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Issue 10/2018

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Editorial

This years' motto – **“Work:olution – Succeed in permanent beta”** – of Europe's largest HR-exhibition, Zukunft Personal Europe, suggests that “something big” is going on. Organizations all across Europe are redesigning, or rather reinventing their structures and processes in a quest towards becoming more “agile”. Methods like “Design Thinking”, “Bar Camps” or “Working out loud” are starting to become mainstream, as they are no longer only used in hip start-ups and communication agencies, but also in public administration agencies, financial institutes, and insurance companies. Traditional working environments, typically associated with rules, routines, and regulations are now transformed into wide open (coworking-) spaces.

That being said, applying new tools and methods is one thing, whereas engaging people to embrace these changes and helping them align their attitudes and behaviors with these changes, is another. Especially in such times of dramatic change, the competencies of Work and Organizational Psychologists (WOP) become crucial for success. However, cultural change processes are typically facilitated by coaches, consultants, and agencies specialized in organizational change and Work and Organizational Psychologists tend to be underrepresented among their ranks. Hence, two questions beg for an answer: a) How can organizations be stimulated to think about hiring somebody with a scientific background in Work and Organizational Psychology? and b) How can WOP practitioners position themselves in a market where almost everybody can call him or herself a coach?

The opening article of this issue by Salvatorie Zappalà tries to address these questions by presenting the main issues and subsequent learning outcomes resulting from a

pilot test of the EuroPsy Specialist Education Programme and Certificate for WOP Consultants conducted in five European countries. The main characteristics and goals of the EuroPsy Specialist Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology were outlined in a previous issue of *In Practice* (Ramos & Zappalà, 2016).

Relatedly, the second article in this issue authored by Per Straumsheim describes the specialist education in WOP in Norway, the challenges faced by Norwegian WOP specialists and the positive contribution of the certificate to the status and potential employability of WOP experts.

Next, we continue with two empirical articles dealing with the antecedents and circumstances of organizational change and innovative work behavior. First, the article by Linna Sai examines the effect of conscientiousness on Organizational Commitment to Change (OCC) and the impact of formal and informal communication on OCC. The findings of this study suggest that management should give due consideration to both formal communication and individuals' levels of conscientiousness when planning and implementing organizational change. It also shows how applied science can be used to understand the dynamics of organizational change and to increase the quality of management decisions.

Second, the article by Julia Ramona Schmidt and Diana Rus helps to better understand the conditions under which employees are likely to go beyond their formal job description and engage in innovative work behaviour (IWB). The study reveals that managers should focus on creating an environment that is supportive of learning and live up to their responsibilities of treating employees with dignity and respect.

As we grappled with the topic of change and innovation, we were also cast in its spell. Are we going beyond our formal job description? How innovative is our work behavior as editors of EAWOP's Online Journal for Practitioners? Can we do more? We decided to start with a new layout: *EWOP In Practice Revamped*. When we discussed the idea with the EAWOP committee we reaped full support. In fact, we were treated with dignity and respect! Totally unleashed by this innovative opportunity, we also discussed our title. I remember sitting in Rob Briners Symposium on Evidence Based Practice in O'Reilly Hall at the EAWOP Conference 2017 with Bernad Batinic from the University of Linz sitting next to me. When I told him about *EWOP In Practice*, he asked me why we wouldn't just call it "In Practice". "Nobody really understands what EWOP means

anyway”, he said, “it looks like a spelling mistake of EAWOP”. There it was, plain and simple. Angela and Diana liked the idea, too. In case you don’t like the new title, please blame Bernhard. The new layout was designed by Bernhard Diller, a communication designer from Germany. To our perception, he translated our ideas perfectly into the new design. We wanted the journal to be clean and fresh, both different and a good fit into EAWOP’s journal portfolio. We wanted it to be different from traditional scientific publications in order to attract more practitioners to read it but also to keep it within APA-Style boundaries in order to not offend our scientific audience. And we wanted to attract more authors to hand in their work in applied Work and Organizational Psychology.

We also have a number of future issues in the pipeline. First, we have a call for papers for a Special Issue on Performance Management and Feedback Interventions. The issue is planned for 2019. Second, we are close to finishing our 2018 Special Issue on Workplace Innovation (Vol. 2) to appear this summer featuring five original articles. In 2019, we also aim to publish another regular edition of In Practice before the Turin Congress.

We hope this collection of articles will stimulate your interest into the applied world of Work and Organizational Psychology. We look forward to receiving new articles, but also feedback and ideas, in order to improve our journal step by step. You can reach all of us at InPractice@eawop.org or at our individual email addresses below.

Best wishes for the upcoming summer.

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Specialist Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology: The experience of the pilot test and future developments

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In a previous issue of *In Practice*, interviewed by Jose Ramos, the main characteristics and goals of the EuroPsy Specialist Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology were outlined (Ramos & Zappalà, 2016). In this issue, two papers enrich the discussion. The present paper reports some of the main issues and learning resulting from the pilot test, the experience conducted in five European countries in order to test the organizational and technical feasibility of the specialist certificate. In the second paper, Per Straumsheim describes the specialist education in work and organizational psychology in Norway and the contribution of the certificate to this process.

The EuroPsy Specialist Certificate and the Pilot Test

EAWOP and EFPA (the European Federation of Psychologists' Associations) developed the "EuroPsy Specialist Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology" in order to establish those minimum standards of education and training that demonstrate the expertise and competence of practitioners in the field of Work and Organizational (W&O) psychology. As mentioned in the previous contribution to *In Practice*, the EuroPsy Specialist Certificate is part of the larger project of EuroPsy; a comprehensive description of the origin, development, and components of EuroPsy is offered by Lunt, Peirò, Poortinga and Roe (2015).

Considering the growing mobility of W&O psychologists across Europe, the main aims of EuroPsy are to:

- a) safeguard clients' interests at a European rather than a national level;
- b) support the recognition of qualification of psychologists working outside their own country in the EU (as laid down in the European Directive 2005/36/EC, the Qualifications Directive); and
- c) encourage and solicit European national associations, whose national standards are below EuroPsy, to support and raise the qualification and professionalisation of its own W&O psychologists.

It has to be underlined that the Specialist Certificate does neither substitute nor replace national laws and rules for professional practice; but it is an addition to these rules and shows that the community of W&O psychologists, pro-actively, has established

its own standards of quality and has tools to check and increase the quality of services provided to clients.

In 2005 a Task Force established by EAWOP, and chaired by Prof. Jose Maria Peirò, formulated a proposal about the contents and requirements of what was later called the Specialist Certificate in W&O Psychology. Such proposal defined the standards for the education of W&O psychologists with the goal to contribute to the harmonisation of W&O psychology education and professional practice in Europe. The proposed standards were approved by EAWOP General Assembly in May 2009, and accepted also by the General Assembly of EFPA in September of the same year. The proposal of the Task Force is available on the EAWOP website (<http://www.eawop.com/specialised-back-ground>) and was shortly described in the previous interview (Ramos & Zappalà, 2016). Later, in 2011, another Task Force established by EAWOP to tune and test the standards, and to develop the application forms, checklists, and the administrative and technical procedures necessary to run and manage a pilot test.

The pilot test represented the opportunity for a first implementation and testing of the Specialist Certificate in W&O Psychology standards, by trailing the practical and administrative procedures, seeing if and how well these standards were fitting local circumstances, and which difficulties and challenges were faced in the implementation of the Specialist Certificate. In particular, the pilot test aimed to collect information and advance knowledge about post-graduate learning activities, professional activities, experiences in relation to supervision and coaching, and procedures and materials to be used to report coached practice and competences. The final report of the pilot test is available on the EAWOP website at: <http://www.eawop.com/standards>.

