

# Chapter 1: Organizational Behaviour

## What are Organizations?

- Organizations are social inventions for accomplishing common goals through group effort
- **Key characteristics of organizations:**
  - o Social inventions
  - o Goal accomplishment
  - o Group effort

## What is organization behaviour?

- The attitudes and behaviours of individuals and groups in organizations
- How organizations can be structured more effectively
- How events in the external environment affect organizations

## What is Human Resource Management?

- Programs, practices, and systems to acquire, develop, and retain employees in organizations
- Recruitment, selection, compensation, and training and development are common human resources practices
- Knowledge of organizational behaviour will help you understand the use and effectiveness of human resource practices

## Why study Organizational Behaviour?

- Organizational behaviour:
  - o Is interesting: it is about people and human nature, and explains the success and failure of organizations
  - o Is important: it has profound impact on managers, employees, and consumers
  - o Makes a difference: it affects individuals' attitudes and behaviour as well as the competitiveness and effectiveness of organizations.

## Management practices of the best companies to work for in Canada

- Flexible work schedules
- Stock-options, profit sharing, and bonuses
- Opportunities for learning and development
- Career development programs
- Wellness and stress reduction programs
- Employee recognition and reward programs

## How much do you know about OB?

- People are very good at giving sensible reasons why the same statement is either true or false
- Common sense develops through unsystematic and incomplete experiences with organizational behaviour
- Management practice should be based on informed opinion and systematic study

## Goals of Organizational Behaviour

- **commonly agreed upon goals of the field of organizational behaviour:**
  - o **1) PREDICTING** organizational behaviour and events
  - o **2) EXPLAINING** organizational behaviour and events in organizations
  - o **3) MANAGING** organizational behaviour

## Management

- Management is the art of getting things accomplished in organizations through others
- If behaviour can be predicted and explained, it can often be managed
- Prediction and explanation involves analysis while management is about action
- Effective management involves evidence-based management

### **Evidence – Based Management**

- Involves translating principles based on the best scientific evidence into organizational practices
- Making decisions based on the best available scientific evidence from social science and organizational research rather than personal preference and unsystematic experience
- The use of evidence-based management is more likely to result in the attainment of organizational goals

### **Scientific Management**

- Scientific management is Frederick Taylor's system for using research to determine the optimum degree of specialization and standardization of work tasks
- Mainly concerned with job design and the structure of work on the shop floor
- Involves the use of research to determine the optimum degree of specialization and standardization

### **Early Prescriptions Concerning Management**

- Attempts to prescribe the "correct way to manage an organization and achieve its goals
- Two basic phases to the prescription:
  - o The classical view and bureaucracy
  - o The human relations view

### The classical view

- The classical view advocates a high degree of specialization of labour, intensive coordination, and centralized decision making
- To maintain control, it suggests that managers have fairly few workers, except for lower-level jobs where machine pacing might substitute for close supervision

### Bureaucracy

- Bureaucracy is max weber's ideal type of organization that includes:

- Strict chain of command
- Selection and promotion criteria based on technical competence
- Detailed rules, regulations, and procedures
- High specialization
- Centralization of power at the top of the organization
- Weber saw bureaucracy as an “ideal type” that would standardize behaviour in organizations and provide workers with security and a sense of purpose
- The classical view of management seemed to take for granted an essential conflict of interest between managers and employees

### **The human relations movement and a critique of bureaucracy**

- The human relations movement began with the famous Hawthorne Studies of the 1920s and 1930s conducted at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric

#### The Hawthorne Studies

- Concerned with the impact of fatigue, rest pauses, and lighting on employee productivity
- The studies illustrated how psychological and social processes affect productivity and work adjustment
- Suggested there could be dysfunctional aspects to how work was organized
- One sign was resistance to management through strong informal group mechanisms such as norms that limited productivity

#### Critique of Bureaucracy

- The human relations movement called attention to certain dysfunctional aspects of classical and bureaucratic management and noted several problems:
  - Employee motivation
  - Limits innovation and adaptation
  - Resistance to change
  - Minimum acceptable level of performance
  - Employees lose sight of the overall goals of the organization

### **Contemporary Management – the Contingency Approach**

- The merits of both approaches are recognized today
- Management approaches need to be tailored to fit the situation
- The complexity of human behaviour means that an organizational behaviour text cannot be a cookbook
- The general to many of the problems in organizations is: “it depends”
- Dependencies are called contingencies
- The contingency approach to management recognizes that there is no one best way to manage
- An appropriate management style depends on the demands of the situation

## What do Managers Do?

- The field of organizational behaviour is concerned with what happens in organizations and what managers actually do in organizations
- Research has focused on managerial roles, managerial activities, managerial agendas, managerial minds, and international managers:

- **Managerial roles**
  - Henry Mintzberg discovered a rather complex set of roles played by managers – interpersonal, informational, decision roles
- **Managerial activities**
  - Fred Luthans, Richard Hodgetts, and Stuart Rosencrantz found that managers engage in four basic types of activities
    - Routine communication (formal sending and receiving information)
    - Traditional management (planning, decision making, controlling)
    - Networking (interaction with people outside of the organization)
    - Human resource management (motivating, reinforcing, disciplining, punishing, managing conflict, staffing, training and developing employees)
  - All these managerial activities involve dealing with people
  - Managerial activities and success
    - Emphasis on the various activities is related to managerial success
    - Networking is related to moving up the ranks of the organization quickly
    - Human resource management is related to employee satisfaction and commitment and unit effectiveness
- **Managerial agendas**
  - John Kotter studied the behaviour patterns of successful general managers and identified the following categories of behaviour:
    - Agenda setting
    - Networking
    - Agenda implementation
- **Managerial minds**
  - Herbert Simon and Daniel Isenberg explored how managers think
  - Experienced managers use intuition to guide many of their actions
    - To sense that a problem exists
    - To perform well-learned mental tasks rapidly
    - To synthesize isolated pieces of information and data
    - To double check more formal or mechanical analyses
  - Good intuition is problem identification and problem solving based on a long history of systematic education and experience. It enables manager to locate problems within a network of previously acquired information
- **International managers**
  - The style in which managers do what they do and the emphasis they give various activities will vary greatly across cultures
  - Cultural variations in values affect both managers' and employees' expectations about interpersonal interaction

- Geert Hofstede showed how cross-cultural differences in values leads to contrasts in the general role that managers play across cultures
- National culture is one of the most important contingency variables in organizational behaviour
- The appropriateness of various leadership styles, motivation techniques, and communication methods depends on where one is in the world.

