

3

BEHAVIOR IN ORGANIZATIONS

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- A Discuss three sets of important employee behaviors.
- A Identify three major categories of ability.
- A Describe the perceptual process and understand major influences at each stage in the process.
- A Differentiate between three types of learning.
- A Describe four theories of personality and identify six key personality characteristics,
- A Discuss needs and explain why assumptions about needs are important.
- A Identify key work attitudes and analyze their links to employee behaviors.
- A Describe values and the roles they play.

Managers are responsible for getting work done through others. As such, they must be concerned with employee behaviors and with factors which influence those behaviors. In this chapter we will consider some important employee behaviors, including participation, effort, and performance. Then, we will look at a variety of factors which may be related to those behaviors. They include ability, perceptions, learning, personality, needs, attitudes, and values.

Knowledge of these factors should help the manager in understanding, predicting, and influencing employee behaviors. We will touch on all these topics again in later chapters, and some will be examined in much more depth. Other determinants of behavior, such as job characteristics, leadership, and group influences, are not directly considered here. However, we'll need to refer to many of the issues discussed in this chapter when we do address those topics.

SOME IMPORTANT WORK BEHAVIORS

While there may be a temptation to focus just on performance as the "bottom line" work behavior, many employee behaviors are important. We'll consider in this section measures of participation, effort, and performance.

Participation

Participation is simply being at work to do the job. Three key measures of participation are attendance (coming to work on a particular

day], timeliness (getting to work on time], and retention (keeping your job). These behaviors are often discussed in terms of their negative "flip sides": absenteeism, tardiness, and turnover.

Attendance. **Attendance** relates to whether or not an employee reports for work on a given day. Failure to attend—**absenteeism**—can be quite costly for companies. Typically, companies continue to pay absent employees. Furthermore, absenteeism causes costly disruptions such as the need for rescheduling work and employees. One estimate is that such disruptions cause productivity to drop by as much as 2.5 percent for every 1 percent increase in absenteeism.¹ Those disruptions may also result in quality decrements since regular employees are replaced by "swing" employees who move from one job to another. The defect-plagued "Monday car" is one example. It has been estimated that 400 million person-days are lost in the U.S. annually due to absenteeism—about four times the amount lost in strikes.— Total annual costs of absenteeism have been put at as much as \$26.4 billion.³

In recent years, absenteeism in the U.S. has averaged about 2 to 3 percent of total work days annually. It is hard to sort out how much of this absenteeism is avoidable (that is, due primarily to the employee's desire simply not to go to work that day) or unavoidable (due to factors such as illness or transportation problems). Even if companies tried to keep track of that distinction, it is unlikely that employees would cooperate by "calling in bored." It is probably the case, though, that avoidable absenteeism makes up a large share of the total.

Timeliness. **Timeliness** is a measure of the degree to which employees come to work on time. Few data are available on timeliness. The costs of the lack of timeliness—**tardiness**—will depend on the situation. If many jobs are tightly linked and if the employee is hard to replace, such costs could be high.

Retention. **Retention** is the condition in which an individual remains with the organization. Its opposite—**turnover**—has many costs including disruption of the work process, recruitment and training of new employees, and low productivity of new employees during the training period. In some industries, turnover rates may actually exceed 100 percent annually. Overall, rates in the U.S. are about 15 percent annually.

1. Bureau of National Affairs, "Absenteeism Policy Guide," *BNA Policy and Practices Manual* no. 518 (1981), 214:101, p. 23.

2. S. F. Yolks, P. A. Carone, and L. W. Krinsky, *Absenteeism in Industry* [Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, Pub., 1975]

3. R. M. Steers and S. R. Rhodes, "Major Influences on Employee Attendance: A Process Model," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 63 [August 1978]: 391-407.

Some companies may actually be more concerned with retention than with performance levels. This is because in some instances there may be relatively little the firm can do about improving performance while turnover, as we'll see later, may be more amenable to organizational influence.

Turnover may be voluntary (initiated by the employee] or involuntary (initiated by the firm due to poor performance, disciplinary problems, or the like). Voluntary turnover may further be classified as avoidable, due to things such as dissatisfaction with the firm, or unavoidable, due to factors such as transfer of a spouse.⁴ Clearly, firms would like to examine closely voluntary, avoidable turnover.

Unlike absenteeism, which has few redeeming features, turnover is not a complete evil. That is, turnover by low-performing employees may be a blessing to the firm, and perhaps to mismatched employees, especially when the firm is constrained from tiring such employees.

Effort

Effort is behavior directed toward some goal. Whether or not the goal is achieved may depend upon many things beyond effort including ability, situational constraints, and whether there is a clear understanding of what is to be accomplished. However, since goals are unlikely to be achieved unless an effort is made to reach them, much emphasis of management is directed toward increasing employee effort.

Performance

Performance is the accomplishment of some organizational goal. The goal may be quantity or quality of output, creativity, flexibility, dependability, or anything else desired by the organization. The emphasis may be on the short term or the long term. It may be at the level of the individual, group, unit, or organization. Furthermore, performance may refer to the completion of a task such as decision making or teaching a class or analyzing a stock. The key point to recognize here is that performance should be thought of broadly. A focus just on quantity of output, for instance, would probably be unfortunate.

One performance measure which has been in the spotlight in recent years is **productivity**, a measure of the output of goods or services per unit of input such as human resources, land, and capital. Often, the productivity measure of interest is output per worker hour. U.S. output per worker hour remains greater than that of any other nation. That of Japan, for instance, is about two-thirds as great. However, the rate of growth of U.S. productivity is declining, causing the productivity gap

4. R. B. Dunham, *Organizational Behavior: People and Processes in Management* (Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin, 1984)

between the U.S. and other countries to narrow. As we'll discuss elsewhere, this trend has disturbing implications for U.S. business. It is the catalyst for a variety of proposals for productivity improvement.

ABILITY

Ability is the capacity to perform. Along with effort, it is a key determinant of performance. Many sorts of abilities are relevant to management. Abilities can be divided into three categories: mental, mechanical, and psychomotor.⁵ Each may be important to employee behavior.

Mental or intellectual abilities are important for problem solving. It appears that humans possess a great variety of mental abilities. One popular model puts the number at as high as 120!⁶ We will explore these abilities in Chapter 16, "Problem Solving and Creativity." For now, suffice it to say that mental ability is more than just converging on a solution. It may involve transforming information, generating many alternatives, memorizing, seeking implications, or many other things.

Mechanical abilities relate to the person's capacity to comprehend relationships between objects and to perceive and manipulate how parts fit together.

Psychomotor abilities include such things as manual dexterity, eye-hand coordination, and motor and manipulative ability. Such abilities involve skilled muscular performance typically involving some degree of visual control.

There are many other ways to classify abilities. The key points here are that different abilities may be important from one task to another and that employees may vary substantially in the levels to which they possess those abilities. Such recognition is crucial to understanding and predicting work behaviors. In Chapter 10, "Staffing the Organization," we will consider ways to measure abilities and will discuss ways management can make use of differences in abilities.

PERCEPTIONS

Each of us lives in our own world. It is a world created by our attempts to sift through, to organize, and to interpret the tremendous

5. E. McCormick and J. Tiffin, *Industrial Psychology*, 6th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1974)

6. J. P. Guilford, *The Nature of Human Intelligence* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967)

number of things we see, hear, feel, and otherwise constantly sense. It is different from all other worlds—the unique product of a complex process.

Ms. Johnson, a fast-rising executive, exists in the world of one of her colleagues as hard working and competent, in the world of another, she is driven and ruthless. The "same" job which in Sam's world is boring and routine exists in Carol's world as a source of challenge and opportunity. Mr. Bjornson's subtle messages to Mr. Peterson, carefully crafted and potentially powerful in Mr. Bjornson's world, are nowhere to be found in the world of Mr. Peterson.

The "truth" in our world depends on whether something is consistent with the rest of that world. Moreover, the nature of our unique world helps determine how we behave. How are these private worlds created? What makes each unique? How are we to deal with people living in other worlds?

In this section we will consider the nature of the perceptual process, noting key influences at each step and associated problems. We will then review the related process of causal attribution. Finally, we will discuss ways to reduce perceptual error.



"He's to the truth as oerccwod by vou."

