

Introduction to Organizational Behaviour

Chapter 1 Theory and research

Evidence-based management

- Translating principles derived from scientific evidence into organizational practices
 - Managers decide based on the best available science
- EBM is more likely to result in attainment of organizational goals

Through research!

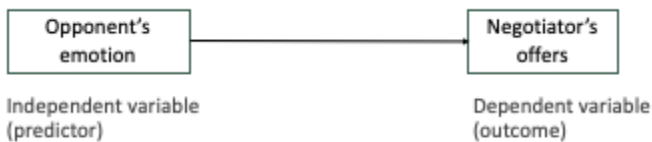
- Research is a way of finding out about the world through objective and systematic information gathering
- OB researchers follow strict research methods to conduct quality research
 - separates OB from opinion and common sense

Why should you care?

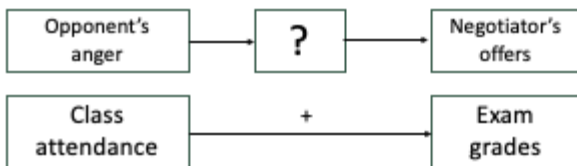
- You are a consumer of OB research
 - Textbooks, business press, professors
- A critical perspective is necessary to evaluate workplace interventions
- Your knowledge of OB research can enable you to practice EBM

Hypotheses

- A formal statement of the expected relationship between two variables

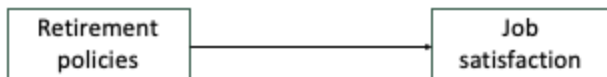


Mediators



Moderators

- Influence the *strength* of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable



Constructs

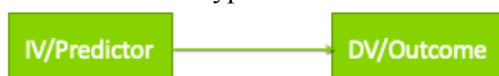
- Oftentimes, we want to study concepts that cannot be directly observed
 - Eg. does fairness in the workplace predict employee motivation?
- We call these abstract concepts **constructs**
- Even though constructs cannot be directly observed, we can develop measures to tap into them

Measures should be reliable and valid

- Measures should be **RELIABLE**
- Measures should also be **VALID**
 - **CONVERGENT** validity: good measures are strongly related to other measures of the same variable
 - **DISCRIMINANT** validity: good measures are not related to measures of different variables

Conducting OB research

- Decide on your research question
- Use past research and existing theory to formulate a new **HYPOTHESIS**
 - Hypothesis: Formal statement of the expected relationship between two or more variables



- Design your study
- Select reliable and valid measures

- Collect your data
- Analyze data and report findings

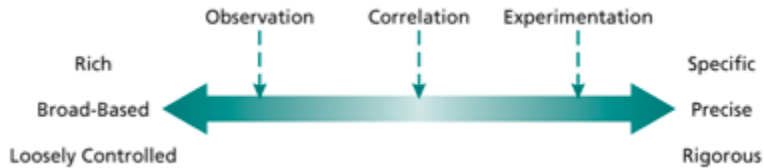
Research methods

Research designs

- Experiments
- Correlational studies
 - Eg. surveys and other quantitative methods (e.g organizational records of attendance, absenteeism, performance, etc.)
- Observations

Continuum of techniques

- Techniques can be used in combination or in series
- Eg. a survey (correlational design) followed by an experiment



Experiment

- In an experiment, one variable (the independent variable) is **manipulated or changed under controlled conditions**
- The effect of this manipulation on some other variable (the dependent variable) is **measured**

(example)

IV: Training/No training	DV: Employee productivity	Manipulate the IV	Measure the DV	Hold everything else constant
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- Conclusion
 - We can infer that the training affected employee productivity

Random sampling and assignment

- In research, we often gather information from a few sources (eg., 200 employees) to draw conclusions about the larger population (eg., employees in general)
- How can we ensure that our results generalize to the larger population?
- Random sampling:
 - Randomly select participants from the population
 - Larger samples are more representative of the population
- Random assignment:
 - Applies to experiments only
 - Randomly assigning participants to treatment/control conditions
 - Gives us confidence that the results are really due to our manipulation (our independent variable) as opposed to other difference between the people across the conditions
- Example
 - Randomly assign employees to a group with a trained supervisor or an untrained supervisor
 - Random assignment ensures that our two groups are as similar as possible
 - (eg. age, gender, tenure, personality, etc)
- Any differences in productivity must be due to supervisory training

Validity - evaluating the quality of a study

- Internal validity
 - The extent to which a researcher can be confident that changes in a dependent variable are due to the independent variable
 - Eg. if we didn't randomly assign participants
- External validity
 - The extent to which the results of a study generalize to other samples and settings

Correlational techniques

- Surveys and other correlational designs (eg. existing data from an organization's records)
- What do we get from surveys?
 - Casual relations?