Five European countries decided to participate in the pilot test: Finland, Italy, Norway, Spain and United Kingdom. Their participation was possible because they:

- a) had already participated in the past to the pilot test of the Basic Europsy (see Ramos & Zappalà, 2016);
- b) had already established a National Awarding Committee for assessment of the Basic Europsy; and
- c) offered a good geographical balance (especially from north-south Europe).

It was considered to include at least one eastern country, but it was difficult to find one country fulfilling the above criteria.

An EAWOP-EFPA body (the “Provisional Specialist European Awarding Committee”, P-SEAC) developed the pilot test procedure, the tools and coordinated the experience. Similarly, a national body was established in each country (the “Provisional Specialist National Awarding Committee”, P-SNAC) in order to manage the pilot locally.

The aims and requirements of the Specialist Certificate and the possibility to obtain the Certificate during the pilot test were advertised in national meetings, conferences and newsletters. Thus W&O psychologists in these five countries were informed about the pilot test were invite to apply.

The pilot test involved two procedures, or routes, addressing different types of applicants:

- a) the transitional period route (or “grand-parenting”); and
- b) the regular procedure route.

The transitional period or “grand-parenting” route addressed experienced practitioners with many years of practice, while the “regular” route addressed younger practitioners in the process or just finishing the professionalisation route and are just starting to practice independently in the professional field. Both grand-parent and regular applicants had to fill their application and provide a detailed CV in which they reconstructed and described their own career, job outputs and offer evidence of the competences practiced in their work. This “backward” reconstruction of one’s own career aimed to show learning and developmental processes, and also competences that had been developed. Many applicants considered this reconstruction as a particularly critical and difficult task to perform but, at the same time, also a very useful and rewarding one.

Overall nearly 100 applications were received and assessed in the five countries by the P-SNACs. The goal was not to have very large number of applicants but testing the procedure covering a variety of situations and careers. About 75% of applications were ‘grand-parents’ and 25% were regular ‘applicants’. The assessment of applications resulted in 10% rejections, with the other 90% of applicants showing evidence of expertise, qualifications and of regular participation in continuous professional de-

velopment (CPD) activities. It has to be said that most of the applications were obtained using social networks and knowledge of the P-SNAC members. Overall, the pilot showed the meaningfulness of the whole framework, the feasibility of the procedure, tools, application forms and that applicants were able to understand the model and provide the expected information and the required evidence.

What was observed and learnt from the pilot test? In the following sections I outline some general conclusions under the headings of requirements, procedure and structure.

Learning from the pilot testing

The requirements

To obtain the EuroPsy Specialist Certificate in W&O psychology the following are required: a) 90 ECTS of education and learning activities after the academic degree (of which 60 ECTS are devoted to learning activities and 30 ECTS to applied research or assessment or intervention); b) at least 400 hours per year of supervised or coached practice and at least 50 hours of supervision obtained during the three years before the application; and c) a detailed CV showing evidence of a certain level of competences in the field.

These requirements stimulated some reflections by practitioners and national (and European) associations. Availability of educational programmes and training to fulfill the requirements are different across the European countries. In some countries, like Finland or Spain, universities have only recently started to offer educational programmes for practitioners, while in other countries, like Norway or UK, it is the national psychological association that regulates educational programmes, offers courses, and requires structured supervision. Such courses are sometimes offered within (in some cases complemented or even substituted by) a CPD programme; and these differ in terms of content, length and providers.

The pilot showed that in Finland and Spain such post-graduate programmes, offered by universities to practitioners, represent additional educational activities not required by the law in order to practice, and therefore do not attract a high number of graduated students and practitioners. Thus, what is mandated, or expected, by national law in order to acquire or maintain a specialist status to practice as a W&O psychologist is

an important point to be considered when assessing applications to get the EuroPsy Specialist Certificate in W&O Psychology.

Increasing the opportunities for post-graduate learning, and/or structuring those already available, although loose, activities and courses offered by private and public providers (universities, private companies, associations, freelance practitioners), in order to improve the professionalisation of W&O psychologists, is another important point to be considered by professional associations, institutions and universities. In countries like UK, and in the near future also in Italy, where CPD is mandatory to maintain the national qualification, the challenge is trying to figure out structured developmental programmes that aim to educate and train independent practitioners in a specific sector of work, organization or personnel psychology, in addition to the variety of short seminars and courses on various topics for more senior and expert practitioners.

Even the supervised practice and assessment of competences resulted to be in some cases new and challenging requirements. In many countries young psychologists have the experience of a supervised or coached practice, and also of a structured supervision or coaching programme; while in other countries supervision may be very limited, or absent. Therefore it is important to define supervision in a way that is more compatible with the W&O psychology field, elaborate theoretical models on the supervision process and also develop tools to record, store and document supervision. Even the assessment of competences was found to be a challenging and delicate requirement, both for the applicants in their self-assessment of competence and the provision of adequate evidence of competence. Even P-SNAC members found it difficult to accurately assess the possession of such competences in the applicants.

Interestingly, some applicants reported that although preparing the application was difficult and time consuming, the self-assessment of the competences was very useful to increase self-awareness of one's own skills. As for the Basic EuroPsy, although mobility is an important reason to start a EuroPsy specialist certification process, having guidelines on how to improve the discipline and the professional identity of W&O psychologists seems to be the most interesting outcome of this project. In other words, the EuroPsy Specialist Certificate in W&O psychology may help in developing qualified programmes of post-graduate education in W&O psychology, and in supporting the

professional development by means of supervision and awareness of the competencies required to practice.

The procedure

In order to provide information about one's own career, educational learning, supervision and competences, applicants completed forms and checklists developed by the P-SEAC. Although this was expected to be an easy task, this was not the case. As many individuals will apply for the certificate providing a wide variety of information, educational activities, and so on, application forms will have to be refined and probably adapted to the specificity of that country and its requirements. It might also be useful to provide examples of well-completed applications, in order to clarify what and how much information should be given about one's own career and competences.

The choice to use the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) to quantify learning experiences and research activities, although more and more common in European Universities, was another source of difficulty. In many cases post-graduate learning activities are offered in terms of hours, or months and not credits. The pilot offered the opportunity to collect some cases that facilitated the 'translation' from the model "hours-weeks-months" to the ECTS model. But more cases are necessary to make such 'translation' even finer. And, in the long run, even the educational programmes or CPD will need to be designed and advertised using the ECTS model. The ECTS User Guide (EU, 2009) is recommended as the standard reference tool for this regard.

A final point related to the procedure, that has also some impact on the assessment of the requirements, is the fact that not all the European countries have adopted the Bologna process. This fact creates some complication in the counting of years of education useful to fulfill the requirements. However, this was managed with flexibility in the pilot and will require some co-ordination in the requirements for the Basic and for the Specialist Certificate that can be managed in a collaborative work between the S-EAC and the local S-NAC.

The structure

The Specialist Certificate in W&OP will benefit of the bodies and structures already established for the Basic Certificate. The already established European Awarding Com-

mittee (EAC) that oversees the whole EuroPsy project, the EFPA administrative staff and the Register, are resources that will definitely make easier the implementation of the Specialist certificate at the European level.

At the national level, the positive collaboration between EuroPsy Basic and Specialist structures will facilitate the process (like, for instance, the integrated or joint assessment of grand-parents applying for both the Basic and the Specialist Certificate), and also the efficient use of resources like the national website, the promotion of the EuroPsy project, the administrative procedures and the secretary staff. Such efficiencies will need to be optimised for the sustainability of the project.