Source: Drawing by Victor, *The New Yorker Magazine, Inc.*, 1980

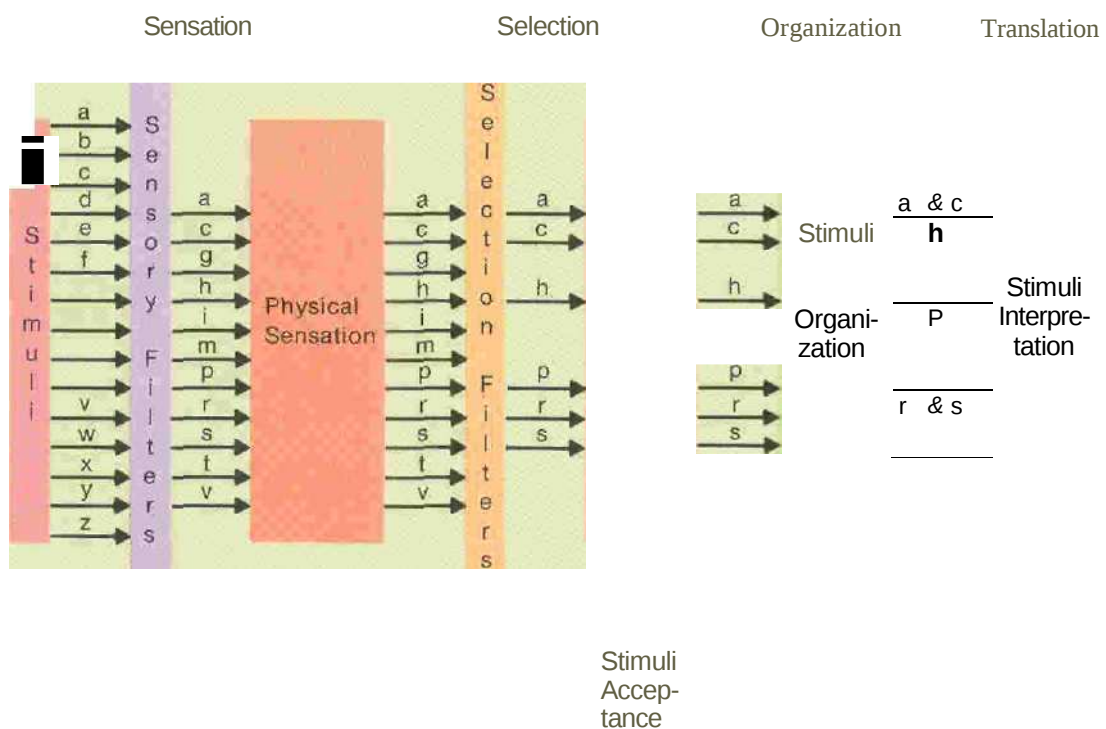
The Perceptual Process

Knowledge of the world is transmitted to our brains through our sensory systems—seeing, hearing, tasting, touching, and smelling. Perception is the complex process by which we select, organize, and inter-

pret sensory stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world. As shown in Figure 3-1, perception involves several steps. In the first step, sensation, many stimuli impact on our sensory filters, but only some are sensed. Others are filtered out, perhaps because they are at very low levels or are not within a particular range. In subsequent steps, stimuli which are sensed are selected, organized, and translated. Let's consider some things that occur at each of those steps.

Selecting Stimuli. In this step, selection, some stimuli are selected for further processing. If our perceptions were not selective, we would be overwhelmed. Ideally, we might select only the most important stimuli. However, a variety of factors affect selection, some of which are potentially troublesome. For instance, we have all heard the saying, "I'll believe it when I see it." It seems that the statement "I'll see it when I believe it" applies to perception. That is, we are more likely to see things we are expecting to see. This is called **perceptual readiness**.

Figure 3-1 THE PERCEPTUAL PROCESS



Source: R.B. Dunham, *Organizational Behavior: People and Processes in Management* [Hornewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin, 1984], 2.42. Reproduced with permission.

7. B. Berelson and G. A. Steiner, *Human Behavior: An Inventory of Scientific Findings* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1964)

In a classic study, Dewitt Dearborn and Herbert Simon (1958) instructed executives in various departments of a manufacturing firm to read a detailed case study from a business policy course and to analyze it from a company-wide perspective. Instead, executives focused on their own areas—the areas where they were ready to see problems. Salespeople, for instance, saw marketing problems as needing attention, and production people identified organization and production problems as most pressing. Thus, perceptual readiness may cause managers to fail to "see the big picture." Perceptual readiness, as we'll discuss shortly, also influences the way we interpret stimuli.

Needs and Personality. Clearly, different people will select different stimuli based on their needs and personalities. A hungry person is likely to focus on the food in an advertisement for chicken. Insecure people may focus on cues which imply threat.

Contrast. Stimuli that contrast with the surrounding environment are more likely than others to be selected. That contrast could be in terms of color, size, flavor, or some other factor. The only person talking in a theater or the only blue shirt in a sea of Wisconsin red on a football weekend almost demands attention.

Frequency. It is sometimes said that perception is summative since repetition of a stimulus has an additive effect, making it more likely to be selected for attention. Advertisers, of course, make use of this fact, regularly repeating a message. And you have probably had an experience similar to the following: You say "Hello" to a friend, Bob. Bob doesn't respond. You say "Hello" again. Bob replies, "Oh, hi. Sorry, I didn't hear you the first time." In fact, of course, Bob *had* to hear you the first time to make that statement.

Other Factors Influencing Selection. Other things equal, more intense stimuli—a bold flavor or a shout—are more likely to be selected. A changing stimulus, or one which is novel, is also more likely to be selected. A stimulus that is presented along with many others, such as a request for more money that arrives at the same time as twenty similar requests, may not receive attention.

Organizing Stimuli. Once stimuli have been selected, organization is needed to place them in a useful framework. The way we organize stimuli is important. Things which are grouped together tend to be recalled together, and their meanings tend to influence one another. In general, things that are somehow similar [for instance, in shape, size, or color) or which are close together in time or space (two accidents that occurred on the same day or two people seated together) are likely to be

Part 1 A THE BACKGROUND FOR MANAGING

grouped together. Also, we tend to organize things so that closure occurs. That is, we "close up" or "fill in" missing parts to create a meaningful whole.

Interpreting Stimuli. Finally, stimuli are interpreted at the translation step in the perceptual process. The way we translate the stimuli which we have selected and organized depends on such things as the situation (for instance, whether it is friendly or hostile, relaxed or frantic), our characteristics, and characteristics of the thing being perceived. Many distortions of objective reality are possible at the translation stage with important implications for management.

Stereotyping. Walter Lippmann coined the term stereotyping in writing of "pictures in people's heads" that distorted their perceptions of others.⁸ The term is now often used to mean the forming of an opinion of people based on group membership. Stereotyping, if accurate, may be useful since it efficiently places information into categories. When we are faced with new situations, stereotypes provide guidelines to help classify people.

Unfortunately, stereotyping may lead to a distorted view of the situation if the stereotyping is based on false premises. For instance, Mason Haue (1955) found that labeling a photograph as that of a management representative caused a different impression to be formed than when the identical photograph was labeled as that of a union leader. As another example, Jim Terborg and Dan Ilgen (1975) carried out a study in which hiring decisions were made on the basis of matched pairs of dossiers. The dossiers differed only in one way: one in each set had a male name and the other had a female name. The dossier with the male name was more likely to be hired. Research suggests that stereotyping in work organizations may be harmful to minority group members, older workers, and females.

Perceptual Readiness. We noted earlier that perceptual readiness influences the stimuli we select. It also influences how we interpret those stimuli. A prime example is the case of the self-fulfilling prophecy, or Pygmalion effect. When teachers were told in one study that certain students were especially intelligent (when, in fact, they were not), they later perceived those students to show signs of greater intelligence and higher performance. As a result, they treated them differently. These "intelligent" students showed gains in intellectual capacity, while others did not.⁹ Similar findings have occurred when leaders were told (again, incor-

8. S. S. Zalkind and T. W. Costello, "Perception: Some Recent Research and Implications for Administration," *Administrative Science Quarterly* 7 [1962]: 218-35.

9. R. Rosenthal and L. Jacobson, *Pygmalion in the Classroom: Teacher Expectation and Pupils' Intellectual Development* [New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1968]

rectly) that certain of their subordinates were high performers. The "high-performing" subordinates were apparently seen differently and were given considerable decision-making authority. "Low performers" were closely supervised.¹⁰ Thus, perceptual readiness may cause us to color our perceptions based upon our expectations.

Halo Effect. **Halo effect** refers to a process in which a general impression which is favorable or unfavorable is used by a judge to evaluate specific traits. Because of this general halo, the judge doesn't independently evaluate each individual trait. Sometimes one trait, such as a subordinate's honesty or enthusiasm, is used to form the halo. Consequently, if the superior feels the subordinate is honest, the subordinate may also be seen as loyal, efficient, courteous, and so on. That is, people have a tendency to perceive that certain traits are linked.¹¹ If they make evaluations on the basis of a halo when the traits really aren't linked, **halo error** is the result. Of course, many traits are in fact related, so not all halo effect is really halo error.