Conditions for causality

- Correlation
 - Change in one variable is associated with change in other variables
- Temporal precedent
 - Change in the predictor must precede change in the outcome
- No third variable
 - The relationship between the two variables is not due to a third variable



Correlation vs causation

- Method:
 - Employee questionnaire
- Based on this study, should an organization attempt to select friendly supervisors (or train existing supervisors to be more friendly) to obtain higher productivity?
 - NO – the relationship is correlational, not causal.
 - Supervisors might be friendly if their employees are productive
 - Correlation does not mean causation

Relationships between variables

- Correlation: “x is related to y” or “x and y are associated”
 - X and Y change together
- Causal relationship: “x leads to y” or “y results from x” or “x predicts y”
 - X changes first and then cause Y to change too
- Knowing the correlation \neq Knowing the causal relationship (what causes what)

Observational design

- Listening to what people say and watching what people do in an organization
- Direct observation or participant observation

Advantage and disadvantage observational

- **Advantages**
 - Depth
 - Breadth
 - Richness
 - Spontaneity
 - Realism
- **Disadvantage**
 - Lack of control
 - A small number of cases
 - Limited generalizability to other settings
 - Researcher's presence may influence the people being studied

Ethics

- Researchers are obligated to do rigorous research and to report that research accurately
- The well being of research participants is important
- Avoid unnecessary deception; inform participants of the research purpose; maintain anonymity and voluntary participation; do no harm to participants!

Hawthorne effect

- Research subjects can react to being studied and change their behaviour
- Refers to a favourable response of subjects in an experiment to a factor other than the IV or treatment
- This “other factor” is psychological in nature such as subjects’ reactions to special attention

Learning

Operant learning theory

- B.F Skinner (1990)
- Behaviourism
 - “Behaviour is a consequence of experiences with one’s environment”
- The subject learns to operate on the environment to achieve certain consequences
- Operantly learned behaviour is controlled by the consequence that follows it
 - People learn the connection between a behaviour and a consequence
- Law of effect
 - People repeat behaviours that bring them satisfaction and pleasure and stop those that bring them dissatisfaction and pain

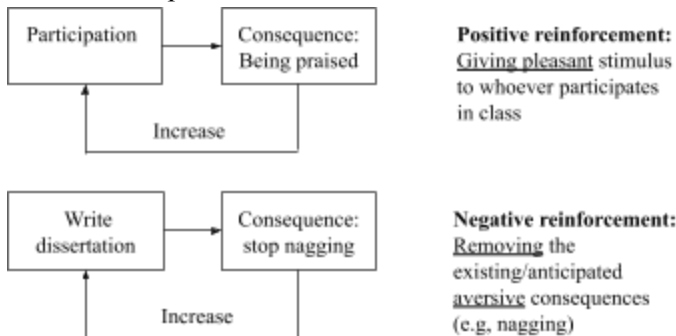
4 learning processes

- Increase the probability of behaviour: 2 ways to reinforce behaviour
- Decrease the probability of behaviour: 2 ways to prevent behaviour

	Pleasant Stimulus	Aversive (unpleasant) Stimulus
Adding/Presenting	Positive Reinforcement (to increase/maintain)	Punishment (to decrease/terminate)
Removing/Taking Away	Extinction (to decrease/terminate)	Negative Reinforcement (to increase/maintain)

Increasing the Probability of Behavior - Reinforcement

- Sometimes behaviours are beneficial to the operation of an organization and they need to be reinforced
- A reinforcer is a stimulus that follows some behaviour and increases or maintains the probability of that behaviour
 - Positive reinforcement: addition of a pleasant stimulus
 - Negative reinforcement: removal of an unpleasant stimulus
- The reinforcer is contingent on the occurrence of some desired behaviour
 - If the behaviour occurs, *then* the reinforcer occurs
- Examples

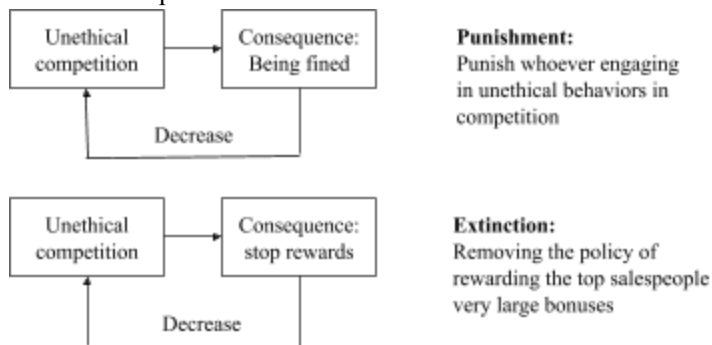


Effective Reinforcement in Organization

- **Contingent** on the specific desired behaviour
- Diverse individual preferences
 - Make it personally meaningful
- Sources and forms of reinforcement
 - Performance feedback
 - Social recognition
 - The formal employee recognition program

Reducing the Probability of Behavior

- Sometimes behaviours are **detrimental** to the organization and need to be reduced or eliminated
- Two strategies that can reduce the probability of learned behaviour:
- **Punishment**
 - Application of an aversive stimulus
- **Extinction**
 - The gradual dissipation of behaviour following the termination or removal of positive reinforcement
 - Works best when coupled with the reinforcement of some desired substitute behaviour
- Examples



Negative reinforcement ≠ Punishment!

- Negative reinforcement: REINFORCES a behaviour
- Punishment: REDUCES a behaviour

In the media...

- “There's a reason telecom customers are often frustrated when they deal with a call centre — employees are **penalized** if they reduce or cancel a customer's services, so some try all kinds of tactics to avoid doing that.
- Harley [a call centre employee] said sales reps **earn points** toward a commission for every product and service they sell, such as a home security system or extra TV channels.
- But they **lose points** every time they cancel a customer's service.
- ‘I would do everything I could not to cancel a customer's services, even though that's what they wanted,’ says Harley.
- The system created ‘**a culture of dishonesty**,’ he says, where some sales reps used various tactics to avoid having to reduce a customer's services and see their commissions drop.”