Implementation issues

National associations of W&O psychologists are encouraged to consider the possibility to establish a W&OP S-NAC in order to improve and support the professionalisation of practitioners by offering opportunities and services in order to fulfill W&O EuroPsy Specialist certificate requirements.

Requirements for the implementation of the Specialist Certificate are:

- Support from the national W&O psychology association and its involvement in promotion of the project;
- Existence of a NAC for the EuroPsy Basic Certificate - because the Specialist certificate is awarded only to practitioners that have already (or can obtain jointly) the EuroPsy Basic Certificate;
- Constitution of a SNAC for the Specialist Certificate;
- Training of S-NAC members on the requirements and procedures of the Specialist Certificate;
- Translation of the documents on EuroPsy in the local language;
- Preparation of the application forms in the local language, based on the common format developed in the pilot test;
- Opening of a webpage for the Specialist Certificate in W&O Psychology within the website of the Basic EuroPsy;
- Publicity materials and publicity plans addressing both universities and professional associations.

Conclusions

The pilot test demonstrated the feasibility of the EuroPsy Specialist Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology. It raised interest in EuroPsy within the community of the W&O practitioners, generated awareness of the difficulties and challenges, and identified many useful practical points.

The pilot showed that some adaptation to local circumstances is needed, but also identified various pertinent experiences and practices in the education of W&O psychologists at the national level; in some case such practices are still experimental ones and in other cases they are more structured. Reinforcing and spreading such practices will allow the development of good quality standards that in a short-term might be shared across Europe.

EAWOP can have a key role to play in terms of developing, refining and sharing good practice regarding education and supervised practice, through the many activities that it runs, like its bi-annual conference, workshops, small group meetings, the WorkLab for practitioners and also continuing to describe experiences in this journal.

The contribution of EAWOP member associations (or Constituents) and individual members is vital to facilitate the spread of the EuroPsy Specialist Certificate.

Finally, the collaboration between EAWOP and EFPA can facilitate the knowledge and diffusion of the EuroPsy Certificate among the European institutions and the national authorities, by facilitating the recognition of the qualification of those psychologists that wish to work in the EU outside their own country.

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Specialist education in Work and Organizational Psychology in Norway

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Historical background

The education programme for psychologists, as we know it in Norway today, was established as a cand. Psychol. degree in 1948. In 1974 the psychologist profession was formalised by law, known as the “psychologist law”. This meant that the title “psychologist” is a protected title by law. The framework for recognition to the title of “psychologist” consists of six years’ university study, where one year of supervised practice is integrated as a part of the education programme. Although the curriculum may vary between the four universities offering the cand. Psychol degree, there is a national standard outlining a common framework. The programme is based on the Scientist – Practitioner model, is considered to be a generalist education with a focus on clinical psychology. Psychologists in Norway are authorised as health personnel.

Specialist education

The NPA are responsible for the specialist education of psychologists receiving financial support from the Norwegian Directorate of Health as the administrative body for the specialism. An incentive for psychologists to take on the education programme, besides for professional reasons, are the financial gains connected to a considerable rise in salary once a psychologist is approved as a specialist.

Admission to the specialist programme requires being authorised as a psychologist by the competent authority for health personnel in Norway. The framework for the specialist programme describes the relevant practice needed, courses that are recognised, supervision and a thesis. Candidates need five years of full-time practice

as a psychologist. In the speciality of Organizational Psychology four of these years must be in the practice of applied Organizational Psychology. There are 256 hours of study; 96 of which are common for all psychology specialities and deal with issues relevant to new psychologists entering the profession. The remaining hours covers topics such as motivation, engagement, organizational culture and climate, organizational and team leader development, conflict management, recruitment and selection.

Supervised practice and supervision are valued as the most important learning activities for transforming theoretical knowledge into applied skills and competences; with 240 hours of supervision expected in total.

A thesis in the field of Work and Organizational Psychology is also required as part of the qualification; however, other published papers, if peer reviewed, can be accepted as the equivalent of a thesis.

Challenges for specialists of Work and Organizational Psychology

Although psychologist specialist titles in general are well recognised by the Norwegian public and by the authorities, this has more been the case for specialists within the clinical fields. Specialists in Work and Organizational Psychology have experienced less recognition resulting in relatively few psychologists working in this field. Therefore, fewer people enter the specialist education programme; and even fewer finish their training. This may be due to the lack of ownership of the Work and Organizational area, lack of incentives to specialise, and little knowledge of what a specialists' competence in Work and Organizational Psychology comprises.

Who “owns” the area of Work and Organizational Psychology? Although psychology scholars have been central in developing theories in this field, several other professions assume ownership in applying theories relevant to field (such as organizational culture and climate, leader and team development, the psycho-social work environment, and conflict management). Consultants in Organizational Psychology are working with the same tasks, challenges and processes as the other psychologist specialists; and who would tell the difference?

Further, psychologists in the field of Work and Organizational Psychology are in general paid more than psychologists working within Clinical Psychology as they are usually employed in the business sector. Obtaining a specialist title doesn't automatically mean a substantial increase in salary for the psychologists working in this field. Though some take courses connected to the specialist education, few have had the motivation to see the programme through and obtain the title.

A specialisation in Work and Organizational Psychology has existed in Norway since 1985. But, it can be questioned if the profession has been good enough at promoting the benefits and added value of specialist knowledge within this field that can be offered to clients and customers. It seems that we have not been able to communicate what the specific competences that specialists in Work and Organizational psychology possess and why these competences are important.

The EuroPsy Specialist Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology as a helping hand

Since the job market for Work and Organizational Psychologists is trans-European, the news about a European standard for specialists in Work and Organizational Psychology was welcomed. The certificate brought hope of a heightened status for psychologists working in this field, providing aid when working across borders. More importantly, the introduction of a competency model has put emphasis on explaining and demonstrating competences. The focus has now shifted from explaining what was invested in the training programme, to describing the different competences the specialists in Work and Organizational Psychology are mastering; thus making it easier to demonstrate the added value a specialist would bring to clients and customers.

When Norway joined the pilot project for the Specialist Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) was already in place in the academic institutions. We compared the Norwegian specialist programme in Organizational Psychology with the ECTS user guide (2015) finding our specialist education programme was equivalent to 75 ECTS (compared to 90 ECTS in other countries). While our contact hours, practice period, and the amount of supervision hours were similar to other programmes we lacked the assessment of competence. Beside an assessment of the thesis, there were no assessment of achievement of the learning objectives of the training programme that were essential for

calculating the credit value of an education programme.

Luckily, at the time of the EuroPsy pilot project, we simultaneously had a revision of the specialist training programme in Organizational Psychology in Norway. We decided to develop the programme in accordance to the criteria of the Specialist Certificate and focus on competence descriptions. We had in mind that we would obtain good descriptions of competencies from applications that describes Work and Organizational Psychology unique specialist competencies. However, this turned out to be very difficult for most people to describe. While it is easy to describe what you have done in a project, it was much more challenging to explain what specialist competences you had applied, how they were applied, or which competencies you had to develop to accomplish the project.

Both in working with the Specialist Certificate and in the revision of the specialist training programme, we have adopted the concept of the consultancy cycle that is based on six primary competences described in the EuroPsy model: Goal definition, Assessment, Development, Intervention, Evaluation, and Communication. We use these primary competences as a method to describe the specialist competences the psychologist has to use when working with a project. We have developed forms for describing the consultancy cycle along with guidelines on how to describe competences. Since competences are based on updated research literature, one way to demonstrate this is to describe and justify how one has applied relevant theories, models and methods. A critical approach to the strengths and limitations of the project method taken is another way in which specialist competences can be demonstrated.

