but this suggests that ongoing training is still needed.
4. *Eating during meetings*. Many participants expressed irritation and disgust with co-workers who ate on camera during meetings or turned off their cameras to do so. To be fair, meetings are sometimes scheduled back-to-back-to-back so people may not have any other time to eat. However, it is probably a good idea to have ground rules about eating or avoid scheduling meetings during mealtimes.
5. *Microphone issues*. Participants reported frustration with colleagues who failed to mute themselves, and as result, the meeting was disrupted by unwanted noises of conversations. This can be avoided by specifying meeting grounds rule up front—muting when not talking, making sure one's microphone works, etc.
6. *Work-from-home issues*. One of the wonderful things about employees' extensive use of video conferencing from home is that it provides a glimpse into the nonwork lives of co-workers. Many participants, however, reported that noise from other family members and pets can also be distracting. This can often be a complicated issue, especially in households where more than one person works virtually. However, meeting participants working from home should be encouraged to find a space free from noise and other distractions.

It is also worth mentioning that there are several positive aspects of virtual meetings such as ease of scheduling, a wider range of participants can be invited, and meetings can be recorded and viewed later if participants cannot attend. This study, however, shows that we still have a long way to go before virtual meetings are completely equivalent to face-to-face meetings. Fortunately, though, there are several simple things managers can do to increase their effectiveness.

*Source:* Karl et al. (2021).

model has become so important that it serves as the underlying philosophy for many if not most graduate training programs. Graduate training guided by the scientist-practitioner model suggests that primarily, students need to learn the skills necessary to conduct scientific research. This explains why virtually all graduate programs in I-O Psychology and OB require training in statistics, research methodology, and in many cases psychological measurement. The other important implication of

the scientist-practitioner model in graduate training in both fields is that students are typically provided with some opportunity, through internships, practicum placements, or other field experiences, to apply what they have learned in "real-world" settings (see Comment 1.1).

The impact of the scientist–practitioner model can also be seen in the work settings and activities of those trained in organizational psychology and organizational behavior. Many hold faculty positions in universities—typically, in departments of psychology or management. The primary job duties of most academicians are teaching, scientific research, and service to one's academic department, university, and profession. However, many in academia also use their research skills to help organizations solve a variety of practical problems. As illustrated in Comment 1.2, the careers of the authors of this text have certainly contained this blend of science and practice.

Training for those in both fields who choose to pursue an academic careers is not drastically different from the training of those who pursue nonacademic careers. Consistent with the scientist–practitioner model, students who are enrolled in a graduate program in I-O Psychology or a program in

**COMMENT 1.1**

TRAINING SCIENTIST-PRACTITIONERS: THE ROLE OF PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE

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

The major benefit of students participating in field experiences is that they gain a chance to put what they've learned in their courses into practice in a real organization. Students also benefit in a more subtle way: They develop a greater understanding of how the "real world" works. For example, students working on field projects are often surprised at how quickly organizations want things done, as well as the importance of building positive interpersonal relationships with "clients" in organizations. Many students are also surprised that their methodological and statistical training comes in quite handy as they work on these field projects.

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

## COMMENT 1.2

### SCIENCE AND PRACTICE IN OUR OWN CAREERS

**Steve Jex**: When I reflect on my own career, the science-practice theme is very evident. Since receiving my Ph.D. in industrial-organizational psychology in 1988, I have carried on an active program of research and scholarship in occupational stress. Thus, a good deal of what I do centers around scientific research and scholarship. However, in addition to my scholarly pursuits, I have conducted several projects in organizations that have been designed to solve practical problems. While on the faculty at Bowling Green State University, I worked on a project funded by the Ohio Bureau of Worker's Compensation that was focused on decreasing injuries among nursing aides at long-term care facilities in Ohio. Since relocating to the University of Central Florida in 2017, I have become involved in a project funded by the National Institute for Occupational Safety (NIOSH) that is focused on the development and evaluation of interventions designed to improve the health and safety of hospitality workers. In addition to these large projects, over the past 33 years I have worked with several organizations on several smaller applied research projects and occasionally the development of training programs.

What have I learned from working on projects involving the application of research in real organizations? Probably most important, I have developed a great deal of respect for those who do applied work on a full-time basis. As I stated earlier, I am primarily a researcher/author, but the applied projects I have done over the years have convinced me that applying research findings in organizational settings is tough work that often requires a very broad skill set. Another thing I have learned is that good science has practical value; that is, when projects in organizations are conducted in a scientifically rigorous manner, organizations typically obtain much more useful information than when they are not. I also think that managers in organizations have come to recognize this. In our work with the hospitality industry, we have enjoyed tremendous support from managers of some of the largest hotels in the Orlando area largely because they see the benefit of scientifically based solutions to employee health and safety problems.

**Thomas Britt**: The further into my career I get, the more I realize the importance of the scientist-practitioner model. I received my Ph.D. in social psychology in 1994, and then immediately started active duty in the U.S. Army as a research psychologist. I quickly realized that the Army was not necessarily interested in the identity regulation of romantic partners (the topic of my doctoral dissertation) but was interested in how soldiers could be motivated to perform well during stressful military operations. Therefore, I tried to conduct applied research "in the field" that met my own (and journal reviewer's) standards for scientific rigor. I ended up having a great experience in the Army conducting research on how the identity images of soldiers as "warriors" and "peacekeepers" influenced motivation and health in different types of operations, how being personally engaged in work could serve as a buffer against many deployment stressors, and how soldiers could possibly derive benefits such as increased self-confidence and appreciation for life as a result of successfully handling the rigors of military operations.

Somewhat to my surprise, I also enjoyed communicating the importance of research findings to military leaders and thinking about the applied relevance of the research

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I conducted. I found that leaders were much more likely to take recommendations to heart when they were backed by data collected using a sound research design. I also found that leaders in applied settings appreciated the utility of a well-supported theory in making sense of the findings. Like Steve, I was impressed with how leaders were willing to devote the time and attention necessary to understand the implications of scientific research for the well-being and performance of their personnel. I find myself being guided by the scientist-practitioner model even more as I conduct programs of research on the factors that promote resilience to high-intensity work stressors among military personnel and emergency medicine clinicians.

**Cynthia Thompson**: My first taste of research was as an undergraduate student at Florida State University. My mentor, Mike Flanagan, guided me in designing a laboratory experiment involving undergraduate students. We were investigating the relationship between task interdependence (pooled, sequential, and reciprocal), role ambiguity, and what we called "job conception adequacy." The idea was to test some of the findings of a classic field study on stress by Kahn et al. (1964). Experiments using undergraduate students are often avoided due to concerns about lack of generalizability, but if well designed, they provide an important piece of the puzzle we are trying to understand. This lab experiment shaped my thinking about the importance of multiple research strategies to fully understand a phenomenon of interest. I began conducting survey research in graduate school and beyond, using large samples and multiple sources of data, to scientifically study work-family stress and interrole conflict. I was honored when co-author Tom Britt invited me to participate in a symposium on strong research designs in work-family research at the 23rd Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology in San Francisco in 2008.