## Some Contingent Management Concerns

- Four issues with which organizations and managers are currently concerned
  - Diversity – local and global
  - A positive work environment and employee well being
  - Talent management and employee engagement
  - Corporate social responsibility (CSR)

# Chapter 2: Personality and Learning

## Personality

### What is Personality?

- The relatively stable set of psychological characteristics that influences the way and individual interacts with his or her environment and how he or she feels, thinks, and behaves
- Dimensions and traits are that are determined by genetic predisposition and one's long term learning history
- People have a variety of personality characteristics

### Personality and Organizational Behaviour

- Personality has a long history in organizational behaviour
- The role of personality in organizational behaviour has often been debated in what is known as the "person-situation debate"
- **This has led to three approaches**
  - o 1) The dispositional approach
    - Focuses on individual dispositions and personality
    - Individuals possess stable traits or characteristics that influence their attitudes and behaviours
    - Individuals are predisposed to behave in certain ways
  - o 2) The situational approach
    - Characteristics of the organization setting such as rewards and punishment influence people's feelings, attitudes and behaviour
    - Many studies have shown that job satisfaction and other work-related attitudes are largely determined by situational factors such as the characteristics of work tasks
  - o 3) The interactionist approach
    - Organizational behaviour (individuals' attitudes and behaviour) is a function of both dispositions and situation
    - To predict and understand organizational behaviour, we need to know something about an individual's and the work setting
    - The interactionist approach is the most widely accepted perspective within organizational behaviour

### Personality and the Situation

- Situations can be described as being either "weak" or "strong"
- In **weak** situations, roles are loosely defined, there are few rules and weak reinforcement and punishment contingencies
  - o Personality has the strongest effect in weak situations
  - o In Strong situations, the roles, rules, and contingencies are more defined
- Personality has less of an impact in **strong** situations

- The extent to which personality influences people's attitudes and behaviour depends on the situation

### **Trait Activation Theory**

- Traits lead to certain behaviours only when the situation makes the need for the trait salient
- Personality influences peoples' behavior when the situation calls for a particular personality characteristic

### **Implications of the Interactionist Approach**

- Some personality characteristics are useful in certain organization situations
- There is no one best personality
- Managers need to appreciate the advantages of employee diversity
- The importance of fit – putting the right person in the right job, group, or organization

### **The Five-Factor Model of Personality**

- Five basic but general dimensions that describe personality
  - **1) Extraversion**
    - Important for jobs that require interpersonal interaction and where being sociable, assertive, energetic, and ambitious is important for success
  - **2) Emotional stability/neuroticism**
    - Persons high on emotional stability will have more effective interactions with co-workers and customers as they tend to be more calm and secure
  - **3) Agreeableness**
    - Contributes to job performance in jobs that require interaction and involve helping, cooperating, nurturing others as well as in jobs that involve teamwork and cooperation
  - **4) Conscientiousness**
    - Important for job performance on most jobs given the tendency towards hard work and achievement
  - **5) Openness to experience**
    - Important for jobs that involve learning and creativity given the tendency to be intellectual, curious, and imaginative and have broad interests.
- The Five Factor Model of personality: Research
  - Each of the Big Five dimensions is related to job performance and organizational citizenship behaviours
  - Best predictors of job performance depends on the occupation
  - Conscientiousness is the strongest predictor of overall job performance across all occupations
  - The big five are related to work motivation, job satisfaction, an life satisfaction
  - The big five are also related to job search and career success
  - The effects of personality on career success are relatively enduring

### **Locus of Control**

- A set of beliefs about whether one's behaviour is controlled mainly by internal or external factors

- Internals believe that the opportunity to control their own behaviour resides within themselves
- Externals believe that external forces determine their behaviour

### **Locus of Control Research**

- Internals are more satisfied with their jobs, more committed to their organization, earn more money, and achieve higher organizational positions
- Internals perceive less stress, cope with stress better and experience less burnout, and engage in more careful career planning
- Internals are less likely to be absent from work and are more satisfied with their lives

### **Self-Monitoring**

- The extent to which people observe and regulate how they appear and behave in social settings and relationships
- High self-monitors take great care to observe and control the images that they project
- High self-monitors show concern for socially appropriate emotions and behaviours, and tune into social and interpersonal cues; they regulate their behaviour and self-presentation according to these cues
- Self-Monitoring: Research
  - o High self-monitors gravitate to jobs that require role-playing and the use of their self-presentation skills
  - o High-self monitors are more involved in their jobs, perform better, and are more likely to emerge as leaders
  - o High self-monitors experience more role stress and show less commitment to their organizations
  - o High self-moderators are more likely to change employers and locations and to receive more promotions
  - o High self-monitors are not comfortable in ambiguous settings in which it is hard to determine what behaviours are socially appropriate
  - o Dealing with unfamiliar cultures might provoke stress

### Learning

- Learning occurs when practice or experience leads to a relatively permanent change in behaviour potential
- The practice or experience that prompts learning stems from an environment that provides feedback concerning the consequences of behaviour

### **What do employees learn?**

- Practical skills:
  - o Job specific skills, knowledge, technical competence
- Interpersonal skills:
  - o Problem solving, critical thinking, alternative work processes, risk taking
  - o Interactive skills such as communicating, teamwork, conflict resolution
- Cultural awareness:
  - o The social norms of organizations, company goals, business operations, expectations, and priorities

HOW DO PEOPLE LEARN?	
Operant Learning Theory	Social Cognitive Theory

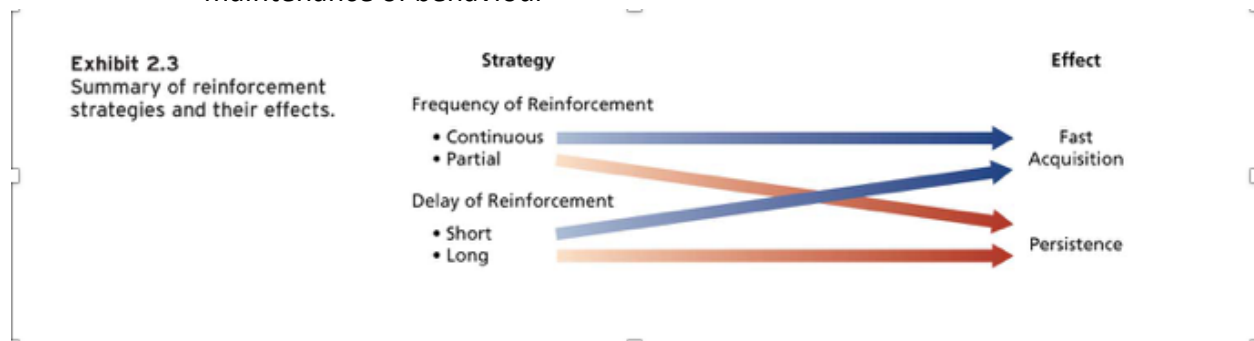
## Operant learning theory

- Learning in which the subject learns to operate in the environment to achieve certain consequences
- Operantly learned behaviour is controlled by the consequences that follow it
- It is the connection between the behaviour and the consequence that is learned
- Operant learning can be used to increase the probability of desired behaviours and to reduce or eliminate the probability of undesirable behaviours

### **Increasing the probability of behaviour:**

- One of the most important consequences that influences behaviour is reinforcement
- Reinforcement is the process by which stimuli strengthen behaviour
- A reinforce is a stimulus that follows some behaviour and increases or maintains the probability of that behaviour
- Positive reinforces work by their application to a situation
  - o The application or addition of a stimulus that increases or maintains the probability of some behaviour
  - o The stimulus is the positive reinforce
  - o The reinforce is dependent or contingent on the occurrence of some desired behaviour
  - o Whether or not something is a positive reinforce depends on whether it increases or maintains the occurrence of some behaviour by its application
- Negative reinforces work by their removal from a situation
  - o The removal of a stimulus from a situation that increases or maintains the probability of some behaviour
  - o Negative reinforcement occurs when a response prevents some event or stimulus from occurring
  - o The removed or prevented stimulus is a negative reinforce
  - o Negative reinforces are defined by what they do and how they work, not by their unpleasantness
- **Organizational Errors involving reinforcement**
  - o Managers sometimes make the following errors when trying to use reinforcement:
    - Confusing rewards with reinforcements
      - Rewards fail to serve as reinforces when they are not made contingent on some specific desired behaviours
    - Neglecting diversity in preferences for reinforces
      - Organizations often fail to appreciate individual differences in preferences for reinforces