Role of the supervisor

The supervisors, who are specialists in Work and Organizational Psychology, have an important role in our new regulations for specialist education. They have the responsibility to assess the professional development of the psychologists in training. Based on the assessment they need to “feed forward”: How, and by which means, can the psychologist develop the competences necessary to reach the learning objectives of the specialization? Supervisors also serve as gatekeepers. They have the responsibility to assess if the competences and learning objectives, described for the speciality, are met. This requires awareness of their responsibility, of the learning objectives, and knowledge in regards to methods of assessing professional development.

To help the supervisors fulfil their responsibility, the NPA are now planning to offer short training courses throughout the country. One of the subjects that will be addressed is a potential risk some have been concerned of: when assessment becomes part of the supervisors' responsibility, this might compromise the relationship between the supervisor and the supervisee. We believe that it is possible to have a safe developmental relationship even when assessment is a part of it, but measures have to be taken to ensure the relationship is maintained. For example, clarifying expectations of the working relationship early on, and training in how to give feedback and feed forward.

Status and expectations

To make the application process as easy as possible, we have developed an online search platform, both for the basic EuroPsy certificate and the Specialist Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology. So far only a few have applied for the Specialist Certificate. However, these few applications have allowed use to check if the system the working or if any modifications are needed. A total of 12 Norwegian psychologists, included those who participated in the pilot project, have obtained the Specialist Certificate so far. We expect a larger number of applications when those who have taken the new specialist training programme have graduated.

Conclusion

In the future we hope for an increase in applications, and that the EuroPsy Specialist Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology will become a quality mark for psychologists working within this field. When the number of certified specialists are high enough, the national associations and EFPA will need to work towards making this quality mark acknowledged by national authorities, as well as by the customers needing services in this business area.

Reference

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The roles conscientiousness and communication play in organizational commitment to change

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Linna Sai is a PhD student at the Open University Business School, United Kingdom. She was born and raised in China. She moved to the UK six years ago. Her current research interests include employees' emotional response to organizational change and the impact of organizational change on English social housing organizations. This paper is based on her Master's dissertation from the Institute of Work Psychology, the University of Sheffield, UK.

Abstract

This study aims to examine the effect of conscientiousness on Organizational Commitment to Change (OCC) and the impact of formal and informal communication on OCC. Two hundred and four employees from a financial institution completed on-line questionnaires measuring personality, OCC (Affective, Normative & Continuance), and communication (formal & informal). The study evidences a negative relationship between conscientiousness and Continuance Commitment to Change (CCC). It reveals formal communication is a stronger predictor of OCC compared to informal communication. The study is also interested in how communication methods affect the relationship between conscientiousness and OCC. The findings of this study inform management to give due consideration to both formal communication and individuals' levels of conscientiousness when planning and implementing organizational change.

Introduction

Organizational change is often used as an approach to increasing organizational effectiveness by reconfiguring components within an organization (Ott, 1996). Change is an ever-present feature of organizational life nowadays; and the ability to facilitate successful change has become a requirement to survive and succeed in today's highly competitive and continuously evolving business environment (By, 2005). Yet, many academics and practitioners suggest that up to 70 per cent of organizational changes fail to achieve their objectives (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Keller & Aiken, 2009; Kotter, 2008; Pettigrew, 2000). Many change scholars (Fedor, Caldwell & Herold 2006; Ford, Weissbein & Plamondon, 2003; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Vakola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2004) argue that among different factors, Organizational Commitment to Change (OCC) is one of the most crucial factors to successful change. Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) define OCC as 'a driving force that binds an individual to take any necessary course of action for the successful implementation of a change initiative' (p.475). The idea is that OCC goes beyond a positive attitude toward change as it contains not only a supportive intention but also a readiness to make sacrifices to achieve specific change goals. People who are motivated to achieve a goal they are committed to, tend to try harder and are less willing to give up (Latham & Locke, 1979). Conner (1992) also suggests that OCC is the glue between employees and change goals. By acknowledging the importance of OCC, this paper draws its focus on factors that facilitate employees' OCC and ultimately reduce resistance among employees (Barnard & Stoll, 2011).

Based on employees' different motivations during their participation in organizational change, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) identify three types of OCC, namely Affective Commitment to Change (ACC), Continuance Commitment to Change (CCC) and Normative Commitment to Change (NCC).

ACC reflects a positive emotional attachment and a willingness to fully engage with the change because of the potential benefits it brings to both individual and the organization (Bouckenooghe, Schwarz & Minbashian, 2015).

NCC is related to an individual's feeling of obligation to be supportive in the change process. It mirrors the internal normative pressure to support change because of the potential contribution to meeting the organizational interests and goals (Bouckenooghe et al., 2015).

CCC is an individual's recognition of the perceived costs and risks associated with their resistance to change. It captures a very different motivation of supporting change. The underlying idea of CCC is associated with the idea of side bets. This means that if the individual does not support change they would lose their side bet (Boucke-nooghe et al., 2015).

These three types of OCC were built on Meyer & Allen's (1991) Organizational Commitment model. Here, OC is 'a mind set or psychological state' that is 'not restricted to organizational value and goal' (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.62). It reflects 'a desire, a need and/or an obligation to maintain membership in the organization' (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.62). It is important to note that, although the concept of OCC was built from OC, OC does not necessarily lead to OCC. Therefore, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) call for additional attention to be placed on Organizational Commitment (OC) in the change context.

Following this appeal, there is a growing literature on affective commitment to change in relation to employees' perception of change, change implementation and turnover rate associated with change (Cunningham, 2006; Parish, Cadwellader & Busch, 2008). Other facilitators of OCC such as trust in the top-level management, ability to cope with change, and participation in the change process have also been found to have a positive impact on successful organizational change. Fuller and Marler (2009) point out that individual facilitators play an important role in employees' OCC. Building on this distinction, this paper aims to illuminate the relationships between the three types of OCC and other individual level facilitator—personality, in organizational change.

Personality traits are seen to have a positive impact on individual success and organization advancement (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2012). Studies show that people with a higher locus of control (Chen & Wang, 2007) and openness to change (Chalwa & Kelloway, 2004; Cunningham, 2006; Herold, Fedor, & Caldwell, 2007) are more likely to commit to change. Panaccio and Vandenberghe (2012) compare five personality traits with three types of OCC finding significant relationships between agreeableness and ACC and CCC. This is particularly true for those personality factors that reflect a willingness to change, such as openness to experience and agreeableness (Chawla & Kelloway, 2004). Other personality factors such as conscientiousness have received

less attention in studies of OCC; but some evidence exists. For instance, Schappe (1998) suggests that conscientiousness has significant impact on OC. Vakola et al. (2004) also find a positive relationship between conscientiousness and employees' attitudes toward change; suggesting employees showing higher conscientiousness are more likely to engage in positive attitudes towards the organization and the change process. Therefore, this study is interested to see the impact of conscientiousness on employees' ACC, NCC and CCC.

Communication is another important antecedent likely to facilitate employees' OC and reduce resistance toward change (Chawla & Kelloway, 2004). Communication is much more than sending a message to recipients. It aims to achieve a fully reciprocal understanding between two or more people (Page, 1984). Communication has been previously examined alongside OC in some studies (Barrett, 2002; Elving, 2005). These studies highlight that many organizational change programmes failed because of shortages in communication highlighting the need to emphasise the role of communication in organizational change processes. Meyer and Allen (1997) argue communication creates a pre-condition for CCC as the purpose of communication is to provide information in relation to changes affecting employees. In particular, information about visions and goals at the beginning of change will allow employees to engage in the change process. Such information is often communicated through formal bureaucratic communication channels from senior management (Postmes, Tanis & De Wit, 2001). However, no empirical evidence has shown that formal communication is more effective in facilitating employees' OCC than informal communication.

