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# 1

## Introduction: Misbehaviour in Organizations

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The idea to publish a book devoted to misbehaviour and dysfunctional attitudes was not created in the mind of one person only. This idea was born in the minds of several researchers who met each other in an international conference gathered to discuss issues related to the linkage between work values and organizational behaviour. This conference was the 7th bi-annual meeting of the International Society for the Study of Work and Organizational Values (ISSWOV) that took place in Jerusalem, Israel, in June 2000. All these researchers believed that one of the most interesting but neglected questions associated with the conference theme is what kind of organizational behaviour can be expected when normative work values are not a deciding factor. Each of these researchers decided, therefore, to address this issue in the conference. As their cultures, backgrounds, disciplines, and areas of expertise varied, these participants tackled the issue from different perspectives. When the conference was over, it was only natural to choose the best articles that addressed the association between work values, or, more correctly, lack of normative work values, and misbehaviour or dysfunctional attitudes in organizations, to add several chapters written by experts that did not participate in the conference, and to aggregate them into one volume.

At the time that the Jerusalem conference convened, Enron, the sixth largest energy company in the world, was considered to be a highly successful firm. Enron had \$100 billion of business in 2000, and was listed No. 7 on the Fortune 500. Based on its reported revenues during the late 1990s and 2000, Enron became an admired firm; employees in other firms envied their counterparts in Enron, and the company was considered by many as one of the best places to work. During 2001, however,

Enron's stock lost more than 99 per cent of its \$60 billion value. At the end of 2001, Enron's fall was the biggest corporate bankruptcy in American history. Why did such a promising company become a smoking ruin within a year? The answer was revealed on 8 November 2001, when Enron issued a report disclosing that since 1997, the company had overstated earnings by approximately \$600 million.

The company's top management and its auditor, Andersen, which was listed among the Big-5 accounting firms, were all involved in this fraud. The fraud was translated into big money; as they felt that their investment in the company was risky, top executives sold their stocks for millions of dollars. According to *Newsweek*, (21 January 2002), between May 2000 and August 2001, Chairman Ken Lay sold stocks for \$37,683,887; former CEO Jeff Skilling sold for \$14,480,755, and Unit CEO Lou Pal sold stocks for not less than \$62,936,552. Simultaneously, the company prohibited its employees from selling their stocks, until the stock had plummeted from \$83 in January to 26 cents in November 2001. As a result, numerous employees lost not only their jobs but also their savings.

If one asks whether the Jerusalem discussion on values and misbehaviour was timely, one can simply refer to the Enron case. This was a situation where the company's top executives preached for one set of values but actually promoted another set. While preaching for values like honesty and loyalty to the company and to the employees, the managers were driven by egotism and greed. The wrongdoing, however, did not stop here. According to another article in *Newsweek* (11 March 2002), power plays, feuds, abuse, and internal spying were widespread phenomena among Enron's high-ranking officers. The CEO and other top executives acted to remove not only the external competitors but also potential rivals within the company. Furthermore, they created a 'sex-drenched, out of control' corporate culture. Gossip about sex suffused the company; it was widely believed that superiors and subordinates used wanted and unwanted sex relationships to achieve instrumental advantages. As top managers were the only people at the time that knew that Enron was vulnerable, one would have expected them to do something to save the company. It appears, however, that their own pleasure and personal benefits took precedence over the company's fate.

The rise and fall of Enron is a case where misbehaviour and disloyalty to the firm, its employees and values, concentrated primarily in the company's higher echelon. At the same time, other fraudulent actions by chief officers were found at Enron's accounting firm, Andersen, at

WorldCom, which was caught inflating its revenues, and at Adelphia, whose founder and two sons were accused of defrauding investors. In all these cases, the companies were destroyed by the misconduct, and the very persons who were responsible for running the firms were the ones who were responsible for their destruction.

Not surprisingly, money stolen by a senior executive is considerably greater than the sum that could be stolen by an ordinary employee. Yet, organizational misbehaviour is not the sole province of higher-ranking managers. The literature on this topic clearly indicates that rank-and-file workers commit the lion's share of workplace crimes. Hence, despite the mass media interest in top executives' offences, this book covers misbehaviours by employees at all organizational levels.