Most of my career as an academic has focused on examining work-family culture in organizations, beginning with an article I published with co-authors Laura Beauvais and Karen Lyness in 1999. In the article, we defined the construct of "work-family culture" and described a scale we developed to measure this construct. The scale has been used by researchers around the world as well as practitioners and consultants interested in assessing how supportive a work culture is for employee work–life balance and well-being. My underlying motivation throughout my research has been to deepen our understanding of employee well-being and how organizations can impact it in a positive way. While I have focused on the "scientist" side of the scientist-practitioner model for much of my career, it is gratifying to see management consultants and human resource practitioners appreciate and use our empirically developed measure of a construct that is important to employee well-being. It is rewarding to see my work cited in practitioner journals and to be invited to consult about work-life stress in organizations. One consulting engagement, for example, involved digging into the research literature on employee well-being to develop an action plan for the organization to help improve employee satisfaction and reduce turnover. Other consulting engagements have involved creating a leadership development program for a municipal credit union, conducting a work–life practice benchmarking study for a financial service company, and developing a 360° feedback instrument for information systems executives at a large financial company. Like Steve and Tom, I love the opportunity to do meaningful research that has practical value for organizations and employees alike.

organizational behavior typically receive coursework in research methodology, statistics, and measurement, as well as in specific content areas (e.g., motivation, leadership, employee socialization, and organizational culture). It is also common for all students, regardless of their career plans, to conduct research and obtain practical experience in some form.

There are, however, some important components that future academicians typically need to incorporate into their graduate training that are not as crucial for those planning to pursue applied careers. For example, students planning to pursue an academic career need to become involved in research early in their graduate training and continue that involvement until they are finished with their degrees. This increases their chances of gaining authorship on journal articles, book chapters, and conference presentations—all of which help in a highly competitive job market. Research involvement also facilitates the development of close working relationships with faculty. These relationships are crucial in learning how to do research.

Another essential component of the training of future academicians is teaching experience. Although the emphasis placed on teaching varies according to the type of academic institution, teaching is still a key component of any academic position, and all colleges and universities are looking for good teachers. Thus, graduate students who obtain significant teaching experience are much better prepared for academic positions than those with little or no experience. Also, given contemporary trends in the academic job market (Woolston, 2021), it is becoming more common for new Ph.D.'s to become employed in smaller colleges and universities that traditionally have placed a higher value on teaching effectiveness compared to large research-intensive institutions.

Typical nonacademic employment settings for those trained in organizational psychology and organizational behavior include business organizations, consulting firms, nonprofit research institutes, government agencies and research institutes, and even market research firms. Although actual job duties vary widely by setting, many employed in nonacademic settings are involved in organizational change and development activities, and forms of organizational assessment including job satisfaction and employee engagement surveys. Specific job activities might include assisting an organization in the development and implementation of an employee opinion survey program; designing and facilitating the implementation of team development activities; or even assisting top management with the strategic planning process. (For a summary of careers in organizational psychology and organizational behavior, see Comment 1.3.)

The other major activity of those employed in nonacademic settings is *research*. This is particularly true of those employed in nonprofit research institutes, government research institutes, and even some corporations. Given the diversity of these settings, it is difficult to pin down the exact nature of the research that is conducted. However, in the most general sense, these individuals conduct scientific research that is designed to have some practical benefit to the organization or even to society in general. Two of the authors of this book (Steve Jex and Thomas Britt), for example, have conducted research to help the Army better understand how soldiers cope with stressors (e.g., Britt et al., 2017; Jex et al., 2001). The other author (Cynthia Thompson) has conducted research to help a large consulting firm develop strategies for improving the well-being of its employees. In this

**COMMENT 1.3**

CAREERS IN ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

While the fields of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior have both produced very worthwhile scientific findings, it is also important to consider career options in both fields. Given their similarity, the career options for those trained in both fields are quite similar.

One option for those trained in both fields is teaching at universities, although there is considerable variety in the types of academic positions available to those with both forms of training. Typically, the most coveted academic positions are those at large research universities, which often have doctoral programs in both fields. These positions typically offer the largest salaries, lowest teaching loads, and opportunities to collaborate with highly productive colleagues. Research universities also have exceedingly lofty standards for tenure and promotion, which typically come in the form of publications in top-tier journals and success in grant funding. For those who do not prefer large research universities, there are many other forms of academic employment ranging from mid-sized universities that offer only master's programs to small liberal arts colleges. In most cases, these institutions pay less than research universities, and have higher teaching loads, yet have less stringent requirements for research productivity.

For those who prefer employment outside of academic, a myriad of options are available. In general, non-academic employment settings in Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior tend to be in corporations, consulting firms, government agencies, and research institutes. The work activities of those employed in corporations and consulting firms tend to focus on scientifically based practice and often involve employee selection, training program design and evaluation, development of performance appraisal systems, organizational change and development, and organizational culture assessment. The work activities of those employed in government agencies and research institutes may involve many of these same activities, but most often those settings are focused more on research activities. Of course, there are also those who choose not to work in any formal employment setting and become independent consultants.

How does one choose between all the options available? There is certainly no easy answer to this question; however, one's choice of career depends on what you value. Those who pursue academic careers typically place a high value on intellectual freedom, having autonomy over their time, and being able to mentor others. Conversely, those who pursue non-academic careers typically place a high value in seeing research put into action, enjoy the variety that often comes with practitioner roles, and value the higher levels of compensation in non-academic positions.

*Source:* http://siop/org/career-center/job-search;

chapter's Practitioner Spotlight, we feature Dr. Wheeler H. Nakahara, a recent Ph.D. graduate who is pursuing a non-academic career with a Fortune 500 company that requires highly developed research skills.

To prepare for a nonacademic career, graduate students need training in most of the same areas as those pursuing academic careers. These include courses in research methodology, statistics, measurement, and

## PRACITIONER SPOTLIGHT

DR. WHEELER H. NAKAHARA

Early on in college, I thought I wanted to be a Clinical psychologist or psychiatrist, motivated by a passion to help improve the lives of others. However, through my classes and some work experiences, I realized this career path was not a good fit for me. Yet, I still wanted to pursue a career that held at its core a value for improving the lives of people. Like many I-O Psychology professionals, I stumbled upon I-O Psychology during undergrad. I was a Junior Psychology major thinking about my future career prospects with Senior year approaching. Fortunately, I was able to get an opportunity as a research assistant in an I-O Psychology lab at Texas A&M.

As an undergraduate research assistant, I was exposed to a whole new world of Psychology. Throughout our lives, we spend much of our time at work. We can all think about poor work practices, negative interactions with colleagues and bosses, and organizational cultures that have shaped our well-being, attitudes, and behaviors in and out of work. I learned more about those topics—and many more—through the graduate students and professors who mentored me. I gained even more experience my Senior year by attending research conferences. Through these opportunities, I knew that I wanted to pursue a career in I-O Psychology. Ultimately, I applied, and was later accepted, to the University of Central Florida's (UCF) Ph.D. program to continue my education. I greatly enjoyed the depth of knowledge I learned about theories related to Organizational Psychology and the opportunity to contribute to the field. Eventually, like many graduate students, I was faced with the decision to pursue a career in academia or a role as a practitioner. Both paths improve the work experience of employees; however, I found myself most fulfilled when I was applying our strong background in theory and research to work problems through consulting projects at UCF.