In addition, Arnold and Randall and colleagues (Arnold and Randall, et al., 2010) argue that open communication through different channels, whether formal or informal, at both individual and group levels are important during organizational changes. Equally, applicable in organizational change processes are appropriate communication methods and adequate information about the change itself; with these factors facilitating employees' CCC. Unfortunately, no study has yet looked at CCC in relation to communication patterns. Therefore, this paper proposes that communication and CCC are associated. This proposition is supported by Postmes et al.'s (2001) and Elving's (2005) conceptual models of communication, which suggest that formal communication and informal communication both lead to OC and effective change.

This paper also suggests that formal communication between management and employees about change will have a greater impact on employees' CCC compared to informal communication. The present study is also interested in how the communication method affects the relationship between conscientiousness and OCC.

In summary, this study looks at the effect of conscientiousness on three types of OCC identified by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). It also examines the impact of formal communication and informal communication on these three types of OCC.

Method

This study applies quantitative research methods with a deductive approach in order to deduce and test the hypotheses supported from previous theoretical frameworks. A positivist philosophical stance is taken to test the significance of hypotheses by controlling various variables.

Participants and procedure

A study invitation was distributed to six hundred and fifty employees from financial teams of an insurance company by email. The invitation contained the purpose and procedure of the present study, and a link to the electronic questionnaire hosted by Qualtrics. The purpose of the study was described as “to explore how organizational change was managed in the company” and participants were asked to follow the instructions provided in the questionnaire.

Informed consent was provided by email prior to participation in the study and participants were reassured that their responses were to be anonymous and confidential, and reminded them of their right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

The data was collected over 17 days around the ‘blackout period’ in the organization. The term ‘blackout period’ refers to the busiest time of the year for the financial team due to the releasing of quarterly financial earning information.

Measures

A questionnaire was used to collect data consisting of: seven personality items (taken from the short version of the Big Five Personality Items, Rammstedt & John, 2000), 18 CCC items (taken from Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002), seven communication items

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(taken from Postmes et al., 2001), and demographic questions (age, gender and department).

Response choices were arranged on a five point Likert-type scale, from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). Participants were required to respond to each given sentence (such as “I believe in the value of change”).

Analysis

Data obtained from Qualtrics was converted into SPSS format to carry out reliability tests, correlations, factor analysis and multiple regression analyses.

Results

Two hundred and four questionnaires were returned with useable data with a response rate of 31.3%. The response rate is higher than the researcher’s initial expectation given the impact of ‘blackout period’. This will be discussed in the following section.

The 18 items from Herscovitch and Meyer’s (2002) questionnaire of OCC account for 65% of the total variance. No items were moved from the scales because all items had communality greater than .30 suggesting the variables are relatively reliable.

Findings confirm there are three factors of commitment to change as indicated by the Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) model.

With Cronbach’s alphas of .90, .59 and .85 for ACC, NCC and CCC respectively, reliabilities of ACC and CCC are satisfactory. However, results shows that the NCC scale is less reliable when compared to Herscovitch and Meyer’s (2002). This is possibly due to a difference in sample between the studies. The Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) study had a predominantly female population of nurses. However in the present study, participants are employees in a financial institution with an approximately 1:1 gender ratio. The nature of finance work in private sector is very different from the nature of nursing work.

A significant negative correlation was found between conscientiousness and CCC ($r = -.214$, $p < .005$) suggesting employees who have a sense of responsibility toward change are less likely to hold a continuance commitment to change. No significant relationship is found between conscientiousness and the other two commitment factors. Further, there was a significant correlation between CCC and formal communication

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($r = -.407$, $p < .001$) illustrating that employees who perceived change in line with a cost of resistance are less likely to engage in formal communication about change.

A positive relationship between ACC and formal communication ($r = .237$, $p < .001$) suggests that employees who are naturally inclined to change are more likely to participate in formal communication about change.

Finally, a positive relationship between formal and informal communication ($r = .372$, $p < .001$) reveals that people who engage in formal communication about change are more likely to join in an informal conversation about change as well.

The results of multiple-regression analysis (see Table 1) shows a significant improvement after adding formal communication as a predictor for ACC and CCC. This suggests that formal communication is more important when predicting ACC and CCC; but not for NCC or informal communication. Neither formal nor informal communication were found to moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and CCC.

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Table 1. Moderated-regression analysis on formal communication predicting Continuance Commitment to Change from Personality traits (N=178)

Model variables	R2	Adjust R2	ΔF	Sig F change	B	t	p
Predictor variables (constant)					3.007	4.240	.000***
Model 1	.045	.026	2.295	.080			
Proactive					-.001	-.006	.995
Conscientiousness					-.262	-2.274	.024**
Agreeableness					.239	1.722	.107
Model 2	.198	.176	27.438	.000***			
FORC					-4.26	-5.238	.000***
Model 3	.199	.171	.124	.725			
C* FORC					-.047	-.352	.725

Note:

FORC = Formal communication,

C* FORC = Interaction between conscientiousness and formal communication.

**₂, p < .01,

***₃, p < .001

Discussion

This paper aims to inform management to give due consideration to factors such as employee personality and communication methods when planning and implementing organizational change. These findings suggest that formal and informal communication have a significant difference in impact on employees' OCC. Specifically, formal communication is likely to have a more positive impact on employees' commitment to change compared with informal communication. Formal communication exhibits a significant positive association with affective commitment to change and a negative relationship with continuance commitment to change. This finding is in line with Postmes et al. (2001)'s conclusion about the relationship between communication types and OC. The negative relationship between CCC and formal communication indicates that employees who frequently participate in formal communication about change are less likely to associate supporting change with the cost of resistance to change. A powerful cost of not supporting change could be the threat of redundancy if employees do not support change (Bouckenooghe et al., 2015).

Further employees scoring high on conscientiousness are less likely to commit to change because of the perceived costs and risks of not engaging in organizational change. Although previous studies have suggested a positive relationship between ACC and conscientiousness (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2012), but, no relationship was found between conscientiousness and ACC in this study, or with NCC. A possible explanation of lack of associations maybe related to the 'blackout period' that the study took place. During this period, the workload for employees in the finance team increased significantly. Here, occupational stress is seen as a response to significant increase in workload which potentially leads to physiological and psychological strain (Beehr & Franz, 1987). As Beehr and Nikolaou (2005) suggest occupational stress directly affects employees OC and OCC. Nevertheless, a lack of association between conscientiousness and the other two components of OCC provoke an urgency to clearly distinguish between OC and OCC.

Additionally, it is worth taking a look at some other findings. A significant positive correlation between formal and informal communication may also indicate a link between different types of communication. It is possible to say that employees who choose to actively communicate with management about change may also be more

likely to engage in informal communication about change with their peers and supervisors. This association also reveals a potential link between using communication as a tool as well as using communication as a social interaction. It is possible that studies specific to communication have shown similar results, however this topic is outside the scope of this study.

Practical Implications

The findings of this study have practical implications for management when planning and implementing change. The results confirm the importance of distinguishing employees' different motivations toward change in order to better facilitate change. The results suggest that employees scoring high on conscientiousness are less likely to commit to change based on their estimated cost of not engaging in organizational change. In fact, most graduate recruitment assessments now have personality profiling included during the recruitment process as well as for career development purposes.

Building on previous studies of other personality traits, identification of relationships between personality traits and commitment to change helps management apply suitable change strategies, whether it's through different communication channels or providing information that provoke employees' motivation to change.