Projection. The term **projection** has taken on a variety of related meanings in which individuals project their own characteristics onto others. For example, people may relieve their own guilt by projecting blame on others. Fearful people tend to see others as fearful. People with certain undesirable personality characteristics, such as stinginess or obstinacy, tend to rate others as relatively high on those traits.

Primacy/Recency Effects. The time at which we receive a stimulus influences the weight we give it. Quite often, the first information we receive has a very great influence, on our final impressions. This is known as **primacy effect**. It has important consequences when a sequence of alternatives are considered such as in the case of job choice decisions or of job interviews. Sometimes, we also are influenced greatly by information received recently—a **recency effect**.

Perceptual Defense. When we are faced with information which we find to be threatening or unacceptable, our perceptions try to defend us. We may fail to perceive the troublesome stimuli, or we may distort our perceptions of the stimuli to make them less troublesome. Perceptual

10. A. Lowin and J. R. Craig, "The Influence of Level of Performance on Managerial Style: An Experimental Object Lesson in the Ambiguity of Correlational Data," *Organization Behavior and Human Performance* 3 (1968): 440-58.

11. A related concept is called implicit theory. That is, people may have [their own theories about how things fit together. Those theories include linkages among variables such as the assumption that a high-paying job also has higher status. These implicit theories may cause halo effect.

defense is especially evident when beliefs or attitudes which we have held for some time are challenged.

To illustrate, in one study college students were presented with descriptions of factory workers.¹² These descriptions included the word intelligent. Since this description was contrary to the students' beliefs concerning factory workers, their perceptual defenses came to the rescue. Some students simply denied that the workers were intelligent. Most frequently, the description was modified or distorted. Students, for instance, might accept the term intelligent but would couple it with another characteristic, such as lack of initiative, to maintain their overall perception of the workers. Clearly, perceptual defense can result in a very distorted and potentially biased view.

Causal Attribution

A crucial task for managers is to form accurate perceptions of the causes underlying others' behaviors. This process is called causal attribution. As an example, a district sales manager may want to determine what caused a salesperson's poor performance in the fall quarter. It may be especially important to determine whether the behavior was the result of internal factors such as the person's motives or traits or of external factors such as luck or the situation. For example, if the sales manager feels that her subordinate's poor performance is due to lack of effort (an internal factor), she may want to consider disciplinary actions. If she feels the poor performance is the consequence of an economic downturn, such actions would seem unfair.

According to Harold Kelley (1973), we try to sort out the causes of the behavior of others by considering these factors:

- ▲ Consensus. Do other people act this way in this situation?
- A Consistency. Does this person act this way in this situation on other occasions?
- A Distinctiveness. Does this person act differently in other situations?

When there are high levels of consensus, consistency, and distinctiveness, we tend to attribute behavior to external factors. To illustrate, consider the poorly performing subordinate in the previous example. The boss might ask these questions:

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12. M. Haire and W. F. Grunes, "Perceptual Defenses: Processes Protecting an Organized Perception of Another Personality," *Human Relations* 3 (1950): 403-12.

A Did everyone have a poor period in this economic downturn: If yes, consensus is high.

▲ Does this subordinate always do poorly in economic downturns- If yes, consistency is high.

A Does this subordinate do better when there is not an economic downturn? If yes, distinctiveness is high.

Accordingly, if the boss answered yes to the above three questions, she would probably not blame her subordinate. On the other hand, if other people had done well (low consensus) and this subordinate always does poorly (low distinctiveness), it would be hard to pin the blame on the situation.

Unfortunately, causal attribution is a process which is prone to error. For instance, it has long been recognized that people tend to attribute the behavior of others to internal factors, even when this is not appropriate.¹³ That is, we often blame or commend people for things which are really outside their control. Furthermore, there is a tendency to attribute the causes of our own behaviors to external factors and of others' behaviors to internal factors.¹⁴ Finally, the self-serving bias—the tendency to take credit for successes and deny personal responsibility for failures—has been widely observed.¹⁵ In Chapter 10, "Staffing the Organization," we will consider some ways these errors may result in biased performance appraisals.

Reducing Perceptual Errors

Since perception is such an important process and plays a major role in determining our behavior, it is important that we try to do it right. Here are some suggestions for reducing perceptual errors:¹⁶

- ▲ *Gain self-insight.* There is evidence that people who are aware of their own characteristics make fewer errors in perceiving others.¹⁷ They also are less likely to view the world in black and white terms and to give extreme judgments about others.¹⁸

13. F. Heider, "Social Perception and Phenomenal Causality," *Psychological Review* 51 [1944]: 358-74.

14. R. E. Nisbett et al., "Behavior As Seen by the Actor and As Seen by the Observer," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 11 [August 1973]: 154-64.

15. C. S. Carver, L. DeGregorio, and R. Gillis, "Field-Study Evidence of an Attribution among Two Categories of Observers," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 6 (March 1980): 44-50.

16. These suggestions are based on Dunham, *Organizational Behavior*; and Zalkind and Costello, "Perception," 218-35.

17. R. D. Norman, "The Interrelationships Among Acceptance-Rejection, Self-Other Identity, Insight into Self, and Realistic Perception of Others," *Journal of Social Psychology* 37[1953]: 205-35.

18. D. T. Benediti and J. G. Hill, "A Determiner of the Centrality of a Trait in Impression Formation," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 60 (1960): 278-79.

- A *Be self-accepting*. Individuals who can accept themselves as they are, are able to see a wider range of characteristics in others. They may also be less prone to projection.
- A *Be aware of perceptual errors*. Simple knowledge of such tendencies as halo error, stereotyping, and self-serving bias may help to avoid them.
- A *Try to be objective*. Make a conscious effort to attend to relevant information.
- A *Test reality*. Actively seek evidence of whether or not your perceptions are accurate. Compare your perceptions with those of others and try to account for any differences. Look for objective measures relating to the perceptions. If you think Mr. Tanaka is a poor performer, check his output levels,

LEARNING

Learning is any relatively permanent change in behavior produced by experience. Changes in behavior due to physical variations, such as growth, deterioration, fatigue, or sleep, are not learning. Similarly, temporary changes are not true learning. Also, the changes may not be desirable—we have probably all learned some behaviors which have caused us to be less effective or adaptive than before. Here, we will briefly review three types of learning: classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and social learning. Together, they help explain how our behaviors are determined through our own experiences as well as the experiences of others.

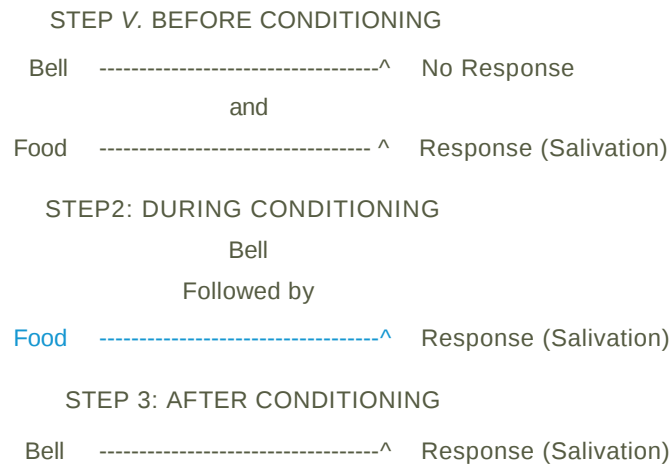
Classical Conditioning

To many people, mention of learning theory brings to mind thoughts of Pavlov's dog. In Pavlov's experiments, a dog was taught to salivate in response to a variety of stimuli, such as a touch on the paw or the sound of a bell.¹⁹ This was accomplished by continually pairing the bell or other stimulus, which originally produced no increase in saliva, with food. Salivation was a normal physiological response to food in the mouth. The repeated pairing of the bell with the food caused the dog to salivate simply upon hearing the bell. This process is shown in Figure 3-2.

The learning that took place in these experiments is called classical, or Pavlovian, conditioning. It occurs when, through pairing of stimuli,

19.1. P. Pavlov, *The Work of the Digestive Glands*, trans. W. H. Thompson [London: Charles Griffin, 1902]

Figure 3-2 THE CLASSICAL-CONDITIONING



li, a new stimulus is responded to in the same way as the original stimulus. The thought of dangling rewards in front of salivating employees is a bit unseemly. Happily, this is not the sort of learning that is of most relevance in organizational settings.

Operant Conditioning

Most learning in organizations relies on the law of effect. The **law** of effect states that behavior which is rewarded will tend to be repeated; behavior which is not rewarded will tend not to be repeated. So, if we want someone to continue acting in a certain way, we should see that they are somehow rewarded for acting in that way. If we want them to stop particular undesirable behaviors, we should make sure we are not rewarding them for those behaviors. The sort of conditioning which relies on the law of effect is called **operant conditioning**. It is illustrated in Figure 3-3.