Different researchers use various terms to describe the same phenomena; workplace misbehaviour could be referred to as counterproductive, dysfunctional, deviant, disruptive, antisocial, non-compliant, unconventional, or as wrongdoing. The meaning of all these terms is roughly the same; according to Vardi and Wiener (1996, p. 151), each points to an 'intentional action by members of organizations that defies and violates (a) shared organizational norms and expectations, and/or (b) core societal values, mores and standards of proper conduct'. Other authors (Fox and Spector, 1999; Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly and Collins, 1998; Robinson and Bennett, 1995) emphasize as well the intention to bring harm to the organization or its members. They do not include behaviours like social loafing and emotional responses like job burnout that are typically unintentional. Nevertheless, the negative effects of these behaviours are substantial. For this reason, we include in the term 'work misbehaviour' intentional actions such as work violence as well as recurring or typical behaviours that bring harm to the organization and/or its employees even if they are unintentional like social loafing, unsafe behaviour, or job burnout. This view is similar to Giacalone and Greenberg's (1997) approach that perceives antisocial work behaviour as 'any behavior that brings harm, or is intended to bring harm, to an organization, its employees, or stakeholders' (p. vii). Yet, by limiting accidental negative behaviours to recurring or typical ones, we exclude occasional slip-ups and accidentally caused mischief without evil intent.

Ackroyd and Thompson (1999) and Brumback (2001) do not include in their definition of misbehaviour negative activities such as fraud and chicanery, if performed by managers. The majority of the researchers do not share this view; similarly, we include misbehaviours by managers, like fraud, as well as those acted on primarily by non-managers (e.g. withdrawal). The full array of misbehaviours, according to our view, is

very wide-ranging; it varies from very severe crimes like murder and assault, through theft, sabotage, and fraud, to withholding efforts at work, absenteeism, accidents, and stress.

The prevalence of the various types of work misbehaviour is surprisingly high, as attested by the fact that approximately 70 per cent of employees have engaged in some form of destructive deviant behaviour (Bennett and Robinson, 2000). In the year 2000, work violence, including assaults and suicides, accounted for 16 per cent of all work-related fatal occupational injuries in the USA (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2001). Violent acts are among the top three causes of workplace fatalities for workers. Furthermore, misbehaviour costs organizations more than most managers dare believe. For example, as Penney, Spector and Fox cite (see Chapter 11 in this volume), the costs to American businesses associated with just one type of misbehaviour, employee theft, have been estimated to be more than \$200 billion annually (Govoni, 1992).

This book is divided into two parts. Part I discusses some of the dysfunctional behaviours. It was not our aim to present all of the work misbehaviours; such an aim would be far too ambitious. Gruys (1999; see Vardi and Weitz's chapter in this volume), for example, identified no less than 87 different types of misbehaviours and this number does not include some of the types discussed here. Hence, we limited ourselves to some typical and some interesting but atypical forms of misbehaviour. We start with severe misbehaviours like workplace aggression and sexual harassment, and then continue with some of the softer types including covering-up, social loafing, job burnout, absenteeism, and even a case of information technology mismanagement. This part concludes by looking at the good face of misbehaviour: constructive deviant behaviour. Part II of the book concentrates more on 'why' than on 'what' and 'how'. This part, called 'The Dynamics of Organizational Misbehaviour', analyzes various individual and organizational antecedents of work misbehaviour. The chapters included in this part present theoretical models, empirical investigations, and practical suggestions for coping with misbehaviour.

Let's consider the book contents in detail. Part I starts with an analysis of one of the most disturbing offences: workplace aggression. In the next chapter (Chapter 2), Dupré and Barling portray different forms of aggressive acts, provide some statistics on the diffusion of violence and aggression in organizations, and identify individual and organizational predictors of aggression. Through their analysis of the literature, the authors list the aversive consequences stemming from workplace aggression and how they impact the victims, other employees, the

organization, and the entire society. As Dupré and Barling show, research has provided reliable answers to many questions on workplace aggression; yet, some annoying questions await further research. Does aggression at work escalate? Does aggression at work generalize to other forms of work misbehaviour? Can organizational policies limit the frequency of workplace aggression? What is the frequency of workplace aggression among young workers? The authors conclude the chapter by providing directions for continued research on these issues.

Sexual harassment in the workplace is the topic of Chapter 3 that was written by Bowes-Sperry, Tata and Luthar. In light of the empirical evidence, the authors conclude that the probability of harassment increases when the aggressor is low self-monitor, when he is at the same level as the victim, when the victim is unmarried, and when she is perceived by the aggressor to be provocative, submissive, or poorly integrated into the social network. While comparing sexual harassment with other forms of work aggression, the authors propose questions for continued research, including the following: Are individuals who are targets of sexual harassment also targets of other forms of workplace aggression? Do organizations with high levels of sexual harassment also exhibit high levels of other forms of aggression? Do training programmes for eliminating workplace aggression reduce sexual harassment as well? Empirical answers to these questions may help organizations to cope better with sex harassment and with other forms of workplace aggression.