- Managers should consider the stimuli under their control for their applicability as reinforces for particular employees
  - Neglecting important sources of reinforcement
    - Managers often neglect important sources of reinforcement such as those administered by co-workers or intrinsic to the job
- **Two important sources of reinforcement that managers often ignore are:**
  - 1) Performance feedback: involves providing quantitative or qualitative information on past performance for the purpose of changing or maintain performance in specific ways. It is most effective when it is:
    - Conveyed in a positive manner
    - Delivered immediately after observing performance
    - Represented visually (graph or chart)
    - Specific to the behaviour that is being targeted for feedback
  - 2) Social recognition: involves information acknowledgement, attention, praise, approval, or genuine appreciation for work well done for one individual or group to another
    - When social recognition is made contingent on employee behaviour it can be effective means for performance improvement
- **Reinforcement strategies**
  - Reinforcement can be:
    - Continuous vs partial
    - Immediate vs delayed
  - Best way to administer reinforcement
    - For fast acquisition of some response, *CONTINUOUS* and *IMMEDIATE* reinforcement should be used
    - Behaviour tends to be persistent when it is learned under conditions of *PARTIAL* and *DELAYED* reinforcement
  - Managers have to tailor reinforcement strategies to the needs of the situation and often must alter their strategies over time to achieve effective learning and maintenance of behaviour

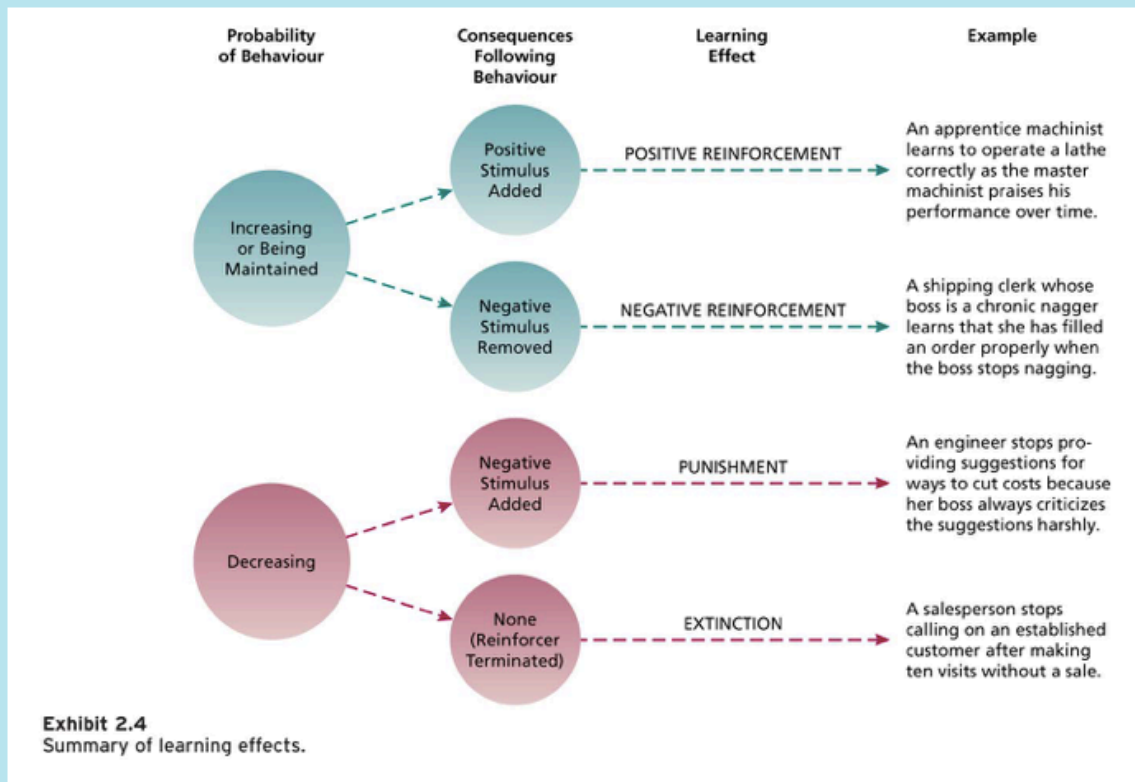


### Reducing the Probability of Behaviour

- Sometimes learned behaviours are detrimental to the operation of an organization and they need to be reduced or eliminated
- Two strategies that can reduce the probability of learned behaviour

- **1) Extinction**
  - The gradual dissipation of behaviour following the termination of reinforcement
  - If the behaviour is not reinforced, it will gradually dissipate or be extinguished
  - Extinction works best when coupled with the reinforcement of some desired substitute behaviour
- **2) Punishment**
  - The application of an aversive stimulus following unwanted behaviour to decrease the probability of that behaviour
  - A nasty stimulus is applied after some undesirable behaviour in order to decrease the probability of that behaviour
  - Problems using punishment:
    - Punishment has some unique characteristics that often limit its effectiveness in eliminating unwanted behaviour
    - It does not demonstrate which behaviours should replace the punished response
    - Punishment indicates on what is not appropriate
    - Punishment only temporarily suppresses the unwanted behaviour
    - Punishment can provoke a strong emotional reaction from the punished individual
  - Using punishment effectively
    - Provide an acceptable alternative response for the punished response
    - Limit the emotions involved in punishment
    - Make sure the chosen punishment is truly aversive
    - Punish immediately or reinstate the circumstances surrounding the problem at a more appropriate time
    - Do not reward unwanted behaviours before or after punishment
    - Do not inadvertently punish desirable behaviour

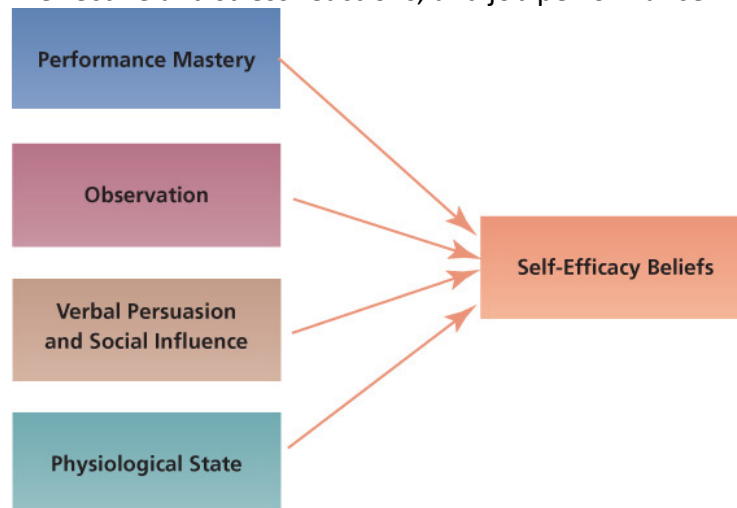
# Summary of Learning Effects



## Social Cognitive Theory (SCT)

- SCT emphasizes the role of cognitive processes in regulating people's behaviour
- People learn by observing the behaviour of others and can regulate their own behaviour by thinking about consequences of their actions, setting performance goals, monitoring performance, and rewarding themselves for goal accomplishment
- Human behaviour can be explained through a system of triadic reciprocal causation in which *personal factors and environmental factors* work together and interact to influence people's behaviour
- People's behaviour also influences personal factors and the environment
- SCT compliments operant learning theory in explaining how people learn and organizational behaviour
- Components of social cognitive theory:
  - o **Observational learning**
    - The process of observing and imitating the behaviour of others:
      - Examining the behaviour of others
      - Seeing the consequences, they experience
      - Thinking about what might happen if we act the same way