Toward the end of my time at UCF, I applied to a consulting challenge at Procter & Gamble (P&G), which eventually turned into an internship opportunity working in an HR analytics role. As an intern, I was immediately given impactful work. I had the privilege of working on the team that distributed and analyzed our annual survey and presented findings to leaders in the organization to inform business practices. After the internship, I continued in this role, which now involves partnering with our Equality & Inclusion team to translate findings from survey data to help P&G foster an inclusive working environment. In addition, my work in HR analytics involves conducting internal research projects about the work experience of employees.

In thinking about how my training and education as an I-O Psychology professional prepared and led me to my career, it is easy to

(*continued*)

(*continued*)

talk about the strong background in research design and theory. However, this all stems from the importance that I-O Psychology places on empirically based decision-making (by now I am sure you have read about the Scientist-Practitioner Model). One must look at findings with an impartial eye and evaluate the quality of data and research design when considering the theoretical inferences that can be made from a study. In practice, this involves understanding what can be honestly inferred and implied from analyses to inform business practices and decisions.

I also want to circle back to my motivation to pursue a career in I-O Psychology. I've always been driven to pursue a career in Psychology that aims to improve the lives of others. Throughout my training, my mentors have always emphasized how I-O Psychology places the highest importance on improving organizations by putting employees first. This is a value that continues to motivate and guide me in my work. Together, the technical skills learned in graduate school and keeping in mind the underlying values and philosophy of I-O Psychology have been critical in my, albeit "young," career as an I-O Psychology practitioner.

Dr. Wheeler H. Nakahara is a Senior Manager-Analytics Leader at Proctor & Gamble (P&G). He is responsible for analytics on topics related to diversity, equity, and inclusion and other internal research projects. He also supports some of the large-scale employee surveys at P&G. He received his Ph.D. in I-O Psychology from the University of Central Florida in 2023.

several substantive topical areas. Compared to those seeking academic employment, however, it is more essential for students planning nonacademic careers to obtain practical experience during their graduate training. This experience can often be gained by assisting faculty with consulting projects, or through formal internship programs (see Comment 1.4). Obtaining practical experience is crucial not only because it enhances a student's credentials, but because it provides valuable opportunities to apply what has been learned in graduate courses.

So how does a student decide on which career path they want to pursue? Given that PhD students are highly capable and motivated, most typically have the option of pursuing academic or nonacademic employment so this decision hinges on what students enjoy and value. In our experience, academic employment is typically favored by students who enjoy teaching and have developed a very well-defined set of research interests. Academia is also well-suited for those who enjoy a great deal of autonomy and control over their time as opposed to a great deal of structure.

In contrast, nonacademic careers are typically favored by students who really enjoy working in organizational settings and seeing organizational research applied in a meaningful way. Applied careers are also well-suited to those who desire a little more structure because those in applied settings typically have less freedom to decide what they work on; those decisions are usually determined by external factors such as client needs, government funding, and top management preference. Another factor that often determines the choice of one's career path and one that we do not talk about a lot, is the reality of the job market (see Comment 1.5).

**COMMENT 1.4**

GAINING PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE: UNIVERSITY-BASED APPLIED RESEARCH AND CONSULTING FIRMS

While there are many avenues for graduate students in organizational psychology and organization behavior to obtain practical experience, a trend in both fields over the past 30 years has been to establish university-based applied research and consulting firms.

The basic model underlying these firms is that teams of graduate students, usually supervised by a faculty member, work on applied research and consulting projects for organizations and the organization pays a fee. Two examples of well-established university-based applied research and consulting firms in Psychology Departments, where graduate programs in I-O Psychology are housed, are the Institute for Psychological Research and Application (IPRA) at Bowling Green State University, and the Center for Organizational Research (COR) at the University of Akron.

In many Business Schools, where graduate programs in Organizational Behavior are housed, centers and institutes have also been created to provide graduate students with opportunities to gain practical experience. However, these are often not housed in Departments of Management, but rather exist at the College level. Two examples of well-established university-based applied research and consulting firms based in Business Schools include the Human Resources Institute at the Culverhouse School of Business, University of Alabama, and the Sager Leadership Center at the Ross School of Business, University of Michigan.

The obvious benefit of university-based applied research and consulting firms is that they provide graduate students with the opportunity to apply what they have learned in their courses to organizational settings. They also provide organizations the opportunity to obtain services for fees quite reasonable in comparison to large consulting companies.

Despite these benefits, operating a university-based applied research and consulting firm can be challenging. Many universities, particularly those that bring in large federal grants, are often unfamiliar with the "fee for service" contracts that are typical in the consulting world. Also, for some graduate programs, it can be difficult to find faculty to lead consulting projects, and when faculty do lead these projects, determining how to compensate their time can be a dilemma. Despite these challenges, university-based applied research and consulting firms have and continue to be an important part of the training of many practitioners in I-O Psychology and Organizational Behavior.

## HISTORICAL INFLUENCES ON ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Compared to many other scientific disciplines, organizational psychology and organizational behavior are incredibly young. In fact, both fields are just a little more than one hundred years old. Because much has been written about the history of the broader field of I-O Psychology (Koppes, 1997; Vinchur & Koppes, 2011; Dipboye, 2018), and much of this applies to the field of organizational behavior, we do not attempt to provide separate accounts of the historical beginnings of both fields. In addition, our intent is not to

**COMMENT 1.5**

REALITIES OF THE POST-COVID JOB MARKET

As many readers know all too well, a stagnant economy due largely to the COVID-19 pandemic led to high levels of unemployment in the United States and many other countries, and these trends certainly have impacted those in the fields of organizational psychology and organizational behavior. While the overall job market has recovered somewhat from the COVID days, both the academic and non-academic job markets for those trained in organizational psychology and organizational behavior still remain impacted. On balance, though, academia has been hit harder. Universities are under pressure to cut costs, and also to keep the cost of tuition at moderate levels to make higher education affordable. Also, at many institutions enrollments have dropped due to demographic changes in the population.

So how does the reality of the current post-COVID job market impact graduate students' choice of careers? What we have *not* seen, and frankly don't expect to see, is graduate students in either field completely rejecting a particular career path altogether based solely on the job market. Graduate students who are highly motivated to seek out a particular career path will continue to do so, regardless of these short-term fluctuations in the job market. Students who work hard, and build up impressive credentials, will always be in demand and have options.

What we have seen in recent years, however, is that many graduate students are "hedging their bets" a bit when it comes to preparing for their careers. For example, a graduate student who is pursuing an academic career may also pursue an internship or gain other applied experiences to make themselves competitive in case their academic job search is unsuccessful. Conversely, students pursuing non-academic career paths may still try to publish and obtain teaching experience in case they decide to pursue an academic position. In our opinion, having a more flexible approach to career planning makes a great deal of sense, and in fact is a necessity given the current job market.