THE OPERANT-CONDITIONING MODEL

STIMULUS

RESPONSE

CONSEQUENCE

Since the best known researcher and theorist in the area is B. F. Skinner (1969), operant conditioning is also known as Skinnerian conditioning. We will discuss specific operant-conditioning techniques in Chapter 12, "Motivating."

For now, we will simply point out that individuals enter organizations, and particular situations within organizations, with very different histories of reinforcement. That is, they have learned different things. Some have learned that working hard is the way to get ahead. Others have learned to be stubborn in the face of challenge. Still others have learned to avoid troublesome situations. So, many differences in behaviors among employees may be due to the different ways their behaviors have been rewarded or punished in the past.

Social Learning

Both classical conditioning and operant conditioning focus on learning as something that develops out of our own experiences. However, much of what we have learned comes from the experience of others. Because others have been burned by a hot stove or have failed in their attempts to start a new company or have found that certain leader behaviors are ineffective, we don't have to get burned ourselves to learn those things. Instead, we can benefit from social learning. Social learning is learning that occurs through any of a variety of social channels—newspapers, books, television, conversations with family members, friends, and co-workers, and so on. Social learning accounts for a great amount of our knowledge. In Chapter 9, "Job Design/" we will consider the role of social learning in determining how employees view their jobs.

Social learning
can occur
through a
variety of social
channels.



Academic Profile



WILLIAM E. SCOTT, JR.

William E. Scott, Jr. (Ph.D., Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Purdue University) is Professor of Organizational Behavior at Indiana University. A noted scholar of radical behaviorism in management practice, Dr. Scott's contributions include his research and writings on activation theory, organizational leadership and competition, scientific paradigms and the nature of scientific inquiry, organizational culture, and gain sharing plans and other monetary reinforcement contingencies. He is also the author or coauthor of three books and monographs including *Readings in Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* and *Behavioral Principles in the Practice of Management*. Professor Scott serves on the editorial boards of the *Journal of Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* and the *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*. He also serves as a management consultant.

Q: Some students and managers argue that human behavior is simply too complex to be captured by models and theories. Do you agree?

A: Though human behavior has not been "captured" by the almost endless stream of minitheories with which we have been barraged, the account of human behavior being developed by behaviorists has already proven fruitful. Indeed, the complexity of the reinforcement contingencies and behavior now being studied approaches that found in our organizations. The facts are that we currently exert a remarkable degree of control over organizational behavior, both simple and complex, and for some time now, experimental analysis of behavior has been leading the way toward the development of more effective forms of control, including self-control. Such developments would not be possible if human behavior was beyond the reach of a scientific analysis.

Q: You describe yourself as a behaviorist, emphasizing reinforcement principles. What do you see as the unique benefits of a behavioral perspective?

A: In my view, three of the most significant benefits are seen in (1) the awareness it has produced of the overwhelming significance of leadership practices which *strengthen*, rather than diminish, organizational members; (2) the tremendous aid it now provides in the identification, development, and teaching of these practices; and (3) the confidence it has given us to proceed with the task of further developing, implementing, and refining those practices which promote the advancement and survivability of individuals and their organizations.

Q: Is reinforcement theory restricted to the explanation of simple behaviors, or can it also deal with feelings

and more complex behavioral processes such as problem solving?

A: Behaviorists long ago rejected the notion that feelings, emotions, cognitions, and the like are the root causes of behavior, and possibly for that reason they have been said to ignore and/or to be unable to account for feelings and complex behavioral processes. However, from Watson on, they have shown an abiding interest in such processes and that interest has proven salutary. We have known for a long time, of course, that reinforcing events not only modify the form and probability of the operant responses preceding them, but that they also produce (elicit) responses which we call respondent or reflex behaviors. We have also discovered that our respondent repertoires include "psychoneural" activity in the central nervous system and that it is this component of the respondent pattern which figures so importantly in discussions of feelings and emotions. The fact that reinforcing events elicit respondents of this sort, that such behavioral patterns do not cause operant behavior but can occur alongside, and interact with, operant behavior has all sorts of important implications for leaders and leadership practices.

As for the more complex behavioral processes, it is safe to say that no one has yet provided a comprehensive account of the complex (and often covert) operants referred to as thinking, reasoning, and problem solving. But underscore the word *yet*. An operant analysis of problem solving was begun over 30 years ago and a great deal of progress has been made. The recognition that it is behavior was a giant step in the right direction for we are now beginning to analyze its topographical details as well as the variables of which it is a function.

PERSONALITY

Personality is the organized and distinctive pattern of behavior that characterizes an individual's adaptation to a situation and endures over time.²⁰ The distinctive character of personality allows us to tell people apart. The enduring character of personality permits us to recognize people and to anticipate their behaviors. Try to imagine a situation in which people had no enduring qualities, in which the boss acted "like a different person" from day to day. Such a situation might be interesting in the short run but would soon lead to chaos.

Theories of Personality

Several theories of personality have been proposed. We will consider a few of the best known. They seek to explain the structure of personality, how it develops, how it motivates people, and why people are unique.

Trait Theories. Early **trait theories** of personality saw behavior as being related to innate traits such as independence, sociability, and humility. These traits were felt to be stable, enduring, and interrelated. Furthermore, they were seen as continuous rather than absolute (i.e., we could talk about people as having more or less of a trait rather than as simply having or lacking the trait).

Some trait theorists, such as Raymond Cattell (1950), have reasoned that all people possess the same universal set of traits in varying degrees. To these theorists, an individual's personality is the sum of ratings across all traits. Other trait theorists, notably Gordon Allport (1961), have argued that traits are unique to individuals (e.g., assertiveness in one person may be very different from assertiveness in another person in nature as well as degree). Furthermore, according to this view, each person has a unique combination of traits. It is that constellation of traits which must be studied to understand personality.

Trait theories don't really explain how personality develops. Because they pay little attention to the context, they have been largely unsuccessful in predicting behavior across different situations.

Psychoanalytic Theory. According to Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theory, we are motivated by drives or instincts.²¹ We maybe unaware of these drives, and they are largely out of our control. In this

20. DarJey et al, *Psychology*

21. S. Freud, "Civilisation and Its Discontents," ed, and trans.). Strachey in *The Standard Edition of [his] Complete Psychological Works* % [New York: Macmillan Pub. Co., 1962]

theory, the unconscious mind plays an overwhelming role, sometimes revealed to us by "Freudian slips." These are inadvertent mistakes in speech or writing that suggest what is happening in a person's unconscious mind. Freud saw the personality as having three parts:

- A The id is formed of the primitive instincts, or drives, that an infant possesses at birth. It is the unconscious part of personality and seeks immediate gratification without thought of moral considerations or practical constraints. The other parts of the personality rely on the id as the source of their psychic energy.
- A The superego, often referred to as the conscience, is concerned with moral ideals. It aims to do what is "right." Since what is right is not always what feels best, the superego and id are often in fundamental conflict.
- A The ego is the part of the personality that is concerned with reality. It may delay attempts at gratification if they are unlikely to be successful or if delay would increase the likelihood of success. The ego seeks socially acceptable ways to satisfy the id's impulses.

The psychoanalytic model sees personality as a basic conflict between the pleasure-seeking id and a restrictive society. Unhappiness, neuroses, and psychoses are seen as the result of that conflict.

Humanistic-Existential Theories. Humanistic-existential theories focus on the total personality of the individual instead of on the separate behaviors that comprise the personality. They downplay the roles of the environment and biology and stress individual choice and personal responsibility. Instead of focusing on conflict, as in the Freudian model, the emphasis is on striving for awareness and fulfillment of the human potential. These strivings are seen as the basic force motivating human behavior. The work of Abraham Maslow, a key practitioner of this relatively optimistic approach, will be discussed later in this chapter and in Chapter 12, "Motivating."

Learning Theories. Learning theories see personality as a set of patterns of learned behaviors. That is, personalities differ because people have different experiences in childhood and throughout life. So, while personalities may be extremely complex, they are based upon simple learning principles.

Each of these theories of personality makes different assumptions about things such as the role of the environment and biology, the degree to which people are active or passive, and motivating forces. Together, the approaches provide a variety of potentially useful perspectives for examining and predicting human behavior.

Important Personality Dimensions

It is especially important for managers to understand with particular personalities may behave. In this section we review some personality characteristics which have been found to be related to behavior or performance.