Covering-up, i.e. hiding mistakes and wrongdoings from co-workers and supervisors, is the topic of the fourth chapter, co-authored by Stashevsky and Weisberg. Using a new human capital based multi-dimensional model, the authors identified characteristics of the person, the job, and the organization, that influence covering-up. Hypotheses derived from the model were empirically tested with a sample of 340 employees. According to the results, more covering-up was reported by the following: female employees as compared with their male counterparts; employees below the age of 30 or above 40 as compared with workers in the ages 30 to 40; people employed in firms engaged in the local-market as compared with employees of export firms; and employees of non-growing firms as compared with those employed in growing firms.

Hamburger discusses in Chapter 5 the issue of social loafing, or the decline in the degree of effort invested by a group member when he or she shares a collective task. The literature points to three theoretical explanations of this phenomenon, indicating that low effort is invested if: (1) the member believes that extra effort on his/her part is neither

necessary nor meaningful; (2) the member compares himself or herself to some standard or to others and finds that the low effort is sufficient; or (3) the member believes that the valence of his or her personal outcome is low. Based on these explanations, the author reviews empirical findings from the social loafing literature. Also, he discusses personal, group, organizational, and cultural correlates of social loafing, indicating that management may prevent, or, at least, significantly reduce, this form of misbehaviour. The chapter concludes with a list of practical recommendations for management as well as suggestions for continued research.

Kalliath (Chapter 6) discusses job burnout and its relationships with dysfunctional work attitudes, such as the employee's job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and supervisor satisfaction. Unlike the misbehaviour forms analyzed in the former chapters, burnout is a case where the same person is simultaneously the aggressor and the victim. Job burnout is typically considered to be an antecedent of the aforementioned attitudes, and thus, as one's burnout increases, one's organizational attitudes are affected. This chapter reports on the possibility of a reverse causality path, i.e. as specific attitudes improve, job burnout is reduced. Moreover, two of the phases of burnout were expected to operate individually; thus, after reduction in emotional exhaustion, sense of depersonalization was expected to decrease. Using three samples consisting of 203 nurses, 145 managers, and 110 laboratory technicians, the hypotheses were supported. One important implication is that management and employees can cope with job burnout by enhancing and varying sources of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and supervisor satisfaction.

The seventh chapter, by Golden, addresses the issue of some passive sorts of misbehaviour like lateness and absenteeism from a new perspective – the use of a practical solution. If one accepts that tardiness and absence are a costly problem in organizations, then flexible work schedules (e.g. flextime programmes allowing the employees to vary their arrival and departure times but requiring them to be present at work in the 'core' hours) can be perceived as a practical means to cope with the problem. This arouses a series of questions: Do flexible work schedules actually reduce tardiness and absenteeism? Do they increase positive work outcomes such as individual and organizational productivity? Do they increase the employee well-being, morale, and job satisfaction? Are they used frequently in organizations? Are they equally used with diverse occupations and firm types? The chapter addresses all these issues and concludes that there is a high probability for decreasing

misbehaviour and increasing organizational well-being by using flexible work schedules more extensively and in more sophisticated fashions.

Chapter 8 by Schwartz describes a case of computerized information mismanagement that caused a great deal of trouble to mailing-list users. Typically, this is not classified as misbehaviour, as we can detect here a lot of victims without any single aggressor. The ironic title of this chapter, 'When Bad Email Happens to Good People', exemplified this situation. The story of the bad email messages, which dominated for several days the mailing lists of 352 innocent participants, sounds like the tale of the sixteenth-century Golem (a robot type of creature) of Prague, which tried to take over the community of its inventor, the famous Rabbi Judah Low. It appears that although information technology mismanagement differs from other types of misbehaviour and no one intends to harm the other, such harm actually happens. Who should be blamed for this harm? And, more important, how can the damage be prevented? The chapter addresses these questions and concludes by making some practical suggestions to management and other information technology users.

In the last chapter of Part I, Galperin challenges the common belief that workplace deviance, defined as a behaviour that violates accepted norms, is fundamentally negative. The main argument here is that workplace deviance may play a constructive role. For example, employees who aim to innovate and change work procedures may violate existing norms; ultimately, such a constructive deviant behaviour may improve the organization's creativity, flexibility, and its competitive advantage. Similarly, employees who engage in discrepant behaviours, such as internal whistle-blowing, may violate the present organizational norms but contribute to the overall well-being of the organization. The problem, however, is that very often the same persons are responsible for both constructive and destructive deviances. However, by preventing all types of deviance, management may decrease its own prospects of competing and succeeding.

Part II of the current book does not focus on individual forms of work misbehaviour; rather, by analyzing different forms, its four chapters attempt to understand the internal dynamics of these phenomena. In Chapter 10, which opens Part II, Vardi and Weitz introduce both a theoretical model and an empirical study. The former covers a wide array of antecedents of misbehaviour at the following levels of analysis: individual, job, group, organization, and profession. The latter reports the findings of the relationships between several antecedent variables and misbehaviour. Using 250 employees from various organizations, it

was found that the higher that one is on the Type-A personality dimension, the higher the misbehaviour; the higher the professional identity, the lower the misbehaviour; the lower the job satisfaction, the higher the misbehaviour; and, most interestingly, the higher the job autonomy, the higher is misbehaviour. The last finding implies that although job autonomy is universally considered a positive state that promotes the workplace productivity, its influence on misbehaviour is rather negative. More employee autonomy means lower supervisors' control, which can lead to destructive deviant behaviour.