*Source:* Woolston (2021).

be comprehensive (see Dipboye, 2018 for an excellent comprehensive coverage). Rather, we provide a concise summary of people and historical events that have concurrently shaped both fields.

## Historical Beginnings

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

Based on most historical accounts of the development of the field of I-O Psychology, the industrial side of the field was much quicker to develop than the organizational

side and its close relative organizational behavior. Chronologically, the beginnings of the field of I-O Psychology can be traced to work in the United States, during the early part of the 20th century, by pioneers such as Hugo Munsterberg, Walter Dill Scott, and Walter Bingham (Dipboye, 2018; Vinchur & Koppes, 2011). The application of psychology to the workplace at that time was also beginning to occur simultaneously in Europe.

In the United States, most of the work at that time dealt with topics such as skill acquisition and personnel selection, while there was little attention given to the organizational side of the field. This was not, however, the case in other parts of the world at the beginning of the 20th century. In Great Britain, for example, H. M. Vernon, who is acknowledged as one of that country's first industrial psychologists, investigated such topics as industrial fatigue, accidents, the impact of long work hours, and worker efficiency. Fatigue of employees was also of interest to psychologists in Australia, most notably Bernard Muscion. Today most of these topics are considered part of both organizational psychology and organizational behavior and are in fact part of the emerging field of Occupational Health Psychology (see Chapter 7). Table 1.1 provides a chronological summary of some of the major events that shaped the development of the fields of

**TABLE 1.1**

**A Chronological Summary of the Major Historical Influences on the Fields of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior**

| | |
|---|---|
| Early 1900 | Development and growth of scientific management (Taylor); beginning of the scientific study of organizational structure (Weber). |
| 1920–1930s | Hawthorne Studies; growth of unionization; immigration of Kurt Lewin to the United States. |
| 1940–1950s | WWII; publication of Vitele's book *Motivation and Morale in Industry;* development of the "Human Relations" perspective; Lewin conducts "action research" projects for the Commission on Community Relations and establishes the Research Center for Group Dynamics at MIT. |
| 1960–1970s | U.S. involvement in Vietnam; Division 14 of the APA is renamed "Industrial/Organizational Psychology"; "multilevel" perspective in organizational psychology; increasing attention to nontraditional topics such as stress, work-family conflict, and retirement. |
| 1980–1990s | Increasing globalization of the economy; changing workforce demographics; increasing reliance on temporary or contingent employees; redefining the concept of a "job." |
| 2000–2010 | Advances in communication technology; continued increases in globalization; greater flexibility in work arrangements, with boundaries between "work" and "nonwork" less clear. |
| 2010–2016 | Greater focus on the retirement process due to the rapid aging; increased ethnic diversity of the world population; new focus on emergency preparedness in post 9/11 world; even greater advances in communication technology; resurgence of research on unemployment and job insecurity after 2008 recession; ever more increasing globalization; increasing concerns over climate change. |
| 2016–Beyond | Trump presidency; Worldwide COVID-19 Pandemic; death of George Floyd sparked heightened focus on racial inequality and social justice; Increasing use of virtual work and videoconferencing technology; Biden presidency. |

organizational psychology and organizational behavior in the 20th century and continuing to the 21st century.

Surprisingly, the beginnings of the study of behavior in organizations were heavily influenced by the work of several non-psychologists. The best known of these was Frederick Winslow Taylor, who developed the principles of *scientific management* (Taylor, 1911). Although for many, the term *scientific management* typically conjures up images of time-and-motion study, as well as piece-rate compensation, it was much more than that. Scientific management was, to a considerable extent, a philosophy of management, and efficiency and piece-rate compensation were the most visible manifestations of that philosophy. When one looks past these more visible aspects of scientific management, three underlying principles emerge: (1) those who perform work tasks should be separate from those who design work tasks; (2) workers are rational beings, and they will work harder if provided with favorable economic incentives; and (3) problems in the workplace can and should be subjected to empirical study.

In considering the underlying principles of scientific management described earlier, the first principle is certainly contrary to much of the thinking in the fields of organizational psychology and organizational behavior today. Both fields, in fact, have strongly recommended that employees be involved in decisions impacting the design of their work (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1980). The second principle, namely that employees will respond to financial incentives, has received considerable support over the years (Jenkins et al., 1998; Locke, 1982). Researchers in both fields, however, do not believe that financial incentives will completely compensate for extremely dull and repetitive work—something that is a core assumption of scientific management. The third principle, empirical study, has been fully embraced by both organizational psychology and organizational behavior and is clearly the one that links these two fields with scientific management. It is also worth noting that by employing scientific methodology to study production-related processes, Taylor was ahead of his time and is considered a pioneer by some. (Most of his studies dealt with cutting sheet metal.) According to Dipboye (2018), however, it is important to note that the use of systematic data collection does not in and of itself make Taylor's approach a science. That is, Taylor's work was not driven by any theoretical framework. Despite the widespread impact of scientific management, many of Taylor's ideas were met with a great deal of controversy (see Comment 1.6).

Other non-psychologists who made especially important contributions to the initial development of both organizational psychology and organizational behavior were Max Weber, Frederic Engels, and Karl Marx. Weber's academic training was in law and history, but his legacy is in the field of organizational design. Weber is best known for his development of the notion of "bureaucracy" as an organizing principle. The basic idea of a bureaucratic organization is that employees know exactly what they are supposed to be doing, and the lines of authority are clearly stated. Another major principle of bureaucracy is that advancement and rewards should be based on merit and not on things such as nepotism or social class.

Frederic Engels, who was from Germany, published the book *The Condition of the Working Class in England* in 1845. In this book, Engels described in detail the mental and physical health problems suffered by

**COMMENT 1.6**

FREDERICK WINSLOW TAYLOR: FATHER OF SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

Frederick Winslow Taylor was born in 1856 in Germantown, Pennsylvania, a suburb of Philadelphia. Taylor was the son of affluent parents and spent a great deal of his childhood traveling in Europe. Perhaps the biggest turning point in Taylor's life came when, at the age of 18, he turned down the opportunity to study at Harvard, and instead accepted a position as an apprentice at the Enterprise Hydraulic Works in Philadelphia. Taylor worked there for 2 years before moving to Midvale Steel. He prospered at Midvale, working his way up to the supervisory ranks by the age of 24. It was during his time at Midvale that Taylor developed an interest in work methods and procedures—an interest that would lead to the famous pig iron experiments and ultimately to the development of scientific management.

The impact of scientific management during the early part of the 20th century cannot be overstated. Most manufacturing was designed according to scientific management principles; in some cases, even white-collar jobs had elements of this approach. For Taylor, the emergence of scientific management meant a great deal of professional success and notoriety. Taylor eventually left Midvale, worked for several other organizations, and ultimately went out on his own and became one of the first management consultants. Many organizations contracted with Taylor to help them implement scientific management principles.

Despite these successes, Taylor's later years were not happy. Taylor's wife, Louise, suffered from chronic ill health, and Taylor himself was ill a great deal. In addition, scientific management came under fire, primarily due to the charge that it was inhumane to workers. In fact, this controversy became so great that, in 1912, Taylor was forced to testify before a congressional committee investigating the human implications of scientific management. This controversy took a toll on Taylor, both mentally and physically. He died in 1915 at the age of 59.