Risk-Taking Propensity. People—even those in the same position in the same organization—differ markedly in their risk-taking propensity.²² Some are risk averse. They like to "play it safe" choosing alternatives that are likely to give a relatively low but certain return. Others, called risk seekers, like to gamble. They prefer alternatives which may turn out very well or very poorly to those with little variance in outcomes. Risk takers tend to make fast decisions based on relatively little information.²³ Managers with different levels of risk-taking propensity will make very different decisions in the same situation.

Anomy. Individuals who exhibit the characteristic of anomy don't feel they have clear guidelines for correct behavior. They don't think there are "higher" value systems to say what is "right" and "wrong." Anomic people tend to see situations as uncertain. They have relatively high levels of guilt, hostility, and paranoia and tend to be dissatisfied with life.²⁴

Dogmatism. Dogmatic individuals are close-minded. They have rigid belief systems and "doggedly" stick to their opinions, refusing to revise them in the face of conflicting evidence. Dogmatics make decisions quickly based on relatively little information and are confident in those decisions. Dogmatics like to follow the rules and are unlikely to consider novel alternatives. They may perform acceptably in well-defined, routine situations, especially if there are time constraints. In other cases, especially those demanding creativity, they generally do relatively poorly.²⁵

Locus of Control. Locus of control refers to the degree to which individuals feel that the things which happen to them are the result of

22. R. O. Swalm, "Utility Theory—Insights into Risk Taking," *Harvard Business Review* 44 (1966): 123-36.

23. R. N. Taylor and M. D. Dunnette, "Relative Contribution of Decision-Maker Attributes to Decision Processes," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 12 (October 1974): 286-98.

24. J. P. Robinson and P. R. Shaver, *Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes*, rev. ed. (Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research, 1973).

25. B. H. Long and R. C. Zuller, "Dogmatism and Predecisional Information Search," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 49 [1965]: 376-78.

their own actions.*⁶ Those who feel that such things are within their own control have what is called an internal locus of control. Others see their lives as being controlled by fate, circumstance, or chance. They have an external locus of control. Externals are unlikely to believe that they **can** do better if they try harder or that the rewards and punishments they receive depend upon how well they do. For each of these reasons, internals may be more highly motivated than externals.

Tolerance for Ambiguity. Individuals with high **tolerance for ambiguity** welcome uncertainty and change. Those with low tolerance for ambiguity see such situations as threatening and uncomfortable. Since managers are increasingly facing dynamic, unstructured situations, tolerance for ambiguity is clearly an important characteristic.

Machiavellianism. Individuals with **Machiavellian** personalities feel that any behavior is acceptable if it achieves their goals. Machiavellians try to manipulate others. They are unemotional and detached. They "look out for Number One" and aren't likely to be good team players.

NEEDS

One factor which definitely influences employee behavior is motivation. **Motivation** is the attempt to satisfy needs. **Needs** are psychological or physiological deficiencies. So, we may have needs for food, for love, or for challenge. We may then be motivated to seek those things.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy

One very well-known theory of needs was presented by Abraham Maslow, a humanistic psychologist.²⁷ Maslow believed that human needs could be placed in five categories:

- A *Physiological*. These are basic bodily needs such as the needs for food, water, sex, and air.
- A *Security*. These include needs for safety, absence from illness and pain, and stability.

26. J. B. Rotter, "Generalised Expectancies for Internal versus External Control of Reinforcement," *Psychological Monographs* 80 {1966} [I, whole no. 609],

27. A. H. Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," *Psychological Review* 50 {1943}: 370-96.

- A *Social or affiliation*. This category contains needs for belonging, interaction with others, friendship, and love.
- A *Esteem*. Needs both for respect and recognition from others and for personal feelings of accomplishment and self-worth fit here.
- ▲ *Self-actualization*. These are the needs to become all that one is capable of becoming—to realize one's potential. They are desires for growth, creativity, and constructive accomplishment.

Maslow felt that these needs were arranged in a hierarchy from "lowest" to "highest." As needs at the "lowest" level—physiological—were satisfied, those at the next "higher" level—security—would become most important, and so on. Furthermore, as a need became satisfied, it would become less important.

We'll consider Maslow's views in more detail later, as well as additional motivation theories developed by David McClelland, Victor Vroom, and others. For now, it is useful to simply note that individuals may differ in the strength of their various needs. Those differences may affect their reactions to such things as reward systems, leader behaviors, and job design.

Theory X and Theory Y

Clearly, the assumptions we make about employee needs and motivation will influence the way we deal with them. If we think employees are motivated by desires for money or for challenge or for approval, we will treat them accordingly. For instance, Douglas McGregor (1960) proposed that managers tend to hold a Theory X or Theory Y set of assumptions about employees.

Theory X takes a pessimistic view of human nature. Its assumptions include:

- A Employees inherently dislike work and will tend to avoid it whenever possible. ▲ Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve desired goals. A Employees will shirk responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible. A Most employees place security above other factors associated with work and will display little ambition.

Theory Y, on the other hand, sees human nature in a more positive . It assumes:

- ▲ Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play.
- ▲ A person will exercise self-direction and self-control if he or she is committed to the objectives.
- A The average person can learn to accept, and even seek, responsibility.
- A The ability to make good decisions is widely dispersed in the population, and not necessarily the sole province of those in management positions.

These Theory X and Theory Y views will be especially important when we explore such issues as leader behavior, reward systems, and job design.

Theory X and Theory Y should not be confused with a recent addition to the theory alphabet, Theory Z. Discussed in the previous chapter, Theory Z is the name given to an attempt to integrate the most favorable features of American and Japanese management practices.

ATTITUDES

Attitudes are the beliefs, feelings, and behavioral tendencies held by a person about an object, event, or person [called the attitude object]. In this section we will consider the nature of attitudes and examine some specific work attitudes. We will discuss how attitudes are formed and examine the relationships of work attitudes to work behaviors.

The Components of Attitudes

The definition of attitudes indicates that they have three components. The first is the cognitive component, which is our cognitions or beliefs about the facts pertaining to the attitude object. This is descriptive information rather than liking or intentions. We may, for example, believe that salespersons in our firm receive high pay or that our firm is the oldest in the industry. These beliefs may be correct or incorrect. The second component, the affective component, is made up of our feelings toward the attitude object. It involves evaluation and emotion. For instance, we may think favorably or unfavorably about another employee or think a particular rule is good or bad. The third component, the behavioral tendency component, is the way we intend to behave toward the attitudinal object. We may, for example, intend to tell off the boss or ask for a raise or outperform a co-worker.

Figure 3-4 shows the components of an employee's attitudes toward the Sunrise Corporation:

Figure 3-4 COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDES TOWARD
THE SUNRISE CORPORATION

Parts	
Cognitive	Sunrise, pay. 5 the highest w^ges in tie axea. Sunrise, doesn't ky' eff' workers, even during sions. Sunrise makes high-quality products. . . . ,
Affective	I like Sunrise because high wages, job security, and pride in my work are important to me,
Behavioral Tendency	I intend to continue working for Sunrise for as long as I pan. I intend to work hard and have a good attendance retard sq that J M\$xi, lose riyy)ob, With Sunrise,

This example suggests that a sequence exists from cognitions to affect to behavioral tendency. While that may often be the case, it is important to recognize that different people with the same beliefs may develop different feelings, and that different people with the same feelings may develop different behavioral intentions. Also, there may even be cases in which, as we'll see, our beliefs will be influenced by our feelings, or even by our actual behaviors.

Why Care about Attitudes?

It might seem that managers should be concerned about employee behaviors, not their attitudes. In fact, there are a number of reasons why employee attitudes should be of concern to managers. First, as we suggested earlier, attitudes may be related to behaviors. If so, managers may try to improve behaviors by bringing about changes in attitudes. Widely repeated statements such as "A satisfied employee is a productive employee" show that many people do believe that attitudes (in this case, satisfaction) are related to work behaviors (here, productivity). So, it seems important to see what links, if any, really do exist between employee attitudes and their behaviors.

Second, work attitudes may be related to things of direct concern to the employee such as stress levels, ability to sleep, and attitudes toward other aspects of life.

Furthermore, attitudes are important for their own sake, independent of their consequences. Employees spend half their waking lives at work. Caring managers may want to learn how to make the working hours of employees more pleasant.

Some Important Work Attitudes

The most commonly studied work attitude is job satisfaction. Two other important work attitudes are job involvement and organizational commitment.

Job Satisfaction. **Job satisfaction** is the affective component of work-related attitudes. Managers are often concerned about employees' satisfaction with specific facets of the job, as well as about overall job satisfaction.

The best known scale to assess facets of job satisfaction, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), measures satisfaction with the work itself, pay, co-workers, supervision, and promotions.²⁸ Sample items from the supervision subscale of the JDI are presented in Figure 3-5. By tapping satisfaction with particular job facets, a scale such as the JDI helps managers to pinpoint sources of dissatisfaction and to take appropriate actions.