Findings indicate formal communication is a better predictor of employees' attitude to change. This suggests formal communication is likely to have a better impact on employees' ACC and CCC. Thus, it is recommended that organizations should apply formal communication as the main channel when communicating about change. However, informal communication should not be neglected just because it did not show as great an impact as formal communication. Postmes et al. (2001) suggest that in a hierarchical organization structure, it is likely that formal communication may have a more significant impact on employees' attitude toward change. However, with an increased focus on team-based projects in modern organizations, the impact of informal communication is likely to increase. Thus, the impact of informal communication should not be neglected when communicating about change.

Limitations and recommendations for future research

There are limitations of this study, including the use of a: a) single self-report measurement; b) cross-sectional study; and c) single occupational group. Nevertheless, these findings show further need for evaluative research to assess the effect of communication methods on OCC during organizational change.

While the present paper confirms the importance of formal communication to OCC, it is worth noting that change was not in progress in the organization during data collection. The absence of change is likely to have created discrepancies between the different changes referred by employees when answering questions (e.g., about structural change or system change). Absence of change makes the comparison of change outcomes based on the application of different communication channels difficult, as no comparison can be made on OCC before and after the change took place. Future research should compare change outcomes with the application of different communication methods before and after change took place to confirm the effect of different communication methods.

Conclusion

This paper investigates the effect of conscientiousness on three types of OCC (Affective, Normative & Continuance) and examines the role that two types of communication play in commitment to change. Findings confirm that there are three components in commitment to change as suggested by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) with a different occupational group. The study reveals a significant negative association between conscientiousness and continuance commitment to change. In addition, formal communication shows a significant effect on continuance commitment to change. Results also suggest that formal communication is a stronger predictor of affective and continuance commitment to change compared with informal communication.

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Leading innovative endeavours: The role of leadership for learning and interpersonal justice

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Abstract

To remain competitive, organizations have to increasingly rely on employees doing more work than is required by their formal job description. Therefore, it is important to understand the conditions under which employees are likely to go beyond their formal job description and engage in innovative work behaviour (IWB). Innovative work behaviour implies that employees voluntarily generate, promote and implement new ideas aimed at increasing organizational success. In this research, we investigated the interactive effect of leadership for learning and interpersonal justice on IWB in a sample of 209 employed participants by means of an online survey. As predicted, we

found a positive association between leadership for learning and IWB. Importantly, we found that leadership for learning was more strongly related to IWB at higher levels of interpersonal justice than at lower levels of interpersonal justice. In practical terms, workplaces can be designed for innovation to take place. To achieve this, managers should focus on creating an environment that is supportive of learning and live up to their responsibilities of treating employees with dignity and respect.

Introduction

Many organizations tend to see innovation as providing the key to organizational success. For instance, a 2013 study by Bain and Company among 1.208 chief executives showed that 74% regard innovation to be more important than cost-reductions for the long-term success of their companies (Rigby & Bilodeau, 2013). Previous research has indeed linked innovation to improved organizational performance (Agars, Kaufman & Locke, 2008) and increases in efficacy (Zhou & Shalley, 2003).

Importantly, innovation is no longer the sole responsibility of research and development laboratories. To maintain their competitive edge, organizations have to rely on employees doing more work than their formal job description asks for. That is, organizations increasingly need their employees to be willing to engage in behaviours that are not part of their official job duties, namely extra-role behaviours, such as innovative work behaviour (Anderson, Potočnik & Zhou, 2014). Innovative work behaviour (IWB) has been defined as the creation, promotion, and implementation of new ideas, which benefit the organization. Importantly, after generating ideas, individuals need to garner internal support and seek sponsorship for the implementation of their ideas – the so-called idea promotion stage. Finally, during the idea realization phase these newly generated, developed, and supported ideas need to be implemented in order to benefit the organization (Janssen, 2004).

Typically, IWB is not seen as being part and parcel of employee job descriptions and therefore, tends to be classified as extra-role behaviour (Katz & Kahn, 1978). In this sense, IWB implies engaging in action beyond the call of duty that is potentially fraught with the risk of failure, a need to experiment with new approaches and a certain amount of learning. In this context, learning is defined as an iterative process where taken actions are reflected upon and modified in an on-going way (Kolb, 1984).

Importantly, IWB is not formally recognized by the formal reward system, is generally not regulated by formal rules and regulations and requires significant amounts of cooperation, coalition-building and the garnering of internal support and sponsorship (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Previous research has related IWB to a number of positive outcomes at the organizational, group, and individual level (cf. Janssen, van de Vliert & West, 2004). At the organizational level, for instance, IWB has been associated with increases in organizational performance and innovativeness (Anderson et al., 2014). At the team level, IWB has been associated with increased participation in work teams, group cohesion, effectiveness, and receptivity to future innovation. Moreover, at the individual level, employee IWB has been related to better work performance, increased job satisfaction, better relationships with colleagues, higher personal growth, and psychological well-being (Janssen et al., 2004).

In terms of predictors of IWB, earlier work has focused primarily on individual characteristics like personality, motivation, and cognitive abilities. For instance, tolerance of ambiguity, self-confidence, proactivity, intrinsic motivation, an above average general intellect, and task-specific knowledge have been positively associated with IWB (see Anderson, DeDreu & Nijstad, 2004, for a review). More recent work has emphasised the importance of the team, the organizational climate as well as the leaders in shaping IWB. Concerning the work group, team climate variables such as participation and vision have been linked to IWB (West & Anderson, 1996). Moreover, support for experimentation, tolerance of idea failure, and risk-taking norms have been shown to enhance innovative behaviour (Anderson, et al., 2014). Importantly, certain leader behaviours have been consistently linked to employee engagement in IWB. For instance, a democratic and participative leader style has been shown to promote IWB (Tierney, Farmer & Graen, 1999) and leader's openness to idea proposals has been found to facilitate IWB (Nystrom, 1990).

Given that IWB seems to be integral to organizational success, it is essential to understand the conditions that prompt employees to engage in IWB. Since leaders play a key role in shaping organizational and team culture and are able to influence employee behaviours across all stages of the IWB process, in this research we focus on the role of leader behaviours in promoting IWB. Specifically, we will focus on the effects of

leadership for learning and leader displays of interpersonal justice on employee engagement in IWB.

From Leadership for Learning to Innovative Work Behaviour

Previous research has already shown that leadership is essential for employee creativity and innovation processes. For instance, leader support in terms of time, resources and space has been found to be critical for innovation (Amabile, 1988). Moreover, it has been shown that leaders could support innovation by providing guidance, initiating structure, supporting ideas, employing motivating tactics, and championing desired behaviours (Beeler, Shipman & Mumford, 2011).

One specific category of leader support behaviours that has not received a lot of attention in the context of IWB is leader behaviour that reinforces learning. Since IWB requires learning, we deem leader behaviour that supports learning to be especially likely to promote IWB. Whereas, to date, there is no research directly linking leader behaviour that reinforces learning to IWB, there has been some work that would lead us to believe that it does. For instance, some researchers have argued that efficient learning of abilities, know-how, and skills is essential for innovations to take place (Alegre & Chiva, 2008). In addition, Park, Song, Yoon, and Kim (2013) found in a study among 305 employees that a culture of organizational learning fostered individuals' IWB. Since leaders play a key role in directly shaping employee behaviours as well as organizational culture, below we will argue that leader behaviour that reinforces learning should positively impact IWB.

Previous research has identified the following leader behaviours as being crucial to reinforcing learning in employees: being open to alternative points of view, providing time for problem identification, facilitating knowledge transfer, allowing time for reflection, and engaging in active questioning and listening (Garvin, Edmondson, & Gino, 2008). Given that engaging in innovative behaviour encompasses not only learning new things but also taking risks, leaders need to create an environment where employees feel safe and comfortable in taking these risks and are encouraged to learn (Edmondson, 2003). Leaders can fulfil this need by introducing, guiding and realizing structures for reflection, providing support for different points of view, and facilitating the implementation of changes in daily work activities (Edmondson, 2003).