Regardless of the controversy that surrounded Taylor's principles of scientific management, there is no denying its impact. The impact of Taylor was not so much in the principles he espoused, but in the methods that he used to develop those principles. By using data to solve work-related problems, Taylor pioneered an approach that has become a major part of modern organizational psychology and organizational behavior.

*Source:* Kanigel (1997).

many workers in trade occupations. Engels believed that the causes of these problems could be traced to not only physical conditions within the workplace, but also the design of work and the social conditions present in the workplace. Today, considerable work in both organizational psychologist and organizational behavior focuses on both topics (Barling & Griffiths, 2011).

Karl Marx, who is likely known to most readers, wrote *Das Kapital* in 1867, where he described the ways in which industrial capitalism exploited employees, and described how workers became alienated under this system. Although Marx is typically associated with the political ideology of *socialism,* he was influential in the development of organizational psychology

and organizational behavior because of his emphasis on the needs of employees as opposed to management. This is not to say that organizational psychology is "anti-capitalism" or "anti-management" by any means; rather, we mention Marx simply to make the point that much of the research in organizational psychology and organizational behavior is "worker-focused," and does not merely view employees as a means of production. In fact, both fields developed as a *reaction* to this point of view.

## The Field Takes Shape

Despite the early work of Taylor, and the influences of those such as Weber, Engels, Marx, and others, most of the effort in "Industrial" psychology in the early 20th century was focused on what was described earlier as industrial topics. The major event that changed that—an event many see as the beginning of both organizational psychology and organizational behavior—was the Hawthorne studies. The Hawthorne studies, a collaborative effort between the Western Electric Company and a group of researchers from Harvard University, took place between 1927 and 1932 (Mayo, 1933; Whitehead, 1935, 1938). The original purpose of the Hawthorne studies was to investigate the impact of environmental factors—such as illumination, wage incentives, and rest pauses—on employee productivity. When one considers the period in which the Hawthorne studies were initiated (early 1920s), it is not surprising that these topics were investigated because scientific management was the dominant school of managerial thought at the time.

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

The significance of the Hawthorne studies, however, goes well beyond simply demonstrating a methodological artifact. For example, in subsequent studies, Hawthorne researchers discovered that work groups established and strongly enforced production norms. The Hawthorne researchers also found that employees responded differently to distinctive styles of leadership. A lesser-known outcome of the Hawthorne studies was that it represented one of the first attempts to provide an employee counseling program (Highhouse, 1999), which was the forerunner to many current interventions designed to enhance employee well-being (see Tetrick & Winslow, 2015).

The overall implication of the Hawthorne studies, which later formed the impetus for both organizational psychology and organizational behavior, was that *social factors impact behavior in organizational settings*. This may seem a rather obvious conclusion today, but when considered in the historical context, it was a very novel and important finding. Focusing only on the specific conclusions published by the Hawthorne researchers, as well as the methodological shortcomings of this research (e.g., Bramel & Friend, 1981; Carey, 1967), misses the much larger implications of this historical research effort.

During the same period in which the Hawthorne studies took place, another important historical influence occurred: unionization. Traditionally, I-O Psychology is viewed warily by unions; however, some of the early leaders of the union movement (most notably Samuel Gompers) were supportive of the emerging field of Industrial Psychology (Zickar & Gibby, 2020). The union movement in the United States during the 1930s was important because it forced organizations to consider, for the first time, several issues that are taken for granted today. For example, topics of interest to organizational psychology and organizational behavior such as participative decision making, workplace democracy, quality of work life, and the psychological contract between employees and organizations are rooted, at least to some degree, in the union movement. Many of these issues were addressed in collective bargaining agreements in unionized organizations. Many nonunionized organizations were also forced to address these issues due to the threat of unionization.

During the period of union growth in the 1930s, another event occurred that would prove to be incredibly significant for the development of the field of organizational psychology: Kurt Lewin fled Nazi Germany and took a post at the University of Iowa Child Welfare Research Station. By the time he immigrated to the United States, Lewin was already a prominent social psychologist who had a variety of research interests, many of which were relevant to the emerging fields of organizational psychology and organizational behavior. Lewin's ideas, for example, have had a major impact in the areas of group dynamics, motivation, and leadership. Lewin's greatest contribution was his willingness to use research to solve practical problems in both organizational and community settings. The term *action research*, which is typically associated with Lewin, refers to the idea that researchers and organizations can collaborate on research and use those findings to solve problems. The scientist-practitioner model can be traced to the action research model and thus stands as one of Lewin's most important contributions to the field (see Comment 1.7).

Another important development during this time was the founding of professional organizations representing both organizational psychology and organizational behavior. The Academy of Management (AOM), which is the major professional organization for those in the field of organizational behavior, and one that many in organizational psychology affiliate with today, was started in 1936 by Professors Charles L. Jamison of the University of Michigan and William N. Mitchell of the University of Chicago (Academy of Management, n.d.). The major reason AOM was formed was to advance scholarly research in the field of management, and because of that, AOM developed into an academic, rather than a practitioner-focused, organization. Even today, AOM is much more dominated by those in academic as compared to applied settings.

Coincidentally, 1936 was also the year the American Association of Applied Psychology (AAPS) was formed (Koppes, 1997). Prior to 1936, the interests of all psychologists were represented under one umbrella organization, the American Psychological Association, and many psychologists who were instrumental in the development of the field of Industrial Psychology were prominent members of APA. There was, however, growing dissatisfaction within the ranks of APA among psychologists with applied interests (Industrial, Clinical, etc.) and that led to the formation of AAAP. AAAP reunited with APA and became Division 14, which was the precursor of what is now the

**COMMENT 1.7**

KURT LEWIN: THE PRACTICAL THEORIST

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

The years at Berlin were very productive, and Lewin's work became quite influential. At this time, Lewin began to develop an interest in the application of psychology to applied problems such as agricultural labor, production efficiency, and the design of jobs. Lewin became quite interested in scientific management, particularly the impact of this system on workers. Lewin and his family left Germany in 1933 due to the rise of the Nazi party. He initially received a temporary appointment at Cornell University, and ultimately moved to the University of Iowa Child Welfare Research Station. While at Iowa, Lewin conducted influential studies on a variety of topics, including child development, the impact of social climates, and leadership. Following his years at Iowa, Lewin became deeply involved in the Commission on Community Relations, which was established by the American Jewish Congress. During his involvement, Lewin initiated a number of "action research" projects aimed at enhancing understanding of community problems such as racial prejudice, gang violence, and integrated housing. Remarkably, during this same time, Lewin also founded the Research Center for Group Dynamics at MIT. Lewin's work at the Center continued until his death in 1947, at the age of 56.

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

*Source:* Marrow (1969).

Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP). Interestingly, there is no evidence (at least known to the present authors) that AOM and the professional organizations that led to the formation of SIOP had any meaningful interactions, even though these two organizations share many common members today.