Using Punishment Effectively

- Limit the emotions involved in punishment.
- Make sure the chosen punishment is truly aversive.
- Provide an acceptable alternative response for the punished response. (“This is not appropriate. Then what?”)
- Punish immediately or reinstate the circumstances surrounding the problem behaviour at a more appropriate time.
- Do not reward unwanted behaviours before or after punishment, and do not inadvertently punish desirable behaviour.

Reinforcement Strategies

How often should we reinforce behaviours?

When should we reinforce behaviour

Exhibit 2.3
Summary of reinforcement
strategies and their effects.



Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura)

- But we can also learn on our own...
- 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 the consequences of their actions,
 - setting goals,

- monitoring performance,
- and rewarding themselves.

Components of Social Cognitive Theory

- **Observational learning** (i.e., learning behaviour consequences)
- Increasing **self-efficacy** via behaviour modelling
- **Self-regulation**

Observational Learning

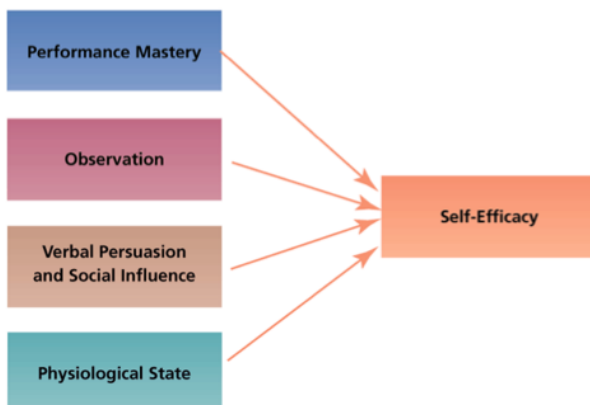
- The process of imitating the behaviour of others:
 - Examining the behaviour of *others*
 - Seeing the consequences *they* experience
 - Thinking about what might happen if *we* act the same way
 - Imitating the behaviour if we expect favourable consequences
- Modelling other people's behaviour increases **self-efficacy**
 - People gain confidence after observing others and then
 - successfully performing the task themselves
 - Self-efficacy improves most when observers are similar to the
 - model in age, experience, gender, and related characteristics

Self-efficacy

- Beliefs people have about their ability to successfully perform a specific task
 - It is a belief that can be changed and modified in response to different sources of information
 - Influences the activities people choose to perform, the amount of effort and persistence devoted to a task, affective and stress reactions, and job performance

Determinants of self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is influenced by four sources of information



Self-regulation

- Employees use of learning principles to manage their *own* behaviour
 - Self-observation: collect objective data
 - Observe models
 - Set a goal
 - Rehearse
 - Self-reinforcement
 - Set a new (more challenging) goal

Organizational learning practices

- Organizational behaviour modification
- Employee recognition programs
- Training and development programs
- Career development

Personality

- Personality
 - What is personality and why does it matter to OB?

- Major OB debate different approaches
 - Dispositional, situational, and interactionist
- Five factor (“Big Five”) model
 - What is the five factor model of personality?
- Jungian personality theory
 - Measured with the Myers Briggs type indicator

Personality

- The relatively enduring pattern of thoughts, emotions, and behaviours that characterize a person Influences the way an individual interacts with his or her environment and how he or she feels, thinks and behaves

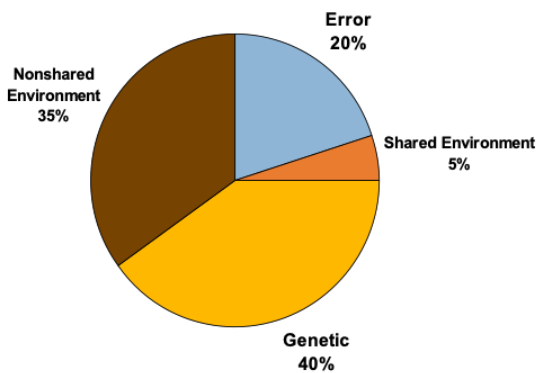
Bashful	Bold	Cooperative	Efficient	Imaginative	Moody	Philosophical	Quiet	Systematic	Touchy
Careless	Cold	Disorganized	Envious	Inefficient	warm	Sympathetic	Rude	Talkative	Organized
Complex	Deep	Unsympathetic	Fretful	Jealous	Practical	Tempermental	Shy	Uncreative	Unenvious
Creative	Kind	Extraverted	Harsh	Intellectual	Relaxed	Unintellectual	Sloppy	Energetic	Withdrawn

Nature or Nurture

- How does personality develop?
- Can personality change?
- Is personality genetically determined, or is it formed by experience?
- Nature vs Nurture?
 - Heredity sets the limits on the development of personality characteristics
 - Environment determines development with these limits

The evidence

- Genetic 40%
- Shared environment 5%
- Education friends 35%
- Error 29%



Personality and organization behaviour

The dispositional approach

- Focuses on individual dispositions and personality
 - Individuals possess stable traits or characteristics that influence attitudes and behaviour
 - Individuals are predisposed to behave in certain ways

The situational approach

- Characteristics of the organizational setting influence people’s feelings, attitudes and behaviour
 - Many studies have shown that situational factors such as the characteristics of work tasks predict job satisfaction