- Imitating the behaviour if we expect favourable consequences
  - The reinforcement is self-reinforcement
  - Attractive, credible, competent, high-status people are most likely to be imitated
  - It is important that the model's behaviour result in positive consequences and that it is vivid and memorable
- **Self-efficacy beliefs**
    - Beliefs people have about their ability to successfully perform a specific task
    - It is a cognitive belief that can be changed and modified in response to different sources of information
    - Self-efficacy is influenced by four sources of information
    - Self-efficacy beliefs
      - Self-efficacy beliefs influence the activities people choose to perform, the amount of effort and persistence devoted to a task, effective and stress reactions, and job performance



- **Self-regulation**
  - The use of learning principles to regulate one's own behaviour
  - It involves observing one's own behaviour, comparing it to be a standard, and rewarding oneself when behaviour meets the standard
  - A key part of the process is people's pursuit of self-set goals that guide behaviour
  - *Discrepancy reduction* and *discrepancy production* lie at the heart of the self-regulatory process
  - Discrepancy reduction: a discrepancy between one's goals and performance which motivates one to modify their behaviour
  - Discrepancy production: when individuals attain their goals, they are likely to set higher and more challenging goals
  - Self-regulation involves the following activities:
    - Collect self-observation data

- Observe models
  - Set goals
  - Rehearse
  - Reinforce oneself
- Self-regulation can improve learning and result in a change in behaviour
  - Self-regulation training has been shown to improve work attendance and sales performance
  - Self-regulation has been shown to change a variety of behaviours and it is an effective method of learning and training

# Chapter 3: Perception, Attribution, and diversity

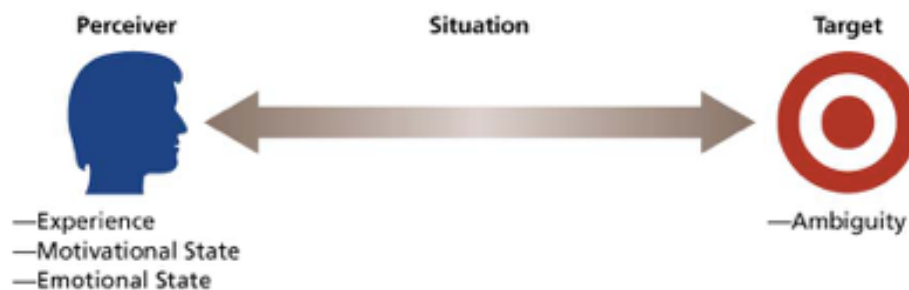
## Perception

### What is Perception?

- Perception: the process of interpreting the messages of our senses to provide order and meaning to the environment
- People base their actions on their interpretation of reality that their perceptual system provides, rather than on reality itself

### Components of perception

- Perception has three components
  - o A perceiver
  - o A target that is being perceived
  - o Some situational context in which the perception is occurring
- Each component influences the perceiver's impression or interpretation of the target



- The Perceiver
  - o Past experiences lead the perceiver to develop expectations that affect current perceptions
  - o Needs unconsciously influence perception by causing us to perceive what we wish to perceive
  - o Emotions, such as anger, happiness, fear, can influence our perceptions
  - o Perceptual Defence:
    - The tendency for the perceptual system to defend the perceiver against unpleasant emotions
    - People often “see what they want to see” and “hear what they want to hear”
    - Our perceptual system works to ensure we do not hear or see things that are threatening
- The Target
  - o Ambiguous targets are especially susceptible to interpretation and the addition of meaning
  - o Perceivers have a need to resolve ambiguities
  - o The perceiver does not or cannot use all the information provided by the target

- A reduction in ambiguity might not be accompanied by greater accuracy
- The Situation
  - Perception occurs in some situational context, and this context can affect what is perceived
  - The most important effect that the situation can have is to add information about the target
  - The perception of a target can change with the situation even when the receiver and target remain the same

## Bruner's Model of the Perceptual Process

- When the perceiver encounters an unfamiliar target, the perceiver is very open to the informational cues in the target and the situation
- The perceiver will actively seek out cues to resolve ambiguity
- As the perceiver encounters some familiar cues, a crude categorization of the target is made
- The search for cues then becomes less open and more selective
- The perceiver will search for cues that confirm the categorization of the target
- As the categorization becomes stronger, the perceiver will ignore or even distort cues that violate initial perceptions

Model	Example
Unfamiliar target encountered	New co-worker
↓	↓
Openness to target cues	Observation; search for information
↓	↓
Familiar cues encountered	Co-worker is Stanford graduate with good grades
↓	↓
Target categorized	Co-worker is "good man" with "great potential"
↓	↓
Cue selectivity	Co-worker's poor performance ignored or distorted
↓	↓
Categorization strengthened	Co-worker is still "good man" with "great potential"

### Characteristics of the Perceptual Process

- Bruner's model demonstrates three important characteristics of the perceptual process:
  - Perception is selective
    - Perceivers do not use all of the available cues, and those they do use are given special emphasis
    - Perception is efficient but this can aid and hinder perceptual accuracy
  - Perceptual constancy
    - The tendency for the target to be perceived in the same way over time and across situations
    - The experience of "getting off on the wrong foot"
  - Perceptual consistency

- the tendency to select, ignore, and distort cues so that they fit together to form a homogenous picture of the target
- we strive for consistency in our perception of people

## Basic Biases in Person Perception

- the impressions we form of others are susceptible to a number of perceptual biases
  - **primacy and recency effects**
    - Primacy Effect
      - The reliance on early cues or first impressions is known as the primacy effect
      - Primacy can have a lasting impact
      - Primacy is a form of selectivity and its lasting effects illustrate the operation of constancy
    - Recency effect
      - The tendency for a perceiver to rely on recent cues or last impressions is known as the recency effect
      - Last impressions count most
  - **reliance on central traits**
    - people tend to organize their perceptions around central traits
    - central traits are personal characteristics of a target person that are of particular interest to a perceiver
    - central traits often have a very powerful influence on our perceptions of others
    - physical appearance is a common central trait in work settings
    - conventionally attractive people fare better than unattractive people in terms of variety of job related outcomes (getting hired)
    - physical height is an obvious aspect of physical appearance that is related to job performance, promotions, and career success
    - individuals who are overweight tend to be evaluated negatively on a number of workplace outcomes
  - **implicit personality theories**
    - personal theories that people have about which personality characteristics go together
    - perhaps you expect hardworking people to also be honest, or people of above average intelligence to be most friendly
    - if such implicit theories are inaccurate, they provide a basis for misunderstanding
  - **projection**
    - the tendency for perceivers to attribute their own thoughts and feelings to others
    - in some cases, projection is an efficient and sensible perceptual strategy
    - projection can lead to perceptual difficulties and can serve as a form of perceptual defence