## A Period of Growth

World War II had a tremendous impact on the growth of organizational psychology and organizational behavior. For example, due to production needs during World War II, women were needed to fill many of the positions in factories that were vacated by

the men called into military service. Also, shortly after World War II in 1948, President Harry S. Truman made the decision to pursue racial integration of the military. Both events were extremely important because they represented initial attempts to understand the impact of diversity in the workplace, a topic that has become the focus of a great deal of research interest, as well as controversy and social unrest, in recent years (see Chapter 4). World War II also served as the impetus for major studies of morale and leadership styles. Although Hollywood has portrayed a somewhat idealized version of WWII, the U.S. military experienced problems with low morale and even desertion. Thus, troop morale and the influence of leadership were issues of great practical importance during this time.

Another important event in the development of organizational psychology and organizational behavior was the publication of Morris Viteles' book *Motivation and Morale in Industry* (1953). This was significant because Viteles' 1932 book, *Industrial Psychology,* had contained little on the organizational side of the field, largely because there simply was not much to write about at that time. Thus, the 1953 book signified that the organizational side of the field (along with the field of organizational behavior) had finally "arrived" and had a significant role to play in the broader field of industrial psychology.

It was also during the post-WWII period that the *human relations perspective* emerged within the fields of both organizational psychology and organizational behavior. Those who advocated this perspective (e.g., McGregor, 1960), many of whom were in business schools, argued that the way organizations had traditionally been managed kept employees from being creative and fulfilled on the job. During this time, for example, Frederick Herzberg conducted his studies of job design and job enrichment, and major research programs investigating both leadership and job satisfaction were conducted. By the early 1960s, organizational psychology was clearly an equal partner with the industrial side of the field (Jeanneret, 1991), and the field of organizational behavior was establishing itself as a part of the training of managers in business schools.

At this same point in time, there was considerable work being done on employee health and well-being in Nordic countries such as Sweden, Norway, Finland, and Denmark (Barling & Griffiths, 2011). Notable examples from this period were Einar Thorsrud in Norway, who was exploring empowerment in work groups, and Lennart Levi at the Karolinska Institute in Stockholm, who was investigating the physiological effects of stress in the workplace. Unlike the United States, the industrial side of the field never really flourished in Nordic countries, due to the strong influence of labor unions and other cultural factors. The strong emphasis on employee health and well-being formed the foundation of what is now the field of Occupational Health Psychology (described in more detail in Chapter 7) and continues today. This field draws heavily on theories and research from both organizational psychology and organizational behavior.

Another broader social factor impacting the development of organizational psychology and organizational behavior during the 1960s and early 1970s was the U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War. This led to many cultural changes in the United States and in other countries. During this period, for example, many young people began to question conventional societal norms and the wisdom of traditional

societal institutions such as education, government, and the legal system. Many, in fact, suspected that the federal government was not truthful about many key details of the war. Subsequent accounts of the war by historians have proven that many of these suspicions were justified (e.g., Small, 1999). People at that time also began to feel as though they should have much more freedom to express themselves in a variety of ways (e.g., hairstyles, dress, and speech).

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

## Maturity and Expansion

From the early 1970s into the 1980s, both organizational psychology and organizational behavior began to mature as fields of study. For example, during the early 1970s, the name of Division 14 of the American Psychological Association (APA) was formally changed from "Industrial Psychology" to "Industrial/Organizational Psychology." Also, during this period, the Organizational Behavior division became one of the largest in the Academy of Management and remains so today.

This was also a time when researchers in both fields began to break significant new ground in both theory and research. As just a few examples, Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) proposed social information processing theory (SIP) as an alternative to more traditional need-based theories of job satisfaction and job design. Also, during this period, both fields began to "rediscover" the impact of personality and dispositions on organizational constructs such as job attitudes (Staw & Ross, 1985), perceptions of job-related stress (Watson & Clark, 1984), and job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). While there were certainly critics of the dispositional perspective (e.g., Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989), both fields firmly embraced the idea that situational effects were not the whole story.

Another noteworthy development that took hold during this period, and one that continues today, was the recognition that individual behavior in organizations is impacted by forces at the group and organizational levels (e.g., James & Jones, 1974; Rousseau, 1985). This "multilevel" perspective had major implications for both theory development as well as the use of statistical methodology (e.g., Dansereau et al., 1984; James et al., 1984). During this same period, researchers in both fields began to devote increasing attention to what could be called "nontraditional" topics. For example, more literature began to appear on work/family issues (e.g., Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), job-related stress and health (Beehr & Newman, 1978), as well as retirement (Beehr, 1986), and customer service (Schneider & Bowen, 1985). This willingness to explore nontraditional topics was significant because it served as evidence that the interests of researchers in both fields had broadened and expanded beyond topics that were of interest only to management.

From the late 1980s to the year 2000, several historical trends impacted the fields of organizational psychology and

organizational behavior. If one takes a global perspective, the most significant event of this period was the breakup of the Soviet Union and the eventual fall of many Communist regimes. These extraordinary events have implications for both fields because a number of the nations that embraced democracy during this period have also attempted to establish free market economies. As the leaders of many of these new democracies found out, managing and motivating employees in state-owned businesses is quite different from doing so in a free market economy (Frese et al., 1996; Puffer, 1999; Stroh & Dennis, 1994). The science and the practice of organizational psychology and organizational behavior undoubtedly helped organizations in these nations make this complicated economic transition.

Another important trend that began during this period, both in the United States and worldwide, was the change in the demographic composition of the workforce. During this period, it became clear that the world population was becoming more ethnically diverse and aging rapidly. One of the implications of this trend has been an increasing focus on Diversity, Equity and Inclusion (DEI) research, and related organizational initiatives (see Chapter 4). Another implication of these demographic shifts is that organizational researchers began to devote much more time and attention to understanding the process of retirement (e.g., Jex & Grosch, 2013; Wang & Shultz, 2010). Based on the knowledge generated from this research, organizational psychology and organizational behavior have helped organizations assist employees in making the transition to retirement. The increasing level of demographic diversity has also resulted in more organizational researchers investigating the impact of cultural differences on organizational processes such as socialization, communication, and motivation (Erez, 2011).

A third trend that has become evident during this period is the move away from highly specific jobs, and toward more temporary, project-based work. Some have labeled this "dejobbing" (Bridges, 1994), but other terms used have included temporary work, contract work contingent work, gig work, and in European countries, the term "portfolio work" is often used (Gallagher, 2005). This trend raises many interesting questions for organizational psychology and organizational behavior. At the most fundamental level, this trend impacts the "psychological contract" between organizations and employees. What does an organization owe its employees? What do employees owe the organization they work for? In the past, the answers to these questions were straightforward; now, they have become increasingly complex, and this has led to highly innovative research on the changing nature of work and this area of research continues to thrive. Dr. Mindy K. Shoss, who has conducted a great deal of research on the changing nature of work, is the focus of this chapter's People Behind the Research feature.