The interactionist approach

- Behaviour is a function of both dispositions and the situation
 - To predict and understand organizational behaviour, we need to know something about an individual’s personality and the work setting
- Most widely accepted approach to OB

Situational strength

- Situations vary in the range of behavioural responses seen as appropriate
 - Strong situation
 - Clearly defined roles, strong behavioural norms, high predictability due to few appropriate behaviours
 - Personality is less influential in strong situations
 - Weak situation
 - Loosely defined roles and rules, few external constraints on individuals
 - Personality has the strongest effect in weak situations
- Examples

Strong situation	Weak situation
Funeral	Shopping
Job interview	Hanging out at home
Library	Talking with friends or family
Court	Party

Implications of the interactionist approach

- Some personality characteristics are useful in certain organizational situations
- Appreciate the advantages of employee diversity
- The importance of *fit* putting the right person in the right job, group, or organization
 - There is no one best personality!
 - Or situation

Personality factors

- Some of these traits CORRELATE
 - People who score high on one trait tend to also score high (or low) on a different trait
 - E.g., people who are cooperative also tend to be warm and sympathetic and are relatively unlikely to be rude
- Research has identified five main clusters – or “factors” – of personality traits that tend to correlate
- These factors are often referred to as the **five factor or “Big Five” model**

Five factor model mix up (ocean)

- Five basic, general independent dimensions that describe personality
 - **1. Extraversion**
 - The extent to which a person is energetic, sociable, outgoing and assertive versus shy and reserved
 - **2. Neuroticism/emotional stability**
 - The extent to which a person has emotional control and stability
 - **3. Agreeable**
 - The extent to which a person is warm, friendly and approachable
 - **4. Conscientiousness**
 - The degree to which a person is responsible, dependable and achievement oriented
 - **5. Openness to experience**
 - The extent to which a person is open to new ideas and flexible in thinking

Extraversion

- High or low extraversion (or introversion)
- Extraverts get their energy from the outer world (e.g., people around them), whereas introverts derive energy from the internal world (e.g., personal reflection)
- Extraverts (versus introverts) are less comfortable without social interaction
- Extraversion is important for jobs that require interpersonal interaction and where being sociable, assertive, energetic, and ambitious is important for success

Neuroticism/Emotional stability

- High or low emotional stability or neuroticism
- People high on emotional stability will have more effective interactions with coworkers and customers as they tend to be more poised, calm, and secure

Agreeableness

- High or low agreeableness (disagreeable)
- Contributes to job performance in jobs that:
 - Require interaction, involve helping others, cooperating, and nurturing others, as well as in jobs that involve teamwork and cooperation

Conscientiousness

- High or low conscientiousness (or unconscientious)
- Important for job performance in most jobs given the tendency towards hard work and achievement.

Openness to experience

- High or low openness
- Low: more resistant to change, less open to new ideas
- Important for jobs that involve learning and creativity given the tendency to be intellectual, curious, and imaginative

How do we test personality?

- Self report assessments
- Observational techniques
 - Involves having someone describe another person. Observations are based on personal, firsthand experience
 - Example: Job interview

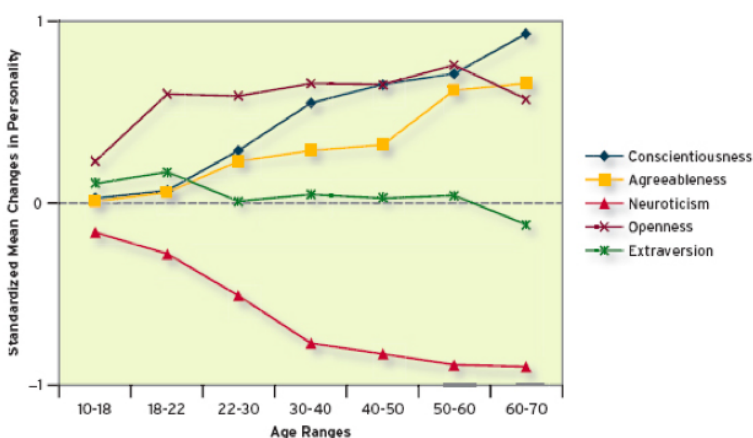
The five factor model of personality: Research

- Replicates across cultures
- Each of the “Big Five” dimensions is related to job performance
- Best predictors of job performance on the occupation/position
- Conscientiousness is the strongest predictor of overall job performance across all occupation

Fivefactor model and job performance

Extraversion	Emotional Stability	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Openness to Experience
Sociable, Talkative vs. Withdrawn, Shy	Stable, Confident vs. Depressed, Anxious	Tolerant, Cooperative vs. Cold, Rude	Dependable, Responsible vs. Careless, Impulsive	Curious, Original vs. Dull, Unimaginative

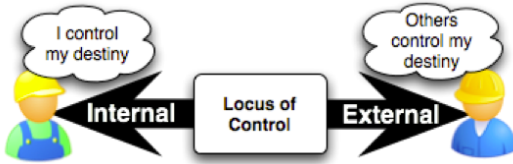
How stable



Locus of control

- A person's general beliefs about the amount of control he/she has over personal life events
 - **Internals**

- Believe that the opportunity to control their own behaviour resides within themselves (eg. Motivation, abilities)
 - **Externals**
 - Believe that the external forces determine their behaviour (eg. fate, other people)
- Research
 - Who is more satisfied with their jobs: internally or externally?
 - Internals perform better, are more satisfied with their jobs, earn more money, and achieve higher organizational positions
 - Internals perceive less stress, cope better with stress, and engage in more careful career planning