Overall job satisfaction, or general job satisfaction, is concerned with the overall affective reactions of an employee to the job. While examination of facet satisfaction is very useful, it may fail to see the forest for the trees. That is, measures of facet satisfaction can't give us the

JOB DESCRIPTION INDEX SUPERVISION SUBSCALE SAMPLE ITEMS

Try the following adjectives and phrases describing five aspects of a job: the work itself, supervision, pay, promotions, and co-workers. Carefully consider each adjective or phrase and indicate whether or not it is true of you* **job** by circling:

Y for YES, this is true of my job.
 I for I cannot decide if this is true of my job.
 N for NO, this is not true of my job.

Supervision on My Job

▲	Asks my advice	Y	?	N
▲	Hard to please	Y	X	N
A	Impolite	Y	?	N
A	Influential	Y	?	N
A	Stubborn	Y	?	N
▲	Knows job well	Y	?	N

Source: Dr. Patricia C. Smith, Department of Psychology, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, OH 43403-0228. Copyright 1975, Bowling Green State University, Reprinted with permission.

28. P. C. Smith, L. M. Kendall, and C. L. Hulin, *The Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969)

complete picture because employees may give differing weights to various job facets and may combine information about facets in different ways. Thus, overall satisfaction measures provide useful additional information. Many such measures are short and easy to use.

Two measures of overall satisfaction are presented in Figure 3-6 and Figure 3-7. The first measure, called the Faces scale, can easily be completed by employees regardless of their language skills. It is sometimes criticized for seeming a bit too simple, but it has good validity and reliability. If instructions on the Faces scale are reworded to focus on a particular job facet, the scale can also be used to measure satisfaction with that facet. The second scale, developed by Arthur Brayfield and Harold Rothe (1951), is also easy to use. Employees simply indicate their degree of agreement with each of 18 statements about the job.

Many studies have focused on job satisfaction levels. To a great extent, the results of those studies seem to depend on how questions are worded and how findings are interpreted. Major surveys conducted over periods of twenty years or more show that 80 percent to 90 percent of the work force report they are at least reasonably satisfied with their jobs.²⁹ Yet everything we hear about "blue-collar blues" and high levels of absenteeism and turnover in many jobs, as well as everyday observations, suggest that this is too rosy a picture.

Perhaps just as revealing are studies that show that most workers—over three-quarters of blue-collar workers and almost 60 percent of white-collar workers—say they would not choose the same line of work again.³⁰ Also, a survey looking at average levels of general satisfaction may fail to isolate specific facets of the job for which much dissatisfaction exists or particular sorts of jobs which are particularly dissatisfying.³¹ Some jobs, and some parts of many jobs, may be "the pits."

Job Involvement. As the name suggests, **job involvement** is the degree to which employees really are involved with—that is, "get into"—their jobs. Job involvement may be reflected in the job being very important to the person's life or in the job being central to the self-concept. A person with a high degree of job involvement would agree with statements such as:³²

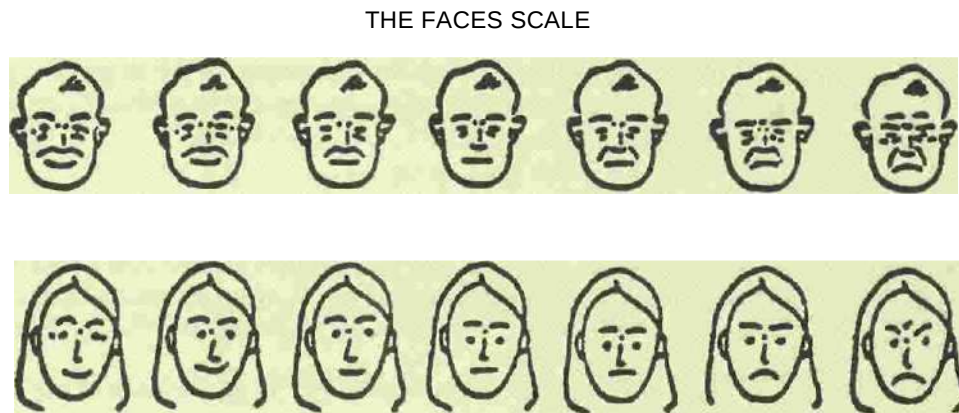
29. G. H. Gallup, *The Gallup Poll* [New York: Random House, 1972]; and R. P. Quinn and G. L. Staines, *The 1977 Quality of Employment Survey* [Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research, 1979]

30. R. L. Kahn, "The Meaning of Work: Interpretations and Proposals for Measurement," ed. A. A. Campbell and P. E. Converse in *The Human Meaning of Social Change* (New York: Basic Books, 1972)

31. C. N. Weaver, "Job Satisfaction in the United States in the 1970s," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 65 (June 1980): 364-67.

32. These items are drawn from T. M. Lodahl and M. Kejner, "The Definition and Measurement of Job Involvement," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 49 (1965): 24-33.

Figure 3-6 MEASURES OF GENERAL SATISFACTION



Source: The male faces scale was developed by T. Kunin, "The Construction of a New Type of Attitude Measure," *Personnel Psychology* 8 (1955): 65-78, and the female scale by R. B. Dunham and f. B. Herman, "Development of a Female Faces Scale for Measuring Job Satisfaction," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 60:629-31. Copyright 1975 by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted by permission of authors.

Figure 3-7 THE BRAYKEXD, RG3;HE SGAJUE (SEfcECtTED ITEMS)

Some jobs are more interesting and satisfying than others. We want to know how people feel about different jobs. Cross out the phrase below each statement which best describes how you feel about your present job. There are no right or wrong answers.

1. My job is like a hobby to me.
STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED JDISAGREE ST^QNGLY DISAGREE
2. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.
STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
5. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.
STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
7. I feel fairly well satisfied with my current job.
STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
17. I find real enjoyment in *my* work.
STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

Source: These items are drawn from A. H- Brayfield and H. F. Rothe, "An Index of Job Satisfaction," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 35 (1951): 307-11

- A The most important things that happen to me involve my job,
 ▲ The maior satisfaction of my life comes from my job, A I
 live, eat, and breathe my job.

A **related** attitude, **woik involvement**, is the degree to which an employee is involved with work in general, rather than with a specific job.

Organizational Commitment. **Organizational commitment** reflects the degree to which the employee is committed to the organization's values and goals. An employee with strong organizational commitment agrees with statements such as the following:-*³

A I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.

A I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization. A I really care about the fate of this organization. A I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.

Organizational commitment is much like what is often called loyalty. It would seem that a company would like to see high levels of organizational commitment among its work force. In fact, while that is generally the case, exceptions may exist. For one thing, if low-performing employees are very committed to the organization, they may be reluctant to leave. If management is constrained from terminating low-performing employees, such commitment could be costly to the firm. Also, we have all heard of cases in which employees have been so committed to an organization or to a cause that they have been afraid to "rock the boat" or to criticize others in the firm, and even of cases in which commitment has led to commission of illegal or unethical acts. More commitment, like more of most things in life, is not necessarily better.

Attitude Formation

The earlier section on learning suggests ways in which attitudes may be formed. For one, we may have direct personal experience with the attitude object. We may, for instance, have met a candidate for public office. Second, we may form attitudes through association. That is, we

33. These items are drawn from L. W. Porter et al., "Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover among Psychiatric Technicians," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 59 (October 1974): 603-9.

may transfer an attitude about a particular attitude object to a new attitude object which is somehow similar. For example, if we like all of our current acquaintances who are runners, we may like a new acquaintance upon learning that she runs. Finally, we may form attitudes indirectly through social learning. Here, attitudes are influenced by information provided by others. We may read about an object, for instance, or may hear it discussed on TV or listen in on a conversation between co-workers in which they weigh its pros and cons.

Attitudes formed in any of these ways may be intensely held. However, those attitudes formed through personal experience are more clearly defined, held with greater certainty, more stable over time, and more resistant to counterinfluence than attitudes that are formed indirectly.⁵⁴

The Relationships of Attitudes to Behaviors

Knowledge of the relationships of work attitudes to work behaviors can be valuable to managers. Here we explore two possible ways they may be related—attitudes may cause behaviors, or behaviors may cause attitudes.

Do Attitudes Cause Behaviors? We indicated earlier that one reason managers are concerned with employee attitudes is that those attitudes may influence behaviors. This seems to make sense. If we don't like our jobs, for instance, we might not put our full effort into them. In fact, though, many researchers have found the link between attitudes and behaviors to sometimes be weak.