- **stereotyping**
  - the tendency to generalize about people in a social category and ignore variations among them
  - categories on which people might base a stereotype include race, religion, age, gender, ethnic background, social class, and occupation
  - there are three specific aspects to stereotyping
    - 1) we distinguish some category of people
    - 2) We assume that the individuals in this category have certain traits
    - 3) We perceive that everyone in this category possesses these traits
  - People can evoke stereotypes with incredibly little information
  - Stereotypes help us develop impressions of ambiguous targets
  - Most stereotypes are inaccurate, especially when we use them to develop perceptions of specific individuals
  - Why do stereotypes persist?
    - Several factors work to reinforce inaccurate stereotypes
    - Even incorrect stereotypes help us process information about others quickly and efficiently
    - Inaccurate stereotypes are often reinforced by selective perception

### Attribution: Perceiving Causes and Motives

- **Attribution** is the process by which we assign causes or motives to explain people's behaviour
- Rewards and punishments in organizations are based on judgements about what really caused a target person to behave in a certain way
- An important goal is to determine whether some behaviour is caused by dispositional or situational forces

Dispositional Attributions	Situational Attribution
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Dispositional attributions suggest that some personality or intellectual characteristic unique to the person is responsible for the behaviour</li> <li>- Intelligence, greed, friendliness, or laziness</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Situational attributions suggest that the external situation or environment in which the target person exists was responsible for the behaviour</li> <li>- Bad weather, good luck, proper tools, or poor advice</li> </ul>

#### Attribution Cues:

- We rely on external cues and make inferences from these cues when making attributions

- Three attribution questions guide our decisions as to whether we should attribute some behaviour to dispositional or situational causes
  - o 1) does the person engage in the behaviour regularly and consistently?
    - (consistency cues)**
      - These are attribution cues that reflect how consistently a person engages in a behaviour over time
      - high consistently behaviour leads to dispositional attribution
      - when behaviour occurs inconsistently, we begin to consider situational attributions
  - o 2) do most people engage in the behaviour, or is it unique to this person?
    - (consensus cues)**
      - these are attribution cues that reflect how a person's behaviour compares with that of others
      - low consensus leads to dispositional attributions
      - the informational effects of low-consensus behaviour are magnified when the actor is expected to suffer negative consequences because of the deviance
  - o 3) does the person engage in the behaviour in many situations, or is it distinctive to one situation? **(Distinctiveness cues)**
    - Attribution cues that reflect the extent to which a person engages in some behaviour across a variety of situations
    - Low distinctiveness behaviour leads to a dispositional attribution
    - When a behaviour is highly distinctive, in that it occurs in only one situation, we are likely to assume that some aspect of the situation caused the behaviour

### Attribution in Action

- *Observers put information about consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness together to form attributions*
- Consider three employees who are absent from work. The manager must develop an attribution about the cause to decide which action is warranted
  - o A is absent a lot, her co-workers are seldom absent, and she was absent a lot in her previous job
  - o B is absent a lot, but she was almost never absent to her previous job
  - o C is seldom absent, her co-workers are seldom absent, and she was seldom absent in her previous job

	Consistency	Consensus	Distinctiveness	Likely Attribution
Roshani	High	Low	Low	Disposition
Mika	High	High	High	Situation
Sam	Low	High	Low	Temporary Situation

### Biases in Attribution

- Although observers often operate in a rational, logical manner in forming attributions about behaviour, this does not mean that such attributions are always correct

- Three biases in attribution
  - **1) Fundamental attribution error**
    - The tendency to overemphasize dispositional explanations for behaviour at the expense of situational explanations
    - We often discount the strong effects that social cues can have on behaviour
    - We often observe people in constrained and constant situations and fail to realize that observed behaviour is distinctive to a particular situation
  - **2) actor- observer effect**
    - The propensity for actors and observers to view the causes of the actor's behaviour differently
    - Actors are prone to attribute much of their own behaviour to situational factors while observers are more likely to invoke dispositional causes
  - **3) self-serving bias**
    - The tendency to take credit for successful outcomes and to deny responsibility for failures
    - People will explain the very same behaviour differently on the basis of events that happened after the behaviour occurred
    - Self-serving bias can reflect intentional self-promotion or excuse making or it might reflect unique information on the part of the actor

## Person Perception and Workforce Diversity

- **Workforce diversity** refers to differences among recruits and employees in characteristics such as age, race, gender, religion, cultural background, physical ability, or sexual orientation
- The workforce is becoming more diverse
- Many organizations have not successfully managed workforce diversity

### The changing workplace

- The Canadian population and labour force is becoming increasingly multicultural and multiethnic
- The number of visible minorities in Canada is expected to double by 2017
- In less than a decade, 48 percent of the working-age population will be between the ages of 45 and 64
- Many organizations are seeking to recruit more representatively from the labour pool
- Many employees are required to interact with people from substantially different national or corporate cultures
- The increases emphasis on teamwork as a means of job design and quality enhancement also requires people from different cultures to work together

### Valuing Diversity

- Some have argued that organizations should **value** diversity not just tolerate it
- A critical motive is the basic fairness of valuing diversity
- diversity: strategic and competitive advantages
  - improved problem solving and creativity
  - improved recruiting and marketing

- improved competitiveness in global markets
- organizations are adopting diversity as part of their corporate strategy to improve their competitiveness in global markets
- a diversity climate is related to business-unit performance
- organizations with more gender-diverse management teams have superior financial performance

# Chapter 4: Values, Attitudes, and Work Behaviour

## What Are Values?

- A broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others
- Values have to do with what we consider good and bad
- Values are motivational; they signal how we believe we should and should not behave
- Values are very general; they do not predict behaviour in specific situations very well
- People tend to hold values structures around such factors as achievement, power, autonomy, conformity, tradition, and social welfare

### Generational differences in values

- There are four distinctive generations in the workplace today
  - o 1) traditionalists (1922-1945)
  - o 2) Baby boomers (1946-1964)
  - o 3) Generation c (1965-1980)
  - o 4) Millennials (generation y) (1981-2000)
- They grew up under rather different socialization experiences
- These differences have led to notable value differences between the generations
- Such value differences might underlie the differential workplace assets and preferences for leadership style

Generation	Percentage of Workforce	Assets in the Workplace	Leadership Style Preferences
<i>Traditionalists</i> Born 1922–1945	8%	Hard working, stable, loyal, thorough, detail-oriented, focused, emotional maturity	Fair, consistent, clear, direct, respectful
<i>Baby Boomers</i> Born 1946–1964	44%	Team perspective, delicate, experienced, knowledgeable, service-oriented	Treat as equals, warm and caring, mission-defined, democratic approach
<i>Generation X</i> Born 1965–1980	34%	Independent, adaptable, creative, techno-literate, willing to challenge the status quo	Direct, competent, genuine, informal, flexible, results-oriented, supportive of learning opportunities
<i>Millennials</i> Born 1981–2000	14% and increasing rapidly	Optimistic, able to multitask, tenacious, technologically savvy, driven to learn and grow, team-oriented, socially responsible	Motivational, collaborative, positive, educational, organized, achievement-oriented, able to coach