Self monitoring

- The extent to which people observe and regulate how they appear and behave in social settings and relationships

Self-monitoring: research

- High self monitors:
 - More involved in their jobs, perform better, and are more likely to emerge as leaders
 - Likely to experience more role stress and show less commitment to their organization
 - More likely to change employers and locations and to receive more promotions

Self esteem

- The extent to which people like, respect, and are satisfied with themselves
 - People may have different degrees of self esteem across their various roles (eg. Good student, poor driver)
 - Together these make up an overall evaluation global self esteem
- Research
 - People with low self esteem tend to be more susceptible to external and social influences than those who have high self esteem
 - Events and people in organizations have more impact on the beliefs and actions of employees with low self esteem
 - Employees with low self esteem react badly to negative feedback Lowers subsequent performance

Positive and negative affectivity: Research

- People with higher PA report
 - Higher job satisfaction
 - Higher job performance
 - More creative
- People with higher NA report
 - Lower job satisfaction
 - Lower job performance
- People with higher NA experience
 - More stressful conditions at work and report higher levels of workplace stress and strain
- NA has also been found to be related to more
 - Counterproductive work behaviours, withdrawal behaviours, and occupational injury

Proactive personality

- Reflects a tendency to take personal initiative across a range of activities and situations and to affect positive change in one's environment
- Proactive individuals
 - Search for and identify opportunities, show initiative, take action, and preserve until they bring about meaningful change
- Research
 - Proactive personality is related to:
 - Job performance

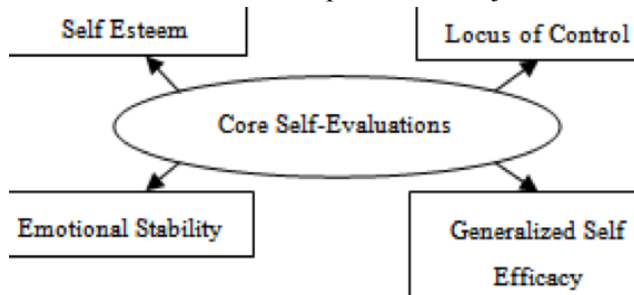
- Tolerance for stress
- Leadership effectiveness
- Participation in organizational initiatives
- Work team performance
- Entrepreneurship
- Career success

General self-efficacy

- Refers to an individual's belief in his or her ability to perform successfully in a variety of challenging situations
 - Contributes to job satisfaction and job performance

Core self-evaluations

- A broad personality concept that consists of specific traits that reflect the evaluations people hold about themselves and their self-worth, competence, and capability
- Research
 - People with more positive CSEs have
 - Higher job satisfaction, life and career satisfaction, job performance
 - Individuals with higher CSE
 - Perceive fewer stressors and experience less stress and conflict at work
 - Employees with more positive CSEs
 - Experience their job as more intrinsically satisfying and they are likely to have more complex jobs



MyersBriggs type indicator

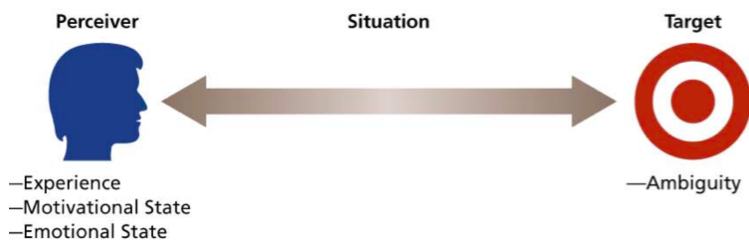
- Most popular personality test in organizations (and career counselling)
- Not a good predictor of job performance; not recommended for selection
- Jungian personality theory is **not** very well supported

Perception, attribution, and diversity

What is perception

- The process of interpreting the message of our senses to provide order and meaning to it
 - Environmental stimuli are received through our senses
 - Only some information is attended to (selective attention)
 - We don't just receive information, we also interpret it
- Our actions are based on our interpretation of reality

Factors that influence perception



Social identity theory

- People form perceptions of themselves based on their personal characteristics (personal identity) and memberships in social categories (social identity)
- Personal and social identities help us answer the question "who am i?"
- We hold multiple social identities (e.g. TRSM student, ryerson student, torontonian, canadian)
 - Salience of each identity depends of the situation

Bruner's perceptual process

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"

Bruner's model of the perceptual process

- Why do we ignore new contradictory information?
 - Perception is
 - Selective
 - Constant
 - Consistent

Basic biases in person perception

- The impressions we form of others are susceptible to a number of perceptual biases
 - Primary and recency effects
 - Primary effect
 - The tendency for a perceiver to rely early cues or first impressions
 - Recency effect
 - The tendency for a perceiver to rely on recent cues or last impressions
 - Reliance on central traits
 - People tend to organize their perceptions around central traits
 - Central traits are personal characteristics of a target person that are particular interest to a perceiver
 - Central traits often have a very powerful influence on our perception of others
 - Physical appearance, height, weight
 - Implicit personality theories
 - Personal theories that people have about which personality characteristics go together
 - If such implicit theories are inaccurate, they provide a basis for misunderstanding
 - Projection
 - The tendency for perceivers to attribute their own thought and feelings onto 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 perceptual process in which we assign characteristics to an identifiable group and then automatically apply those features to anyone we believe is a member of that group
 - Categories on which people might base a stereotype include race, age, gender, ethnic, background, social class, and occupation
 - Results in generalizations about people in a social category and ignores variations among them

Stereotyping process

- We distinguish some category of people
- We assume that the individuals in this category have certain traits
- We perceive that everyone in this category possesses these traits

Why do people stereotype?