In the first such study, R. T. LaPiere [1934] reported on his travels through the U.S. with an Oriental couple. In the course of those travels, the couple was almost always treated hospitably at hotels and restaurants. However, a survey of owners of the establishments found their attitudes toward Orientals to be very negative. In fact, 90 percent said that as a matter of policy Orientals would not be served. Clearly, attitudes were not being translated into behaviors.

More recent attempts to sort out this puzzle have suggested reasons why the attitude-behavior linkage may be weak. For instance, even though people have certain attitudes, they may have no choice but to behave in certain ways. Also, the person's behavioral tendency is the result of many things beyond attitude including pressures exerted by others, the nature of the job market, and personality characteristics. Let's briefly consider evidence concerning the relationships between satisfaction and work behaviors.

34. Darley et al., *Psychology*.

The Relationship between Satisfaction and Turnover. Research shows a negative relationship between satisfaction and turnover. That is, more satisfied workers are less likely to leave the firm. One review of the literature found this negative relationship to be evident in 35 of 39 studies.³⁵ The average correlation was about $-.40$, indicating that about 16 percent of the variance in turnover was related to satisfaction.³⁶

Many things besides satisfaction also seem to influence turnover including economic conditions, family pressures, skill levels, and personality. It is probably the case that satisfaction is a better predictor of turnover in good economic times than in bad.³⁷ In good times, a dissatisfied employee may feel confident that other jobs will be available and therefore quit. In bad times, an employee may simply put up with dissatisfaction rather than take a chance of being out of work.

The Relationship between Satisfaction and Absenteeism. While satisfaction and absenteeism are also negatively related, the association revealed by studies is not as strong as might be expected—most correlations do not exceed $-.35$. However, satisfaction may play a larger role in determining absenteeism than such figures might indicate. This is because, as we noted earlier, much absenteeism is unavoidable due to things such as illness or family emergencies. If the relationship of satisfaction to *avoidable* absenteeism could be adequately assessed, it would probably be considerable.

The Relationship between Satisfaction and Performance. Findings concerning the relationship of satisfaction to performance show us why research is often needed to augment common sense. While it seems reasonable to expect that satisfied workers would be more productive, studies show that this is really not the case, at least to any appreciable degree. Major reviews of the satisfaction-performance relationship have concluded that the correlations are "so low as to be negligible"³⁸ and that satisfaction does not imply motivation for strong performance.³⁹ Across 20

35. P. M. Muchinsky and M. L. Turtle, "Employee Turnover: An Empirical and Methodological Assessment," *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 14 (February 1979): 43-77; and L. W. Porter and R. M. Steers, "Organizational, Work, and Personal Factors in Employee Turnover and Absenteeism," *Psychological Bulletin* 80 (1973): 151-76.

36. The percent of variance in one variable that is associated with another is determined by simply squaring the correlation coefficient and multiplying by 100. In this case, $(-.40)^2 \times 100 = 16\%$.

37. P. M. Muchinsky and P. C. Morrow, "A Multidisciplinary Model of Voluntary Employee Turnover," *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 17 (December 1980): 263-90.

38. R. Likert, *New Patterns of Management* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1961); and F. Herzberg et al., *Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion* [Pittsburgh: Psychological Service of Pittsburgh, 1957]

39. A. H. Brayfield and W. H. Crockett, "Employee Attitudes and Employee Performance," *Psychological Bulletin* 52 (1955): 396-424. On the issue of attitude-behavior relationships, see also M. Fishbein and I. Ajzen, *Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behavior* (Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1975)

major studies, the median correlation **was** only .14.⁴⁰ With a correlation of that magnitude, only about 2 percent of variance in performance is associated with variance in satisfaction. We will try to make more sense of these surprising findings in Chapter 12.

The Financial Impact of Attitudes. The failure to find that satisfaction causes better performance should not lead us to conclude that attitudes don't impact on financial performance. Instead, as we've tried to show, absenteeism, turnover, and other employee behaviors also have costs. The area of **behavioral accounting** is now trying to assess the financial impact of attitudes, it does this by examining the costs of such behaviors as turnover and absenteeism and the strength of their links to attitudes. While this is a new field, and fraught with measurement problems, some of its conclusions are remarkable.

For instance, Philip Mirvis and Edward Lawler [1977] used behavioral accounting (in a nicely detailed tutorial on the subject) to estimate the costs of absenteeism, turnover, and balancing shortages of 160 bank tellers. They concluded that moderate improvements in attitudes averaging perhaps 0.7 on a seven-point scale would yield the bank total savings of \$781,892, or a substantial \$4,886.83 per employee. Randall Dunham (1984) has estimated that, on a national basis, a very modest improvement in employee attitudes of perhaps 0.15 on a seven-point scale would result in a **total** financial benefit of over one billion dollars.

Do Behaviors Cause Attitudes? Leon Festinger (1957) has proposed a theory of cognitive dissonance which suggests that behaviors may actually cause attitudes. Cognitions are thoughts and dissonance refers to lack of harmony; thus, **cognitive dissonance** is a situation in which we have conflicting thoughts. For example, if we don't like a co-worker, Janet, but must treat her nicely because of job demands, we may experience such conflict.

As detailed by Festinger, cognitive dissonance is a tense, uncomfortable state. People will do something to reduce that tension. One way to reduce the tension is to change one or both of the cognitions to make them consistent.

Furthermore, Festinger proposed that some cognitions are more resistant to change than are others. For instance, cognitions based on physical reality, such as the fact that we just treated Janet nicely, are more resistant to change than are cognitions based on opinions and attitudes such as our negative feelings toward Janet. The bottom line, then, is that we may change our attitudes to make them consistent with our behaviors. We may (perish the thought) actually begin to like Janet.

40. V. H. Vroom, *Work and Motivation* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1964)

We said earlier that the high levels of reported job satisfaction may be artificially high. Dissonance theory suggests another reason why that may be the case. A set of thoughts, such as "I continue to work on this job, yet it is dissatisfying," reflects dissonance. To reduce that dissonance, employees may convince themselves that they are in fact satisfied with their jobs.

There is an important second route by which behaviors may influence attitudes. That is, behaviors may lead to consequences which may impact on attitudes. For instance, a high-performing employee may get a big raise which may in turn increase satisfaction with pay. We'll explore this avenue in detail in Chapter 12.

VALUES

Values have an enduring quality and are less specific than attitudes. Values are broad, general beliefs about some way of behaving or some end state that is preferable to the individual.⁴¹ Ways of behaving, for instance, might include behaving honestly, frugally, or carefully. Preferable end states might be a comfortable life, happiness, freedom, or a sense of accomplishment.⁴²

The Functions of Values

Values play important roles for managers. They influence:⁴³

- A The way other individuals and groups are perceived, thereby influencing interpersonal relationships,-
- ▲ The decisions and problem solutions chosen by the individual;
- ▲ The perceptions of situations and problems an individual faces;
- A The limits for determining what is and is not ethical behavior;
- A The extent to which an individual will accept or resist organizational goals and pressures; and
- A The perception of individual and organizational success and its achievement.

41. M. Rokeach, *Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values: A Theory of Organization and Change* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1968)

42. _____, *The Nature- of Human Values* [New York: Free Press, 1973]

43. G. W. England, O. P. Dhingra, and N. C. Agarwal, *The Manager and the Man: A Cross-Cultural Study of Personal Values* (Kent, OH: Kent State Univ. Press, 1974), 2.

Types of Values

Values can be classified in many ways. George England (1967) has described two distinct types of value systems—the pragmatic and the ethical-moral. A person with a pragmatic value system determines whether or not to engage in a particular act principally by asking the question, "Will engaging in the act help me become more successful?" A person with an ethical-moral value system instead asks the question, "Is the act ethically right or wrong?"

Another useful way to categorize managerial values has been presented by Gordon Allport, Philip Vernon, and Gardner Lindzey (1960):

- ▲ *Theoretical values.* Individuals with strong theoretical value orientations would be primarily interested in the discovery of truth and the systematic ordering of knowledge.
- ▲ *Economic values.* Adherents to economic values would be oriented toward practical and useful aspects of work. They are interested in the production and consumption of goods and the uses and creation of wealth.
- A *Aesthetic values.* Those with dominant aesthetic values are interested in the artistic features of an object, with an emphasis on form, symmetry, grace, and harmony.
- A *Social values.* Individuals with strong social values place primary emphasis on the love of people and the warmth of human relations. They value people as ends, rather than means, and tend to be kind, sympathetic, and unselfish.
- A *Political values.* Those with primary political value orientations are concerned with power, influence, and recognition. Competition plays an important role in their lives and power is the key motive.
- A *Religious values.* People with strong religious values have an orientation toward unity and creation of satisfying relations with the environment.