- Generational Stereotypes
  - o **Traditionalists:** respectful of authority and a high work ethic
  - o **Boomers:** optimistic workaholics
  - o **Gen X:** cynical, confident, and pragmatic
  - o **Gen Y:** Confident, social, demanding of feedback, and somewhat unfocused
- Most research points to more similarities than differences across generations
- Some indication that Gen X and Y are more inclined to value money, status, and rapid career growth than baby boomers

- Gen Ys and Xers, compared to Boomers, see work as less central, value leisure more, and are more inclined toward work-life balance
- Some research has concluded that all generations share the same values but express them differently
- Generational differences in work values or the way values are expressed is important because a good “fit” between a person’s values and those of the organization (person-organisational fit) leads to more positive work attitudes and behaviours, including reduced chances of quitting

### **Cultural differences in values**

- There are basic differences in work-related values across cultures
- A lack of understanding of cross-cultural differences can cause foreign assignments to terminate early and business negotiations to fail

### **Work centrality**

- Work is valued differently across cultures
- There are cross-national differences in the extent to which people perceive work as central life interest
- People for whom work was a central life interest work more hours
- Cross-cultural differences in work centrality can lead to adjustment problems for foreign employees and managers

### **Hofstede’s Study**

- Geert Hofstede questioned over 116, 000 IBM employees in 40 countries about their **work-related values**
- He discovered four basic dimensions along which work-related values differed across cultures
  - **1) Power distance**
    - The extent to which an unequal distribution of power is accepted by society members
    - In small power distance cultures, inequality is minimized, superiors are accessible, and power differences are downplayed
    - In large power distance cultures, inequality is accepted as natural, superiors are inaccessible, and power differences are highlighted
    - Out of 76 countries and regions, Canada and US rank 15 and 16 , failing on the low power distance side of the average
  - **2) Uncertainty avoidance**
    - The extent to which people are uncomfortable with uncertain and ambiguous situations
    - Strong uncertainty avoidance cultures stress rules and regulations, hard work, conformity, and security
    - Cultures with weak uncertainty avoidance are less concerned with rules, conformity, and hard work is not seen as a virtue and risk taking is valued
    - Canada and the united states are well below average on uncertainty avoidance
  - **3) Masculinity/femininity**

- Masculine cultures clearly differentiate gender roles, support the dominance of men, and stress economic performance
- Feminine cultures accept fluid gender roles, stress sexual equality, and stress quality of life
- In Hofstede's research, Japan is the most masculine society followed by Austria, Mexico, and Venezuela
- The Scandinavian countries are the most feminine
- Canada ranks about mid-pack and the United States is fairly masculine falling about halfway between Canada and Japan
- **4) Individualism/collectivism**
  - Individualistic societies stress independence, individual initiative, and privacy
  - Collective cultures favour interdependence and loyalty to family or clan
  - The United States, Australia, GB, and Canada are among the most individualistic societies
  - Venezuela, Colombia, Pakistan, are among the most collective, with Japan falling about mid-pack
- Subsequent work with the Canadian Michael Bond that catered more to eastern cultures resulted in a fifth dimension
  - **5) Long-term/short term orientation**
    - Cultures with a long-term orientation stress persistence, perseverance, thrift, and close attention to status differences
    - Cultures with a short-term orientation stress personal steadiness and stability, face-saving, and social niceties
    - China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan, and South Korea tend to be characterized by a long-term orientation
    - Canada and US are more short-term oriented
    - Hofstede and Bond argue that the long-term orientation, in part, explains prolific East Asian entrepreneurship

### **Implications of Cultural Variation**

- What are the implications of cultural variation for organizational behaviour?

### **Exporting OB theories**

- OB theories, research, and practices from North America might not translate well into other societies
- The basic questions remain the same – it is just the answers that will differ
- Managers in North America encourage participation in work decisions by employees which correspond to a fairly low degree of power distance
- This might not transfer to cultures that value high power distance

### **Importing OB Theories**

- Not all theories and practices that concern organizational behaviour are designed in North America or even in the West
- The most obvious examples are "Japanese management" techniques, such as quality circles, total quality management, and just-in-time production

- Difficulties can arise due to basic value differences between Japan and north America
- Organizations need to tailor management practices to the home culture's concerns

### **Appreciating Global Customers**

- An appreciation of cross-cultural differences in values is essential in understanding the needs and tastes of customers or clients around the world
- Appreciating the values of global customers is also important when the customers enter your own culture

### **Developing Global Employees**

- Success in translating management practices to other cultures, importing practices, and appreciating global customers does not happen by accident
- Companies need to select, train, and develop employees to have an appreciation of differences in cultural values and the implications of these differences for behaviour in organizations

## What are Attitudes?

- An **attitude** is a fairly stable evaluative tendency to respond consistently to some specific object, situation, person, or category of people
- Attitudes involve *evaluations*, directed towards specific targets
- They are more specific than values
- Attitudes are *tendencies* to respond to the target of the attitude
- Attitudes often influence our behaviour toward some object, situation, person, or group

### **Attitude → Behaviour**

- However, attitudes are not always consistent with behaviour
- Behaviour is most likely to correspond to attitudes when people have direct experience with the target of the attitude and when the attitude is held confidently

### **Where do attitudes come from?**

- Attitudes are a function of what we think and how we feel
- Attitudes are the product of a related belief and value
  - Belief + value → attitude → behaviour**
- Consider the following example of a person experience work-related conflict
  - o Belief: "my job is interfering with my family life."
  - o Value: "I dislike anything that hurts my family."
  - o Attitude: "I dislike my job."
  - o Behaviour: "I'll search for another job."

## Job Satisfaction

- A collection of attitudes that workers have about their jobs
- Two aspects of satisfaction: 1) facet satisfaction and overall satisfaction
- **Facet satisfaction** refers to the tendency for an employee to be more or less satisfied with various facets of the job. The most relevant attitudes toward jobs are contained in a rather small group of facets

### **Job Satisfaction Facets**

- The work itself
- Compensation
- Recognition
- Benefits
- Working conditions
- Supervision
- Co-workers
- Organizational policy

### **Overall Satisfaction**

- A summary indicator of a person's attitude toward his or her job that cuts across various facets
- It is an average or total of the attitudes individuals hold toward various facets of the job
- Two employees might express the same level of overall satisfaction for different reasons
- Job Descriptive Index (JDI): a popular measure of job satisfaction
  - o It is designed around five facets of satisfaction:
    - 1) people
    - 2) Pay
    - 3) supervision
    - 4) promotions
    - 5) the work itself
  - o Employees respond yes, no or "?" in describing whether a particular word or phrase is descriptive of particular facets of their jobs
- The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) is also a carefully constructed measure of job satisfaction
  - o Respondents indicate how happy they are with various aspects of their job on a scale ranging from "very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied"
  - o Many organizations make extensive use of employee attitude surveys