Penney, Spector and Fox, devote the eleventh chapter to the analysis of the relationships among job stress, an environmental factor, personality dimensions, and misbehaviour. In general, the interaction of both the environmental stressor and the employee's personality traits determines not only whether he or she will exhibit counterproductive behaviour but also what the form and magnitude of this behaviour will be. For example, an environmental stressor such as organizational injustice or interpersonal conflict may act as a facilitator of misbehaviour. However, the specific form and magnitude of the misbehaviour is dependent on one's personality traits. Anger, for instance, may arouse behaviours like complaining, yelling at people at work, refusing to take on assignments, or even damaging property. In contrast, anxiety may arouse behaviours like staying at home, taking longer breaks than allowed, or procrastinating on important projects. Management that takes this information into account may tap personality dimensions and influence environmental variables.

Ones and Viswesvaran based their study (Chapter 12) on a comprehensive meta-analytic review of the literature on misbehaviour. They aggregated the available findings into two sets of correlation matrices: intercorrelations among misbehaviours, and intercorrelations between misbehaviours and personality dimensions. The first set of matrices shows that misbehaviours are highly intercorrelated. This implies that one who tends to use some misbehaviour type (e.g. violence) tends to use other types (e.g. destruction of property, poor attendance, unsafe behaviour, misuse of information, etc.). The second set of matrices indicates that work misbehaviours are moderately related to the personality dimensions known as the Big-5, namely, emotional stability, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. As compared to the other dimensions, conscientiousness, however, reveals the highest correlations. Furthermore, its two main facets, achievement orientation and dependability, were found to be highly correlated with various indices of misbehaviour. Finally, factor alpha, the higher order

personality trait that is composed of conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability, exhibited high correlations with misbehaviour. These findings imply that for better screening and selecting results, management should consider the use of personality indices as predictors of misbehaviour.

The last chapter, by Jamal and Baba, is also devoted to an analysis of the relationship between personality and misbehaviour. Yet, rather than the Big-5, the focus here is on the Type-A personality dimension and its components: time pressure and hard-driving. The following behavioural variables, indicating the existence (or absence) of work misbehaviour, were used: job stress, health problems, turnover intention, absenteeism, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Two samples, consisting of 175 hospital employees and 110 telecommunication workers, participated in the field study. With the exception of absenteeism, the results support the authors' hypotheses, showing that measures of the Type-A personality dimension and its two components are relatively good predictors of work misbehaviour. As these measures increased, job stress, health problems, and turnover intention also increased. In addition, an increase in the personality indices was related to a decrease in organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

One of the interesting conclusions made by some of the current authors is that misbehaviour is not constant but varies over time. It progresses either within the same misbehaviour form (e.g. from covert to overt aggression or sexual harassment) or from one form of misbehaviour (e.g. aggression) to another form (e.g. sexual harassment). Similarly, it appears that misbehaviour has consequences that are not uniform over time. For example, Dupré and Barling (Chapter 2) show that following workplace aggression, the effects are felt over a wide number of victims beyond that of the direct target of the aggression. As with the directly injured person, indirect victims may also suffer from emotional and psychosomatic problems. Furthermore, misbehaviour may yield not only direct but also indirect negative outcomes to the firm, such as reduction in productivity or impaired reputation. It is not far-fetched to assume that some of the negative consequences, such as an increased fear or insecurity, could even be felt in the broader community.

Although this is a pessimistic conclusion, it is only one side of the coin. As seen in many chapters of the book, even if not always possible to prevent misbehaviour, management frequently is able to reduce its frequency. For example, management can influence various organizational and situational variables that are related to misbehaviour. These include organizational culture and goals, organizational justice, group

norms, personnel selection, training programmes, work information available to employees, control systems, and flexible work schedules. Also, by rigorously specifying lines of responsibilities it is possible to reduce misbehaviour and errors, even in the case of information technology mismanagement.

If indeed misbehaviour is controllable, it may behove management to assume greater (although not absolute) responsibility for its reduction. This is relevant not only to misbehaviours carried out by top managers themselves (like the case mentioned at the beginning of this chapter) but also to misbehaviours carried out by other employees. It is hoped, therefore, that by detecting various forms of misbehaviour, organizational leaders will be able to cope with them more effectively and, ultimately, raise the quality of working life in our society.

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