- Its efficient
 - We don't have enough to process all the information we encounter
 - Rely on processes that help us make sense and would respond to novel situations quickly

Measuring stereotypes

- People may be unwilling or unable to self-report (negative) stereotypes
- Researchers have tried to find other ways to measure (unconscious) biases
 - Example: implicit association test
 - Measures the strength of associations between concepts (e.g. women; black people) and evaluation (e.g. good; bad) or stereotypes (e.g. nurturing; athletic)
 - Underlying idea: making a response is easier when closely related items share the same response key

Biases can have significant consequences

- Implicit biases have been found to predict (to a small but significant degree)
 - Call backs from resumes (rooth, 2007)
 - Hiring women (RUDMAN & GLICK, 2001)
 - Police use of force (goff et al., 2014)
 - Cutting minority student organization budgets (rudman et al., 2007)
 - Etc

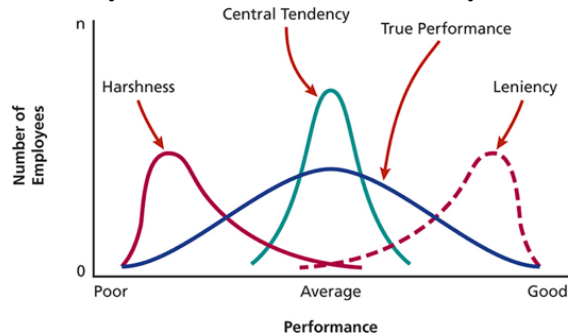
Why do stereotypes persist?

- Several factors work to reinforce inaccurate stereotypes
 - Even incorrect stereotypes help us process information about others quickly and efficiency
 - Inaccurate stereotypes are often reinforced by selective perception

Problems with stereotyping

- Stereotyping lays the foundation for unintentional and intentional discrimination
- The phenomenon whereby members of a stereotyped group are concerned that they might exhibit a negative feature of the stereotype
 - Example: Women taking a math exam who are reminded of the stereotype that women are worse at math than men may get anxious, which may lead them to perform worse

Leniency, harshness, central tendency



Halo effect

- When our general impression of a person – usually based on a prominent characteristic – distorts our perception of other characteristics of that person
- Most likely to occur when we lack relevant information or are unmotivated to seek out information

Similar-to-me effect

- Tendency to favour people who are similar to us (e.g., in terms of demographics such as age or race, personality, or attitude)
- It is not difficult to imagine how this might influence hiring decisions

Attribution theory

- Perception about understanding What, whereas attribution is about Understanding why
 - Why did my coworker not show up work?
 - Why did person X perform better than person Y?
 - Why did I not receive the compensation that I expected?
 - Why is this happening to me?
- Attributions are important predictors of attitudes and behaviour

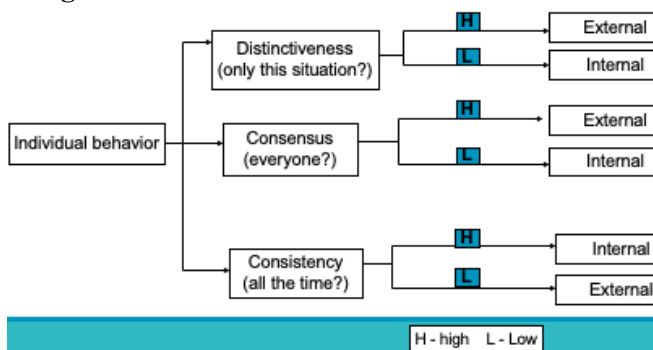
Attribution: forming beliefs about causes

- Attribution is the process by which we assign causes to explain behaviour and events
 - About understanding WHY
- Is it mainly caused by characteristics of
 - The person (internal) - e.g., ability, motivation
 - OR
 - Situation (external) - e.g., resources, social support, luck
 - Remember: could be both

Attribution cues

- Consensus cue
 - Do most people engage in the behaviour (consensus) or is it unique to this person?
 - Between people
- Consistency cue:
 - Does the person engage in the behaviour regularly and consistently?
 - Within the same person
- Distinctiveness cue:
 - Does the person engage in the behaviour in many situations (low distinctiveness) or is it distinctive to one situation (high distinctiveness)?
 - Across situations
- Observers put information about consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness together to form attributions.

Using attribution cues



Biases in Attribution

- Our attributions are not always correct
 - Self serving bias
 - The tendency to attribute our failures more to external causes (e.g., bad luck) and crediting successes more to internal causes (e.g., intelligence)
 - Helps us maintain a positive self concept
 - Fundamental attribution error (correspondence bias)
 - The tendency to attribute other people's behaviour to internal causes while ignoring or discounting external cause

Valuing diversity

- Because it is the right thing to do
- Strategic and competitive advantages

Other common stereotypes

- Gender
- Age
- Lgbtq

Trust

- "A willingness to be vulnerable and to take risks with respect to the actions of another party"
 - Ability:
 - perceptions regarding management's competence and skills

- *Benevolence*:
 - the extent to which employees perceive management as caring and concerned for their interests and willing to do good for them
- *Integrity*:
 - perceptions that management adheres to and behaves according to a set of values and principles that the employee finds acceptable.