### **What determines Job Satisfaction?**

- We frequently find differences in job satisfaction expressed by individuals performing the same job in a given organization such as two nurses who work side by side. Why?
- Job satisfaction is a function of:
  - o Dispositional factors
  - o Discrepancy between the job outcomes a person wants and the outcomes received
  - o Mood and emotion
  - o Fairness and equity
- **1) Discrepancy: Determinant 1 for job satisfaction:**
  - o According to discrepancy theory, job satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between the job outcomes people want and the outcomes that they perceive they obtain
  - o There is strong evidence that satisfaction with one's pay is high when there is a small gap between the pay received and the perception of how much pay should be received

- **2) Fairness: Determinant 2 for job satisfaction**

- Issues of fairness affect both what people want from their jobs and how they react to the inevitable discrepancies of organizational life

- There are three basic kinds of fairness:

- **1) Distributive fairness**

- Fairness that occurs when people receive the outcomes they think they deserve from their jobs
- It involves the ultimate distribution of work rewards and resources
- Individuals want “what’s fair”
- **Equity theory** provides a way of understanding how people determine what is fair
  - A theory that job satisfaction stems from a comparison of the inputs one invests in a job and the outcomes one receives in comparison with the inputs and outcomes of another person or group
  - Equity will be perceived when the following distribution ratios exist

$$\frac{\textit{my outcomes}}{\textit{my inputs}} = \frac{\textit{other's outcomes}}{\textit{other's inputs}}$$

- inputs refer to anything that people give up, offer, or trade to their organization in exchange for outcomes (education)
- outcomes are factors that an organization distributes to employees in exchange for their inputs (ex: pay)
- the other in the ratio might be a co-worker performing the same job, a number of co-workers, or even one’s conception of all individuals in one’s occupation
- equity theory has important implications for job satisfaction
- inequity is a dissatisfying state, especially when you are on the “short end of the stick”
- ex: consider yourself in terms of hours you spent studying as your input to this class and the final grade as the outcome and compare yourself to a friend in the class
- the equity concept suggests that outcomes should be tied to individual contributions or inputs
- this corresponds with the idealistic north American culture
- equality of outcomes and the need for outcomes might be more important for distributive fairness in other cultures

- **Procedural fairness**

- Fairness that occurs when the process used to determine work outcomes is seen as reasonable
- It is concerned with how outcomes are decided and allocated

- It is particularly relevant to outcomes such as performance evaluations, pay raises, promotions, layoffs, and work assignments
- In allocating outcomes, the following factors contribute to perceptions of procedural fairness. The allocator:
  - Follows consistent procedures over time and across people
  - Uses accurate information and appears unbiased
  - Allows two-way communication during the allocation process
  - Welcomes appeals of the procedure or allocation
- Procedural fairness is especially likely to invoke dissatisfaction when people also see distributive fairness as being low
- Dissatisfaction will be maximized when people believe that they **would** have obtained better outcomes if the decision maker had used other procedures that **should** have been implemented
- Interactional fairness
  - Fairness that occurs when people feel that they have received respectful informative communication about an outcome
  - Interactional fairness is important because it is possible for absolutely fair outcomes or procedures to be perceived as unfair when they inadequately or uncaringly explained
  - People who experience interactional unfairness are most likely to be dissatisfied with the boss
  - Both procedural and interactional fairness can to some extent offset the negative effects of distributive unfairness
- **3) Disposition: Determinant 3 for job satisfaction**  
*[could your personality contribute to your feelings of job satisfaction?]*
  - The dispositional view of job satisfaction is based on the idea that some people are predisposed by virtue of their personalities to be more or less satisfied despite changes in discrepancy or fairness
  - Research that suggests that disposition contributes to job satisfaction:
    - Identical twins raised apart tend to have similar levels of job satisfaction
    - Job satisfaction tends to be fairly stable over time, even when changes in employer occur
    - Disposition measured in adolescence is correlated with one's job satisfaction as a mature adult
  - These findings suggest that some personality characteristics originating in genetics or early learning contribute to adult job satisfaction
  - People who are extraverted and more conscientious tend to be more satisfied with their jobs
  - Those high in neuroticism are less satisfied

- People who are high in self-esteem and internal locus of control are more satisfied
- In general, people who are optimistic and proactive report higher job satisfaction
- **Mood and emotion** may contribute to this connection
- **4) Mood and Emotion: Determinant 4 for job satisfaction**
  - **affect** is a broad label for feelings that includes emotions and moods
  - Emotions are intense, often short-lived feelings caused by a particular event such as a bad performance appraisal
  - Moods are less intense, longer-lived, and more diffuse feelings
  - **Affective Events Theory:**
    - Jobs consist of a series of events and happenings that have the potential to provoke emotions or to influence moods, depending on how we appraise these events and happenings
    - Emotions and moods can influence job satisfaction
  - **Emotional Contagion**
    - Mood and emotion can also influence job satisfaction through emotional contagion
    - Emotional contagion is the tendency for moods or emotions to spread between people or throughout a group
    - People's moods and emotions tend to converge with interaction
  - **Emotional Regulation**
    - Mood and emotion can also influence job satisfaction through the need for emotional regulation
    - Emotional regulation is the requirement for people to conform to certain "display rules" in their job behaviour in spite of their mood or emotions
    - This is often referred to as "emotional labour"
    - In some jobs, employees must exaggerate positive emotions while in others they must suppress negative emotions
    - All jobs have implicit display rules, however service roles (waiter) are especially laden with them
    - Consequences of emotional regulation
      - The frequent need to suppress negative emotions and fake emotions can lower job satisfaction and increase stress
      - Some research suggests that the need to express positive emotions improves job satisfaction
    - Emotional labour and cognitive demands
      - Those in occupations with high cognitive demands tend to be paid more when the jobs are also high in emotional labour
      - Occupations with low cognitive demand entail a wage penalty when emotional labour is higher

- **Some key Contributors to Job Satisfaction**
  - The facets that seem to contribute the most to feelings of job satisfaction for most North American workers include
    - 1) Mentally changing work
      - Refers to work that tests employee's skills and abilities, allows them to set their own working pace, provides them with clear performance feedback
      - Employees usually perceive such work as personally involving and important
      - Some employees prefer repetitive, unchallenging work that makes few demands of them
    - 2) Adequate compensation
      - Pay and satisfaction are positively related
      - Most employees expect to receive an adequate amount of compensation
      - However, not everyone is equally desirous of money and some people are willing to accept less responsibility or fewer working hours for lower pay
    - 3 Career opportunities
      - The availability of career opportunities and opportunities for promotion are important contributors to job satisfaction
      - Promotions contain material and social signals about a person's self-worth
      - There are cultural and individual differences in what people see as constituting a fair promotion system
    - 4) People (friendly or helpful colleagues)
      - Friendly, considerate, good natured superiors and co-workers contribute to job satisfaction
      - The ability of others to help us do our work and attain outcomes we value also contributes to job satisfaction
      - The friendliness aspect is most important in lower-level jobs with clear duties and in dead-end jobs
      - the ability of others to help us do our work contributes most to job satisfaction when pay is tied to performance, jobs become more complex, and promotion opportunities increase

### **Consequences of Job Satisfaction**

- job satisfaction has a number of consequences
  - **1) absence from work**
    - absenteeism is an expensive behaviour
    - less satisfied employees are more likely to be absent
    - satisfaction with the content of the work is best predictor of absenteeism
    - the absence-satisfaction connection is not very strong