In sum, leader behaviour that reinforces learning has been associated with employee learning behaviour, experimentation and feedback-seeking, which are crucial elements of IWB (Edmondson, 2003). Therefore, we argue that leadership that reinforces learning should be positively associated with IWB.

However, leadership behaviour that supports and reinforces learning may not be enough to prompt employees to engage in IWB. Since IWB is not part of the formal job description it requires an active impetus on the part of the employee to go above and beyond the formal call of duty. To this end, there is reason to believe that the quality of the interpersonal treatment by the leader might have an impact on IWB. Indeed, previous investigations have linked interpersonal justice, that is, treating employees with dignity and respect, to increases in extra-role behaviour (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001). In the following section, we discuss the role of interpersonal justice in promoting IWB.

From Interpersonal Justice to Innovative Work Behaviour

Interpersonal justice, defined as the extent to which supervisors treat their direct subordinates “with politeness, dignity, and respect” (Colquitt et al., 2001, p. 427) has been associated with increases in job satisfaction supervisory satisfaction, trust in management, commitment, affective attachment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and performance. Furthermore, interpersonal justice has been negatively related to stress and counterproductive work behaviours. Lower levels of interpersonal justice, which lead employees to experience their supervisors’ behaviour as unfair, have been linked to increases in turnover intentions and absenteeism (see Colquitt et al., 2001, for a review).

Although interpersonal justice has been associated with all these positive effects, to date, there has been little research investigating the link between interpersonal justice and IWB. However, there is reason to believe that interpersonal justice might be related to IWB.

For instance, Simmons (2011) found in a number of experiments that the experience of procedural justice (vs. injustice) led to higher levels of creativity. In her studies, 225 business students were led to experience either procedural justice or procedural injustice and then participated in a creative performance in-basket exercise.

She explained her findings by taking a motivational perspective: she argued that the experience of procedural injustice led to decreases in motivation and, consequently, to decreased motivation to perform due to feelings of devaluation. This decreased intrinsic motivation, in turn, was associated with lower levels of creativity. We could reasonably expect that the observed effects of procedural justice on creativity in Simons' (2011) studies would function similarly for interpersonal justice and IWB, since interpersonal justice is a particular form of procedural justice (Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Martin & Tyler, 1997).

Additionally, interpersonal justice has been associated with enhanced creativity (Hannam & Narayan, 2015) and creativity is indispensable for the innovation process. Moreover, interpersonal justice has been shown to lead employees to feel valued (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and safe to challenge the current situation (Moon, Mayer, Kamdar, & Takeuchi, 2008), both necessary components for the occurrence of IWB. Therefore, we posit that interpersonal justice should be positively associated with IWB.

Does Interpersonal Justice and Leadership for Learning enhance Innovative Work Behaviour?

So far, we have argued that leader behaviour that supports learning and the interpersonally fair treatment of employees should be positively related to employee engagement in IWB. As stated before, IWB entails on the one hand engaging in experimentation and learning and on the other hand actively engaging in extra-role behaviour that requires effort, motivation and the expectation that one's efforts will be valued. Hence, leaders need to focus both on enabling employees to engage in IWB and on motivating them to go the extra mile. One way leaders can enable employees to engage in IWB is by engaging in behaviours that support learning. This leadership approach supportive of learning should afford time for experimentation, minimise the risk-taking involved in being innovative, and increase the likelihood that employees engage in it. In addition, one way in which leaders can motivate employees to engage in IWB is by treating them with dignity and respect and by making them feel valued for their efforts.

In sum, we argue that neither leadership for learning nor interpersonal justice are sufficient on their own in predicting employee IWB. Instead, we believe that employees' engagement in IWB is more likely if managers do the best they can to focus on both: providing support for engaging in learning behaviours (e.g., give people the space and

the means to learn and experiment with new things) and on maintaining the quality of the relationship (e.g., treat their workers at an interpersonal level in a fair manner and make them feel valued). Consequently, the more leaders engage in both types of behaviours, the stronger the effects on IWB should be. In other words, we predict that leadership for learning and interpersonal justice interact in predicting employee engagement in IWB. Specifically, we posit that the effects of leadership for learning on IWB will be stronger at higher levels of interpersonal justice (vs. lower levels of interpersonal justice).

The Present Study

This study investigates the interactive effect of leadership for learning and interpersonal justice on IWB. First, we predict a positive relationship between leadership for learning and employee engagement in IWB. Second, we argue that interpersonal justice will be positively associated with IWB. Finally, we predict that interpersonal justice serves as a moderator in the leadership for learning IWB relationship. Particularly, we argue that the effects of leadership for learning on IWB are stronger with increasing levels of interpersonal justice. To test our hypotheses, we conducted a cross-sectional field survey among German employees. We chose for a field survey since we were interested in finding out whether the proposed relationships hold in organizational settings. In addition, we focused on a German sample due to the fact that the principal investigator was based in Germany and therefore had access to potential employed respondents.

Method

Procedure

The study was conducted on-line with a German sample. We approached a panel of 549 employed people per email to participate in our study. To increase our response rate, we also asked the participants to share the study with prospective participants who fulfil the inclusion criteria. Inclusion criteria to participate were full-time or part-time employment as well as having a manager/supervisor.

Before releasing it, we tested the layout of the survey using different browsers on a number of computers, which differed in screen resolutions to eliminate possible response differences due to technical disparities. Assigning each respondent a unique

session ID prohibited multiple participations. Respondents took part individually and were informed that completing the questionnaire would take around 20 minutes. We informed them that the purpose of the study is to investigate how individuals function in their jobs and to find out their job-related attitudes. Further, we guaranteed the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses. Moreover, respondents could stop the research at any time and ask for their data to be removed from the analyses.

The survey was conducted in line with current recommendations in the field (Birnbaum, 2004), leading us to be as confident about the quality of our data as we would have been had we conducted a traditional paper and pencil questionnaire.

Since German-speaking employees were our respondents of interest, a first translator translated all measures from English into German and a second translator independently translated all items back into English following the procedure recommended by Brislin (1980). Resulting variations between the original measures and the back-translated version were handled by adjusting the German version via discussion between native speakers of both languages and a student of English.

Measures

The measures we employed are the most commonly used and accepted measures in the literature and research field of innovation, leadership for learning and justice.

Leadership for Learning. Our leadership for learning scale consisted of 6 items adopted from the Garvin et al. (2008) Leadership that reinforces Learning Subscale of the Learning Organization Scale and was measured on a 7-point Likert-scale (1 = highly inaccurate, 7 = highly accurate). Two sample items are “My manager invites input from others in discussions” and “My manager provides time, resources, and venues for identifying problems and organizational challenges”. Items were averaged into a composite leadership for learning score (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .89$).

Interpersonal Justice. We measured interpersonal justice with the 4-item Interpersonal Justice Scale of Colquitt (2001) on a 7-point Likert-scale (1 = not at all, 7 = to a very great extent), which assesses whether leaders treat their employees with dignity and respect. Sample items are: “Does your manager/supervisor treat you in a polite manner?” and “Does your manager/supervisor treat you with respect?”. All responses were averaged to form an interpersonal justice index (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .93$).