Perceived organizational support

- “Employees’ general belief that their organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being”
- Associated with:
 - Higher trust, job performance, job satisfaction, organization commitment, engagement
 - Lower absenteeism, turnover intentions, stress
- Norm of reciprocity:
 - A felt obligation to help the organization achieve its goals and objectives in return for its perceived support

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** and very **general**
 - Achievement, power, autonomy, conformity, tradition, and social welfare
- Value differences
 - Generational, cultural

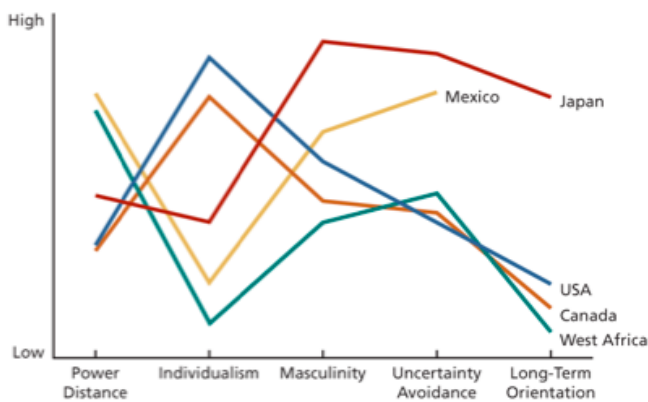
Cultural differences in values

- There are basic differences in work-related values across cultures.
 - Problems for negotiations, operations, careers
 - E.g. Work centrality

Hofstede’s study

- Questioned over 116,000 IBM employees in 40 countries about their work-related values.
- Four basic dimensions:
 - Power distance
 - Uncertainty avoidance
 - Masculinity/femininity
 - Individualism/collectivism
- Subsequent study (Bond):
 - Long- vs. short-term orientation

Cross-culture value comparisons



Generational stereotypes

- **Traditionalists**: Respectful of authority and a strong work ethic.
- **Boomers**: Optimistic workaholics.
- **Gen X**: Cynical, confident, and pragmatic.
- **Gen Y (millennials)**: Confident, social, demanding of feedback, and somewhat unfocused.
- *Are these stereotypes accurate?*

What are attitudes?

- An **attitude** is a fairly stable evaluative tendency to respond to some specific object, situation, person, or group of people.
- In other words, attitudes involve *enduring evaluations* directed toward *specific targets*.
- Attitudes are *judgments*, whereas emotions are *experiences*.

Where do attitudes come from?

- Three components of attitudes:
 - **Beliefs**
 - Thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs about the target
 - E.g., “My job is interfering with my family life”
 - These beliefs also have a *valence* (they’re associated with a negative/positive evaluation) ■ E.g., “Anything that interferes with my family is bad”
 - **Feelings**
 - Feelings toward the target
 - E.g., “I dislike my job”
 - **Behavioural intentions**
 - The tendency to respond to the target; e.g., approach vs. avoid
 - E.g., “I want to look for a different job”

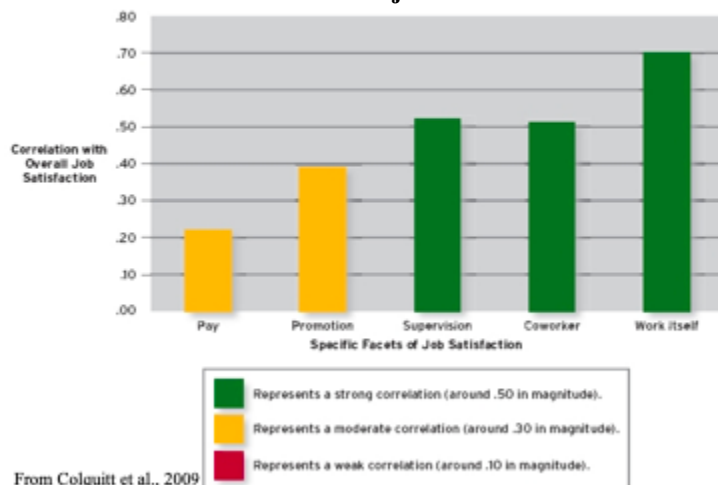
What is job satisfaction?

- A collection of **attitudes** that people have about their jobs
- Two aspects of satisfaction:
 - Global = Job in general
 - Facets = Specific aspects of the job
- Five Core Facets
 - Pay, Promotions, Coworkers, Supervision, Work itself
- Other facets
 - Benefits, Work Schedules, Recognition, Working conditions, Company/Management

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:
 - Mentally challenging work
 - Adequate compensation
 - Career opportunities
 - People (friendly or helpful colleagues)

Correlations facets and overall job satisfaction



Discrepancy

- A theory that job satisfaction stems from the **discrepancy** between the job outcomes wanted and the outcomes that are perceived to be obtained
- Example:

- Satisfaction with pay is high when there is only a small gap between the pay received and the perception of how much pay *should* be received.