- several factors constrain the ability of many people to convert their like or dislike of work into corresponding attendance patterns:
      - some absence is unavoidable
      - some organizations have attendance control policies that influence absence more than satisfaction does
      - it might be unclear to employees how much absenteeism is reasonable or sensible
    - the norm for absenteeism and the “absence culture” might have a stronger effect than an individual employee’s job satisfaction
- **2) Turnover**
  - turnover refers to resignation from an organization and it can be very expensive
  - research indicates a moderately strong connection between job satisfaction and turnover
  - less-satisfied workers are more likely to quit
  - the relationship is far from perfect
  - the model shows that job satisfaction as well as commitment to the organization and various “shocks” can contribute to turnover intentions to leave
  - research shows that intentions are very good predictors of turnover
  - **shocks:** certain shocks might stimulate turnover despite satisfaction with the current job
  - **organizational commitment:** an employee’s dissatisfaction with his or her job might be offset by a strong commitment to the overall values and mission of the organization. An employee might be so embedded in the community that he or she is willing to endure a dissatisfying job rather than move on
  - a weak job market might result in limited employment alternatives
  - **The Honeymoon-Hangover Effect**
    - A decrease in job satisfaction often precedes turnover, and those who quit experience a boost in job satisfaction in their new job
    - Some of this boost might be due to a “honeymoon effect,” in which the bad facets of the old job are gone, the good facets of the new job are apparent, and the bad facets of the new job are not yet known
    - Over time, as the bad facets of the new job are recognized, a “hangover effect” can occur in which overall satisfaction with the new job decreases
- **3) Performance**
  - Research has found that job satisfaction is associated with high job performance
  - However, the connection is complicated; many factors influence motivation and performance besides job satisfaction

- The most important satisfaction facet for stimulating performance is the content of the work itself
- The connection between job satisfaction and performance is stronger for complex, high-tech jobs and less strong for more routine labour jobs
- Although job satisfaction contributes to performance, performance could also contribute to job satisfaction
- When good performance is followed by rewards, employees are more likely to be satisfied
- Many organizations do not reward good performance sufficiently
- Thus, research indicates that satisfaction is more likely to affect performance, rather than the reverse
- **4) organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB)**
  - OCB is voluntary, informal behaviour that contributes to organizational effectiveness
  - In many cases, the formal performance evaluation system does not detect and reward it
  - Job satisfaction contributes greatly to the occurrence of OCB, more than it does to regular task performance
  - Defining characteristics of OCB
    - The behaviour is voluntary
    - The behaviour is spontaneous
    - The behaviour contributes to organizational effectiveness
    - The behaviour is unlikely to be explicitly picked up and rewarded by the performance evaluation system
  - The various forms that OCB might take:
    - Helping behaviour and offering assistance to others
    - Conscientiousness to the details of work
    - Being a good sport
    - Courtesy and cooperation
  - How does job satisfaction encourage OCB?
    - Fairness seems to be the key
    - Although distributive fairness is important, procedural and interactional fairness from a supportive manager seem especially critical
    - OCB is also influenced by employees' mood at work
  - People in more pleasant, relaxed, optimistic mood are more likely to provide special assistance to others
  - OCB contributes to organizational productivity and efficiency and to reduced turnover
  - As a result, some firms now try to formally recognize OCBs
  - **Progression of Withdrawal**
    - There is sometimes a progression of withdrawal in response to job dissatisfaction and reduced commitment

- People withdraw their attention or work effort to compensate for dissatisfaction
  - This begins with more subtle behaviours and progresses to more extreme behaviours until some equilibrium is struck
  - A reduction in OCB is often the first withdrawal response
  - **This may be followed by coming to work late, then absenteeism, and ultimately turnover**
  - Managers should be alert to increases in the lower forms of withdrawal, because they may signal bigger problems in the future
- **5) customer satisfaction and profit**
    - A growing body of evidence has established that employee job satisfaction is translated into customer or client satisfaction and organizational profitability
    - Organizations with higher average levels of employee satisfaction are more effective
    - The same applies to units within larger organizations
    - How does employee satisfaction translate into customer satisfaction?
      - Reduced absenteeism and turnover contribute to the seamless delivery of service
      - OCBs stimulate good teamwork
      - A good mood among employees can be contagious for customers

## What is Organizational Commitment?

- **Organizational commitment** is an attitude that reflects the strength of the linkage between an employee and an organization
- This linkage has implications for whether someone tends to remain in a organization
- There are three very different types of organizational commitment
  - **1) affective commitment**
    - Commitment based on a person's identification and involvement with an organization
    - People with high affective commitment stay with an organization because *they want to*
    - key contributors
      - the best predictor of affective commitment is interesting, satisfying work of the type found in enriched jobs
      - role clarity and having one's expectations met after being hired also contribute to affective commitment
  - **2) continuance commitment**
    - Commitment based on the costs that would be incurred in leaving an organization
    - People with high continuance commitment stay with an organization because *they have to*

- Key contributors
  - Continuance commitment occurs when people feel that leaving the organization will result in personal sacrifice or they perceive that good alternative employment is lacking
  - Building up “side bets” can lock employees into organizations even though they would rather go elsewhere
  - Continuance commitment increases with the time a person is employed by an organization
- **3) normative commitment**
  - Commitment based on ideology or feeling of obligation to an organization
  - People with high normative commitment stay with an organization because they think that *they should do so*
  - key contributors
    - normative commitment can be fostered by benefits that build a sense of obligation to the organization
    - strong identification with an organization’s product or service can also foster normative commitment
    - socialization practices that emphasize loyalty to the organization can stimulate normative commitment
- Employees can also be committed to various constituencies within and outside the organization
- Each type of commitment could also apply to one’s work team, union, or profession
- The causes of the three forms of commitment tend to differ

### **Consequences of organizational commitment**

- All three forms of commitment reduce turnover intentions and actual turnover
- Affective commitment is positively related to performance
- Continuance commitment is negatively related to performance
- An especially bad combination for both the employee and the organization is high continuance commitment coupled with low affective commitment
- Is there a downside to organizational commitment?
  - Very high levels of commitment can cause conflicts between **family** and work life
  - High levels of commitment have often been implicated in unethical and **illegal** behaviour
  - High levels of commitment to a particular form or style of organization can cause a lack of innovation and lead to resistance when a change in culture is necessary

### **Changes in the workplace and Employee Commitment**

- Changes in the workplace have implications for organizational commitment in three main areas:
  - 1) Changes in the nature of employees’ commitment to the organization
    - Employees’ levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment can increase or decrease
    - Maintaining high levels of affective commitment will be especially challenging

- Changes that are made in the organization's best interest but that are detrimental to employees' well-being are most likely to damage affective commitment
- 2) Changes in the focus of employees' commitment
  - Employees have multiple commitments directed to others within the organization as well as entities outside the organization
  - Changes in the workplace might alter the focus of employees' commitment within and outside the organization
  - Changes that threaten employees' future in the organization might result in a shift in commitment to entities outside the organization
- 3) The multiplicity of employer-employee relationships within organizations
  - Organizations need to be flexible enough to shrink and expand their workforce and they need a workforce that is flexible
  - This requires different relationships with employee groups
  - Core employees who perform the key operations required for organizational success should have high affective commitment
  - High affective commitment is less important for employee groups that do not perform core tasks (temporary workers)