## Dawn of the New Millennium

As we entered the new millennium, some readers may remember the considerable anxiety over whether computer systems would adapt to the new dates (e.g., the Y2K problem). However, the most significant moment of the new century came on the morning of September 11, 2001, when hijacked commercial aircrafts crashed into the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon outside of Washington,

## PEOPLE BEHIND THE RESEARCH

DR. MINDY K. SHOSS

Like many others in our field, my path to Industrial/Organizational (IO) Psychology was not straightforward. As an undergraduate student at Washington University in St. Louis, I began college as an economics major. There, I had the opportunity to take courses from legendary economists, including Nobel Laureate Douglass North and Dr. Lee Benham. These courses, along with a study abroad at the London School of Economics, focused on development economics—why some countries are rich while others are poor. It struck me that many explanations seemed to have their underpinnings in psychology, particularly the ways that institutions shaped people's incentives (to work, to get an education, to build businesses, etc.). This led me to the psychology department, where I had the opportunity to be mentored by many excellent scholars, especially Drs. Michael Strube, Len Green, and Carol Woods. Dr. Strube took me on as a research assistant in his social and personality psychology research laboratory and chaired my honor's thesis on detecting faking on personality tests. My interests in psychology, economics, and applied statistics (my minor), as well as a lot of internet searching, led me to pursue doctoral training in I-O Psychology at the University of Houston. There, mentors Drs. Alan Witt and Lisa Penney encouraged me to do research (1) that is relevant to current issues in society and (2) that challenges assumptions in the field.

I entered graduate school as the Great Recession began. The Great Recession demonstrated the intricate connections between work, people's well-being, the economy, and society. This sparked my interest in understanding the changing nature of work through the lenses of worker well-being, job insecurity, and worker adaptability. One of my early studies examined the relationship between state-level unemployment and rates of workplace absenteeism due to violence and illness (Shoss & Penney, 2012). The finding? Sickness- and violence-absenteeism rates increased when unemployment rates increased, but these effects take a year or two to emerge. In a later set of studies, colleagues and I found that the combination of job security and job satisfaction, rather than each alone, is needed for desirable outcomes such as worker well-being and commitment (Shoss et al., 2020). This suggests that good jobs need to be both satisfying and secure. Working alongside students and colleagues, my research has investigated a variety of other topics related to the changing nature of work, for example: how people adapt to AI/robots in the workplace, the negative impact of poor working conditions among workers with non-traditional contracts, and the consequences of people's anticipated changes in their own work.

The changing nature of work is an exciting area of study and an area where research is desperately needed to guide organizational practice and government policy. My research will continue to examine how people experience

and cope with the growing uncertainty and instability in work. Future projects will also focus on understanding how technology can be designed and deployed to facilitate positive worker well-being. Finally, harking back to my undergraduate days, I am also interested in the psychological underpinnings of macro-level events related to the economy and the future of work.

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*Source:* Shoss and Penney (2012) and Shoss et al. (2020).

DC. In terms of casualties, the 9/11 terrorist attack represents one of the worst terrorist attacks in history, and certainly the worst on U.S. soil. For many readers of this text, 9/11 represents one of the defining moments of their generation, much the same way that the Kennedy assassination, the first moon landing, or the attack on Pearl Harbor were for previous generations.

What are the implications of 9/11 for organizational psychology and organizational behavior? This is a tricky question to answer with a high degree of certainty because of the magnitude of these events. The most direct way that many organizations were impacted was in *emergency preparedness*. That is, 9/11 made many organizations aware of the need to have plans in place in case of emergencies. Had it not been for the emergency plans of many of the organizations with offices in the World Trade Center, the death toll of 9/11 could have been much higher.

Another historic event that certainly has impacted the United States, and the study of organizations indirectly, occurred in November of 2008 when Barack Obama became the first African American to be elected president. Obama was subsequently reelected by a wide margin in November of 2012. Obama's election and subsequent re-election signaled that the highest-level positions in organizations can be achieved by anyone regardless of race. In some ways, this is a natural progression of the trend to increased diversity that was mentioned in the previous section.

Another highly significant event during this time was the Great Recession, which lasted from 2008 to 2010 (Dipboye, 2018) and led to a huge drop in the value of financial markets and massive unemployment. Although the Great Recession is attributed to the collapse of the sub-prime mortgage industry, there were multiple causes at play including lax banking regulations and risky behavior on Wall Street. The Great Recession had a major impact on the fields of organizational psychology and organizational behavior. For example, it led to a resurgence of interest in the impact of unemployment (Paul & Moser, 2009), and a growth in research on job insecurity (Cheng & Chan, 2008). At a more fundamental level, the economic recession also forced people once again to rethink the contract that exists between organizations and individual employees. Also, given the

causes of the Great Recession, this event also led to increased research focused on ethics in organizations.

Another consequence of the Great Recession was an unprecedented level of intervention on the part of the federal government in private sector organizations (Walsh, 2009). Whether one views this as positive or negative obviously depends somewhat on one's political views; however, the reality is that organizations now must be more accountable for what they do, and how they treat their employees. This has undoubtedly led to an increased awareness of equity and fairness within organizations, and a greater emphasis on employee well-being. Yet, at the same time, keeping up with more government regulations and mandates takes a great deal of time and organizational resources.

Another trend during this period that has had a profound impact on life within organizations, as well as the research within organizational psychology and organizational behavior, is the rapid development of communication technology. Although technological change has certainly impacted organizations for many years, technology has developed at an even greater rate in the early 2000s. It is now possible for people to access e-mail and the full resources of the Internet on a device as small as a cell phone. Although these technological advances have certainly had some positive effects on individuals' productivity (Park & Jex, 2011) and have allowed for much more flexible work arrangements, many of these gains come at a cost. One study, for example, found that despite the increase in job autonomy gained from portable wireless technologies (e.g., smartphones), the constant contact with work during non-work hours created "high-tech tethers" that led to stress for employees (Richardson & Thompson, 2013). As the lines of demarcation between work and other areas of people's lives become almost non-existent, it is possible to work 24 hours a day. This has led to a great deal of research on how people are able to detach from work (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) and the activities they can engage in to recover from work (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007).

Two final trends during this period that have profoundly impacted organizations include globalization and climate change. In most industries, the number of competitors has increased, and those increased competitors span the globe. In addition, most large organizations have branch offices or subsidiaries around the world. This increased level of global competition has forced organizations to become more innovative in the products and services offered to consumers. Globalization has also increased the realization many theories and research findings coming out of organizational research may be "culture bound" and not apply as widely as we have assumed. However, it has also been argued that there are more similarities than differences across cultures (Dipboye, 2018). At a more practical level, organizations with global operations have recognized the challenges associated with employees working in cultures that are vastly different than their own, and this has led to considerable research on expatriation (e.g., Takeuchi et al., 2005, 2008; Wang & Takeuchi, 2007).

According to Dipboye (2018), climate change created by the increased use of fossil fuels in the United States and other countries have presented major challenges to both individuals and organizations. The effects of climate change are potentially catastrophic and may lead to many serious outcomes such as extinction of species, dwindling natural resources, shoreline flooding, and even wars. Many organizations, and organizational researchers, have recognized the importance of climate change and have begun to promote

pro-environmental practices in the workplace (e.g., Aguinis & Glavas, 2013; Henderson et al., 2020). In recognition of the importance of climate change, we include a chapter on sustainability in organizations in this edition (Chapter 14).