Equity theory (adams)

- Proposes that job satisfaction stems from a **comparison** of the **inputs** one invests in a job and the **outcomes** one receives in comparison to the **inputs** and **outcomes** of **another person**.
- Equity will be perceived when the following distribution **ratios** exist:
- **Inputs** refer to anything that people give up, offer, or trade to their organization in exchange for outcomes
 - E.g., education, working hours
- **Outcomes** are factors that an organization distributes to employees in exchange for their inputs
 - E.g., pay, benefits, vacation days
- The **other** in the equation might be a co-worker performing the same job, a number of co-workers, or even one's conception of all the individuals in one's occupation
- People perceive inequity when their outcome-to-input ratio is smaller or larger than the ratio of the comparison "other":
 - When their ratio is small by comparison, they feel under-advantaged (e.g., underpaid)
 - When their ratio is large, they feel over-advantaged (e.g., overpaid)
 - Inequity can lead to dissatisfaction

Outcomes	Inputs
Pay	Effort
Seniority benefits	Performance
Fringe benefits	Skills and abilities
Status symbols	Education
Satisfying supervision	Experience
Workplace perks	Training
Intrinsic rewards	Seniority

$$\frac{\text{My outcomes}}{\text{My inputs}} = \frac{\text{Other's outcomes}}{\text{Other's inputs}}$$

Forms of organizational justice

- **Distributive justice**
 - Perceived fairness of the outcomes people receive
 - E.g., **equity**, equality (everyone receives the same), or need-based
- **Procedural justice**
 - Perceived fairness of the way/processes by which allocation decisions are made
- **Interactional justice**
 - Perceived fairness of the treatment received during the decision-making process
 - Interpersonal justice: respect and dignity
 - Informational justice: adequacy and completeness

Procedural justice

- Fairness of the **procedures** that are used to determine work outcomes
 - Consistent?
 - Free of bias?
 - Based on accurate information?
 - Allowed to provide input (voice)?
 - Options for appeal?

Interactional justice

- Fairness of **communications** about outcomes
 - Respect, politeness, dignity
 - Candid, timely, and thorough information
- Procedural and interactional justice are important, too!
- Unfavorable outcomes are inevitable from time to time – employees are more likely to accept these outcomes when procedural and interactional justice are high

Emotions

- What is an Emotion

- Follow from (very quick) appraisals (i.e., evaluations) of the environment
- Targeted at a specific object/event
- Relatively short-lived and intense
- Emotions can influence our attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction)
- Emotions are also associated with specific behavioral motivations
 - Note: Just because someone is *motivated* to behave a certain way doesn't mean that they will!

Other types of feelings

- **Moods**
 - Unlike emotions, moods are not directed at anything/anyone in particular (“*he’s just in a bad mood*”)
 - Moods also tend to be less intense and last longer than emotions
 - Not associated with specific expressions or behavioral motivations
- **Trait Positive and Negative Affectivity (week 2!)**
 - Some people tend to experience positive/negative feelings more frequently than others
 - These stable individual differences (i.e., traits) are often measured with the Positive and Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS)
 - Similar to the “emotional personality” test from the textbook
- **Affect**
 - A general catch-all term to refer to feelings. Emotions and moods are subtypes of affect

Emotional contagion

- The tendency for moods and emotions to spread between people or throughout groups
 - People’s moods/emotions tend to become more similar with repeated interaction
 - Teams that experience more positive affect tend to be more cooperative, helpful, and successful. This all contributes to job satisfaction!
 - Emotional contagion can also affect employee-customer interactions
 - When an employee expresses more positive affect, this can put the customer in a good mood, which then contributes to customer satisfaction

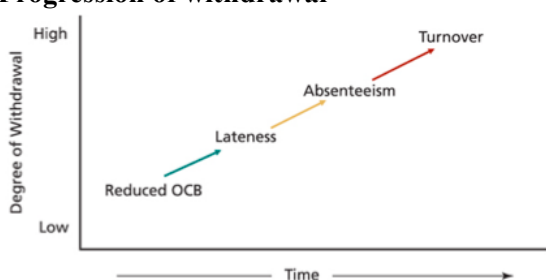
Emotional labour

- “Service with a smile”
- “Your troubles should be masked with a smile...once an unhappy or dissatisfied customer walks out the door, they are gone forever!” - *from a customer service handbook*
- **Surface acting (faking it)**
 - Emotional regulation of observed expression
 - Suppressing & faking
- **Deep acting (“faking in good faith”)**
 - Emotional regulation of underlying feeling
 - Refocusing attention & reappraising

Consequences of job satisfaction

- Absence from work
- Turnover
- Performance
- Organizational citizenship behaviour
- Customer satisfaction and profit

Progression of withdrawal



Organizational commitment

- An attitude that reflects the strength of the **linkage** between an employee and an organization.
- **Affective commitment**
 - Emotional attachment and identification
 - “Want to” stay
- **Continuance commitment**
 - Due to the costs that would be associated with leaving or lack of alternatives
 - “Need to” stay
- **Normative commitment**
 - A feeling of obligation to an organization
 - “Ought to” stay

Normative commitment

- Commitment based on ideology or a feeling of obligation to an organization.
- People with high normative commitment stay with an organization because they think they *should* do so.

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 a low affective commitment

Building affective commitment

- Justice and support
 - *Stay tuned for more about organizational justice after reading week!*
- Shared values
- Trust
 - “The positive expectations that one person has toward another person or group in situations involving risk”
- Organizational comprehension
- Employee involvement