Clearly, such value differences can cause people to make different decisions, and probably to choose different sorts of occupations.

Using the two classification schemes identified, how would you describe your values? The values of the "typical" college student? The values of the "typical" businessperson-

Work Values

In recent years there has been a concern that work values have been changing. Instead of valuing "an honest day's labor" and a quality product, younger workers are seen as valuing "the easy way" and as caring little about whether they can be proud of their work. The work values

whose decline is lamented are encompassed in the Protestant Work Ethic. The Protestant Work Ethic is the belief that work is valuable, important, and a central life interest. Individuals adhering to the Protestant Work Ethic tend to agree with statements such as the following based on Blood [1969]:

- ▲ Hard work makes one a better person.
- A Wasting time is as bad as wasting money.
- ▲ If all other things are equal, it is better to have a job with a lot of responsibility than one with little responsibility.
- A A good indication of one's worth is how well that person does a job.

Clearly, if there has been a marked change in work values, the consequences for management could be substantial. We will explore this issue in Chapter 9, "Job Design."

IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT

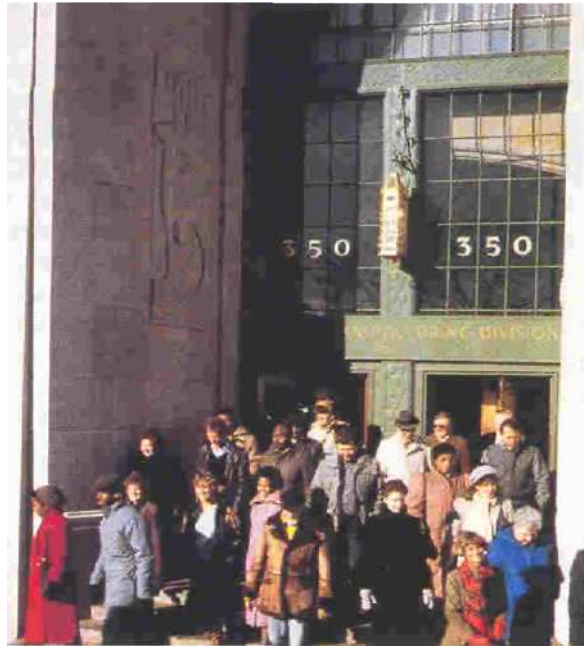
As a manager, you should be concerned with a variety of work behaviors, including absenteeism, turnover, tardiness, effort, and quantity and quality of performance. To focus only on a single behavior would be unfortunate. In particular, you will find that greater gains can often be achieved by an emphasis on work quality and employee turnover levels than by concentration solely on quantity of output.

You will often need to formally or informally evaluate the work behaviors of subordinates and others. This chapter shows that behaviors are caused by many things, some learned and others innate. Some behaviors are caused by internal things, such as ability, and others by external factors, such as illness in the family or business fluctuations. If you make faulty assumptions about the causes of behaviors, your actions will probably be misguided.

Much of this chapter dealt with perceptions and with good reason. Perceptions guide behavior. The ways employees respond to leader behaviors, rewards and punishments, and job characteristics all depend on perceptions. If you as a manager fall prey to perceptual errors, you will make mistakes in the ways you behave and respond to the behaviors of others. If you are unable to influence the perceptions of others, you will be powerless.

Learning continues throughout our lives. You will certainly learn during your years as a manager, and you will be responsible for much of the learning of your subordinates. In teaching subordinates, you will rely primarily on operant conditioning and social learning. You will not have a choice of whether or not to use those tools; learning will take place whether you like it or not. Your task will be to see that it is done right.

Understanding the diversity of human personalities and needs will help managers be more effective.



In your work life, you will find yourself responding daily to superiors, peers, and subordinates who have a wide array of personalities and needs. They will differ in terms of such personality characteristics as risk-taking propensity, locus of control, dogmatism, and Machiavellianism, as well as in the importance of various needs. It will often be tempting to simply throw your hands in the air and curse what seem to be maddeningly irrational, unreasonable, or manipulative acts on the part of others. A better course of action will be to try to understand the personalities and needs of those you must deal with and to assess how they are likely to cause them to behave. Such an understanding will make behavior in organizations more predictable and thus more manageable.

As a manager, you may be challenged by others if you seem to place much emphasis on the attitudes of your subordinates. Some may argue, for instance, that you are forgetting the bottom line. The material in this chapter suggests some responses. For one, of course, you can point out that attitudes are important in themselves. When workers are satisfied with their work, involved in their jobs, and committed to the organization, they are likely (within limits) to have richer, more meaningful lives. Also, you can respond that there are many roads to the bottom line. Attitudes directly influence such contributors to organizational success as levels of employee turnover, absenteeism, and health. We will see later that they may, in some situations, also impact on work quality and quantity.

Finally, throughout your career you will deal with people who have a variety of values. Because values are enduring and general in nature, you will find it much more difficult to influence your subordinates' values than, say, their attitudes. Similarly, you will probably find it fruitless to argue with others on the basis of their values. Those with aesthetic values, for instance, are not going to be convinced that political values are correct, and vice versa. Instead, you will have to recognize those value differences and behave accordingly.

In sum, successful managers recognize that they must understand, predict, and influence the behavior of others in organizations. The concepts presented in this chapter—many of which will be addressed later in more depth—are essential for the accomplishment of those important aims.

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

ability	Machiavellian
absenteeism	motivation
affective component	needs
anomy	operant or Skinnerian
attendance	conditioning
attitudes	organisational commitment
behavioral accounting	participation perception
behavioral tendency	perceptual readiness
component causal	performance personality
attribution classical or	primacy effect productivity
Pavlovian	projection
conditioning	Protestant Work Ethic
closure	psychoanalytic theory
cognitive component	Pygmalion effect
cognitive dissonance	recency effect retention
consensus [attributional]	self-serving bias social
consistency [attributional]	learning stereotyping
distinctiveness (attributional)	superego tardiness
dogmatic effort ego	timeliness
halo effect halo error	tolerance for ambiguity
humanistic-existential	trait theories turnover
theories	values work involvement
id	
job involvement	
job satisfaction	
law of effect	
learning	
learning theory	
locus of control	

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. List and define five key work behaviors.
2. Identify three types of abilities.
3. Describe the steps of the perceptual process and indicate three important influences at each step.
4. What is the difference between classical conditioning and operant conditioning? How are they each different from social learning-
5. Describe four theories of personality.
6. List and define five important personality characteristics.
7. What are the needs in Maslow's hierarchy? Which is at the "top" of the hierarchy?
8. What are the three components of attitudes;
9. Define three work-related attitudes.
10. Describe the relationships of satisfaction to turnover, absenteeism, and performance.
11. What are four functions of values?

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CASE 3 ▲ Nobody Gets Fired in Portugal

Nobody gets fired in Portugal unless the boss has a very good reason. That is the law as set down a decade ago after the radical left took over the government.

The government has since softened, and the economy has hit bottom. But the law stands and performs miracles for employment. Over in Spain, the jobless rate tops 18 percent. Here, it tickles 11 percent. Anybody who goes to work in Portugal today can almost certainly go to work tomorrow.

Bosses hate this. They want to consolidate, modernize. They are aching to fire people. Luckily for them, the radicals who wrote the law to protect jobs forgot to write a law to protect salaries. So Portugal's bosses have devised a new way to increase cash flow. They don't fire workers; they just don't pay them. "It can't really increase efficiency," a labor expert says, "but it does cut costs."

Among Portugal's workers, enthusiasm for this innovation has been limited. "It isn't a normal basis for civilized society," says Jose Luis Judas of the communist labor federation. "You work, you get paid. This is not the case in Portugal at the moment."

The absence of pay, however, hasn't led workers to do anything rash—like stay home. Portuguese pay averages \$165 a month. Some workers haven't gotten an escudo in over a year. Others get paid in dribs and drabs, and months behind. By various guesses, 500 companies owe 150,000

employees \$70 million. Yet almost everybody keeps on working.

How come? Well, according to the law, if somebody doesn't show up for work just because that person isn't being paid, he or she could get fired.

In some countries, a worker might quit and apply for unemployment benefits. For a quitter to qualify for benefits in Portugal, the company would have to certify that it has stopped paying the individual. But no company wants to do that. Some officials might decide that nonpayment of wages is tantamount to dismissal. Dismissals, remember, are generally illegal.

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1. Discuss how a situation such as this would be likely to impact on the cognitive, affective, and behavioral tendency components of employees' attitudes toward work. What links, if any, are likely among those components in this case?
2. Which of the personality characteristics discussed in this chapter do you think would be positively related to continued participation in work in this situation? Which of the characteristics might be positively associated with turnover?
3. How would you predict this situation would influence employee performance levels? Why?