## The Recent Past and Beyond

On the morning of November 8, 2016, many Americans were shocked to learn that Donald J. Trump had won the election over Hillary Clinton to become the 45th president of the United States. Trump, a controversial figure who had made billions in real estate and the gambling industry, had never held elected office, and ran on a promise to "drain the swamp" of career politicians and entrenched bureaucrats in Washington, DC. Undoubtedly many readers have strong feelings about Trump, some positive and some negative; nevertheless, one cannot deny the historical significance of his election. Despite being marred by controversy, most notably a two-year investigation of whether his presidential campaign colluded with Russian intelligence and two formal impeachment hearings during his tenure in office, Trump benefited from favorable economic conditions in the form of low unemployment and strong financial market performance (Stockman, 2020).

That all changed in early 2020 with the alarming spread of the COVID-19 virus in the United States and throughout the world. The net effect of the COVID pandemic, which is still ongoing as of this writing, was to entirely shut down many businesses and force many employees to work entirely virtually. Within the fields of organizational psychology and organizational behavior, this change in working conditions led to a great deal of research on virtual work, and more generally how people manage the boundaries between work and other life domains (e.g., Shockley et al., 2021).

Another highly significant recent event was the murder of George Floyd in Minneapolis on May 25th, 2020, by Minneapolis police officer Derek Shauvin. Floyd's death led to mass protests, most of which were peaceful, while some led to mass destruction of property. Most importantly, the protests following Floyd's death forced many to confront racial inequality, and the effects of this were certainly found in the workplace. Many employers were forced to re-evaluate their hiring practices, and more generally examine racial biases within their organizational cultures.

On November 3, 2020, Joseph R. Biden defeated Donald J. Trump in one of the most controversial elections in history. Supporters of Trump, and Trump himself, maintained that Biden's victory was due to irregularities in voting procedures in key battleground states, despite being told otherwise by Trump's own executive staff, including Attorney General William Barr. Almost immediately after taking office, Biden implemented measures that were praised by many Americans, such as overturning many unpopular executive orders from the previous administration and reinstating the U.S. in the Paris Climate Accord.

Nevertheless, Biden's victory also sparked some controversy. At 78 years of age on inauguration day, Biden became the oldest first-term president in history, something that was an issue during the presidential campaign. Biden's election undoubtedly shed light on aging issues in the workplace, and more specifically, whether age-related changes (e.g., Salthouse, 2004) impact one's ability to perform a job. If elected to a second term (a realistic possibility as of this writing) Biden would be 86 years of age at the end of his presidency.

Considering these recent historical events and trends, the world of the recent past and not-too-distant future will be extraordinarily

complex and fast-paced. It is also clear that the boundaries between work and other areas of people's lives have become much less clear than at any time in history. This may all seem overwhelming, but it is also an exciting prospect for the fields of organizational psychology and organizational behavior because it will allow for truly groundbreaking research and practical applications. In fact, we believe that this is one of the most exciting times in history to be involved in the science and practice of both fields.

## THE CHAPTER SEQUENCE

As with past editions, we still believe that a textbook should function as a tour guide for the student. In our experience, both as students and course instructors, the best way to guide is in a logical sequential fashion. The sequence of chapters in this book was developed with this consideration in mind, although we have deviated from previous editions.

The first two chapters provide introductory material on the fields of organizational psychology and organizational behavior as well as their methodological foundations. Some students (and even some instructors) may find it unusual to have a chapter on research methodology. We have included it for three primary reasons. First, having at least a rudimentary understanding of research methodology is fundamental to understanding many of the concepts and research findings discussed throughout the text. Second, knowledge of research methods allows us to be better consumers of research findings we see published in mainstream newspapers, magazines, and blogs. Third, research methodology is a legitimate area of inquiry within organizational psychology and organizational behavior. Unlike previous editions, however, we focus only on research design in the second chapter and cover statistical analysis in a separate appendix (Appendix A).

The next section, which contains seven chapters, focuses on the behavior of individuals in organizational settings. Given the definitions of organizational psychology and organizational behavior provided earlier in this chapter, this obviously represents a key section of the book. A close examination of these chapters reveals a sequential ordering of topics. It is assumed that individuals are initially recruited and socialized into an organization, and especially in recent times, organizations employ a variety of strategies to retain them (Chapter 3). It is also clear that the world is becoming more demographically diverse, and organizations need to be able to understand and value the benefits of this increasing diversity; thus Chapter 4 (new to this edition) focuses on Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion (DEI). Once they are part of an organization, employees must balance the demands of their role as employees with other aspects of their lives (Chapter 5) and eventually become productive members of that organization, yet in some cases engage in dysfunctional or counterproductive behaviors (Chapter 6).

Given the nature of many jobs today, work may have both positive and negative effects on employee health and well-being (Chapter 7). Along these same lines, we recognize that work may evoke feelings of satisfaction and commitment within employees (Chapter 8). The last chapter in this section focuses on the mechanisms that organizations use to influence employees' behavior. Chapter 9 covers both the major motivation theories in organizational psychology and organizational behavior, as well as the many ways in which organizations use these theories to influence employees' behavior.

In the next section, we focus on the study of teams within organizational settings. Since most organizations consist of a series of interdependent work teams, this has become an especially important level of analysis. In Chapter 10, we examine one of the most

important processes that occurs within teams and organizations, namely leadership. Chapter 10 also examines power and influence processes that are at the core of leadership yet influence many other behaviors in organizations. In Chapter 11, we go beyond leadership and delve into the myriad of other factors that may influence the effectiveness of teams within organizations.

In the final three chapters, the focus shifts from the team to the organization—the "macro" level. Chapter 12 probes the concepts of organizational culture and climate. Chapter 13 describes the variety of ways in which organizations engage in planned change with the assistance of behavioral science knowledge. Chapter 14, which is also new to this edition, examines the creation of sustainable organizations. As most readers undoubtedly know, climate change and environmental sustainability have become important topics within society, so it is unsurprising that these issues would find their way into organizational life.

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

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

Organizational psychology and organizational behavior both involve the scientific study of individual and group behavior in formal organizational settings. Both are legitimate fields of study with long histories of impactful research; organizational psychology is part of the broader field of industrial/organizational (I-O) Psychology and organizational behavior is part of the broader field of management. Both fields use scientific methods to study behavior in organizations. They also use this knowledge to solve practical problems in organizations; this is the essence of the scientist-practitioner model, the model on which most graduate training in I-O Psychology and OB is based. Thus, those with training in organizational psychology and organizational behavior are employed in both academic and nonacademic settings. Historically, in most countries (the Nordic countries being the exception) organizational psychology and organizational behavior were slower to develop than the industrial side of the field. The event that is usually considered the historical beginning of organizational psychology and organizational behavior was the Hawthorne studies, although many other events and individuals throughout the world have helped to shape the field over the years and will certainly continue to do so. A constant thread through the history of both fields is the dynamic interaction between science and practice for the betterment of organizations, their employees, and society.

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