Innovative Work Behaviour. The nine-item scale from Janssen (2001) was employed to measure IWB. The scale consists of three items each to measure idea generation (e.g., “I create new ideas for improvements.”), idea promotion (e.g., “I mobilize support for innovative ideas.”), and idea realization (e.g., “I transform innovative ideas into useful applications.”). The items were measured using a 7-point Likert-scale ranging from never (1) to always (7). All items were averaged to form an IWB index (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .94$).

Demographic Variables. At the end of the survey we asked participants to report their gender, age, work experience, tenure, greatest educational achievement, whether they held a managerial function or not, number of direct subordinates, industry and size of the organization.

To test our hypotheses, we conducted a hierarchical regression analysis as well as simple slope analyses. In addition, we conducted a principal-component analysis to check whether our items loaded on the intended scales. In the following section we provide the results of our analyses.

Results

In this section, we first provide some information about our sample, next we present the results of our principal component analysis and finally we outline the results of our hierarchical regression analyses testing our hypotheses.

We obtained two hundred nine completed surveys (38% response rate). The sample’s mean age was 34 years ($SD = 10.47$) ranging from 18 years to 61 years and women made up 62% of the sample. Respondents’ average work experience was 12.1 years ($SD = 10.3$) and their average organizational tenure on the current job was 6.8 years ($SD = 7.57$). Respondents with a higher education degree (i.e., Bachelor degree or higher) made up 38.8% of the sample. Furthermore, 37.8% worked in small companies with less than 50 employees, 18.2% worked in businesses of 50 to 249 employees and almost half of the respondents (44%) worked in companies with more than 250 employees. At the time of the survey, only 48 respondents (23%) had managerial responsibilities, supervising three people on average ($SD = 11.52$). The sample was very heterogeneous in terms of job functions held, ranging from finance, marketing, legal, IT to customer service positions.

We performed a principal–component analysis (PCA) with OBLIMIN rotation of our predictor variable items (i.e., leadership for learning and interpersonal justice), which yielded a two–factor solution with all items loading $|.58|$ or higher on the intended scale and all cross–loadings lower than $|.30|$. Next, we performed a PCA of the items comprising our dependent variable IWB, which yielded a one–factor solution with item loadings of $|.73|$ or higher. These analyses suggest that our items did indeed load satisfactorily on the intended scales.

Means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and internal consistency estimates are presented in Table 1.

To test our hypotheses, we conducted a hierarchical regression analysis in which IWB was predicted by control variables (gender and supervisor position) at Step 1, main effect terms (leadership for learning and interpersonal justice) at Step 2, and the interaction term for the two–way interaction at Step 3.

Following Aiken and West (1991) leadership for learning and interpersonal justice scores were centred and the interaction terms as well as the main effects were based on the centred scores. We controlled for gender and supervisor position since previous research has found gender differences in terms of engagement in IWB (Rietzschel, 2011) and holding a supervisory position has been shown to enhance feelings of autonomy and therefore to be related to IWB (Axtell, Holman, Unsworth, Wall, Waterson & Harrington, 2000).

Table 2 shows the regression results for our dependent variable IWB.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Model variables	M	SD	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
(1) Gender	1.62	.49	-				
(2) Supervisor Position	1.77	.42	.184**	-			
(3) Leadership for Learning	4.41	1.35	.042	.058	(.892)		
(4) Interpersonal Justice	5.57	1.32	.026	.112	.722**	(.928)	
(5) Innovative Work Behaviour	4.14	1.14	-.195**	-.350**	.359**	.276**	(.941)

Note:

Gender was coded as

- 1 = male,
- 2 = female.

Supervisor was coded as

- 1 = yes,
- 2 = no.

Cronbach's alphas are displayed on the diagonal in parentheses. All constructs were measured by Likert-scales ranging from 1 to 7.

N = 209.

** p < .001.

Table 2. Summary of Regression Analysis for Leadership for Learning and Interpersonal Justice predicting Innovative Work Behaviour

Variable	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	b	SE b	β	b	SE b	β	b	SE b	β
Gender	-.316	.154	-.135	-.342	.141	-.146	-.387	.140	-.165**
Supervisor Position	-.881	.178	-.326**	-.952	.163	-.352***	-.969	.161	-.358***
Leadership for Learning				.274	.072	.324***	.264	.071	.312***
Interpersonal Justice				.074	.074	.085	.156	.080	.181†
Interpersonal Justice x Leadership for Learning							.084	.033	.173*
Constant	6.210	.372		6.378	.340		6.373	.336	
ΔR^2				.152			.022		
R ²		.140		.292			.314		
F(df)		16.819 *** (2)		21.001 *** (4)			18.558 *** (5)		

Note:

Note. Gender was coded as
1 = male,
2 = female.

Supervisor was coded as
1 = yes,
2 = no.

N=209.

† p < .10.

* p < .05.

** p ≤ .01.

*** p ≤ .001.

Predicting IWB, step 1 explained a significant proportion of variance and we found a negative relationship between gender and IWB (95% CI [-.62, -.01]) as well as a positive relationship between supervisor position and IWB (95% CI [-1.23, -.53]). As predicted, step 2 explained an additional significant proportion of variance and revealed a positive effect of leadership for learning (95% CI [.13, .42]) and a non-significant effect for interpersonal justice (95% CI [-.07, .22]). More importantly, step 3 explained an additional significant proportion of variance in IWB and revealed our predicted interpersonal justice \times leadership for learning interaction (95% CI [.02, .15]). Figure 1 shows the plotted interaction for low and high interpersonal justice (± 1 SD) predicting IWB. In line with our hypothesis, post hoc simple slope analyses indicated that leadership for learning positively affected IWB at higher levels of interpersonal justice (1 SD above the mean; $\beta = .443$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.21, .53]), but not at lower levels of interpersonal justice (1 SD below the mean; $\beta = .181$, $p = .074$, 95% CI [-.02, .32]).

To summarise, we predicted and found a positive relationship between leadership for learning and IWB. The hypothesized relationship between interpersonal justice and IWB could not be supported. In line with our third hypothesis, we found that leadership for learning positively impacted IWB at higher levels of interpersonal justice but not at lower levels of interpersonal justice. Furthermore, we found gender to be negatively related to IWB meaning that women are less likely to engage in IWB than men. Additionally, supervisory position was positively related to IWB, suggesting that those holding supervisory positions are more likely to engage in IWB.

Discussion

One of the top priorities of organizations today is to maximise the innovative potential of their employees in order to keep their companies competitive. For instance, a Centre for Creative Leadership survey among 247 senior executives found that 50 % of the respondents did not think that their organizations were operating at a high level of innovative capability (Criswell & Martin, 2007). Given that IWB has been associated with organizational competitive advantage, long-term survival and long-term organizational performance, it is important to understand the conditions under which employees are likely to engage in IWB.

In the present study, we aimed to investigate the relationship between leadership for learning, interpersonal justice and IWB. By marrying insights derived from the leadership for learning literature (e.g., Edmondson, 2003; Garvin et al., 2008) and from the

interpersonal justice literature (e. g., Colquitt et al., 2001), we posited that leadership for learning and interpersonal justice should interact in predicting IWB. Specifically, we first predicted and found a positive relationship between leadership for learning and IWB. Second, we predicted a positive effect of interpersonal justice on IWB; however, we did not find support for this hypothesis (see Khazanchi & Masterston, 2011, for more details). Importantly our main hypothesis of interest was about the interaction between leadership for learning and interpersonal justice in predicting IWB. As predicted in hypothesis 3, we found that interpersonal justice moderates the relationship between leadership for learning and IWB. More precisely, the results of our study indicate that leadership for learning positively impacted IWB at higher levels of interpersonal justice but not at lower levels of interpersonal justice. This suggests that to increase the chances that employees engage in IWB, both high levels of leadership for learning and interpersonal justice would need to be present.

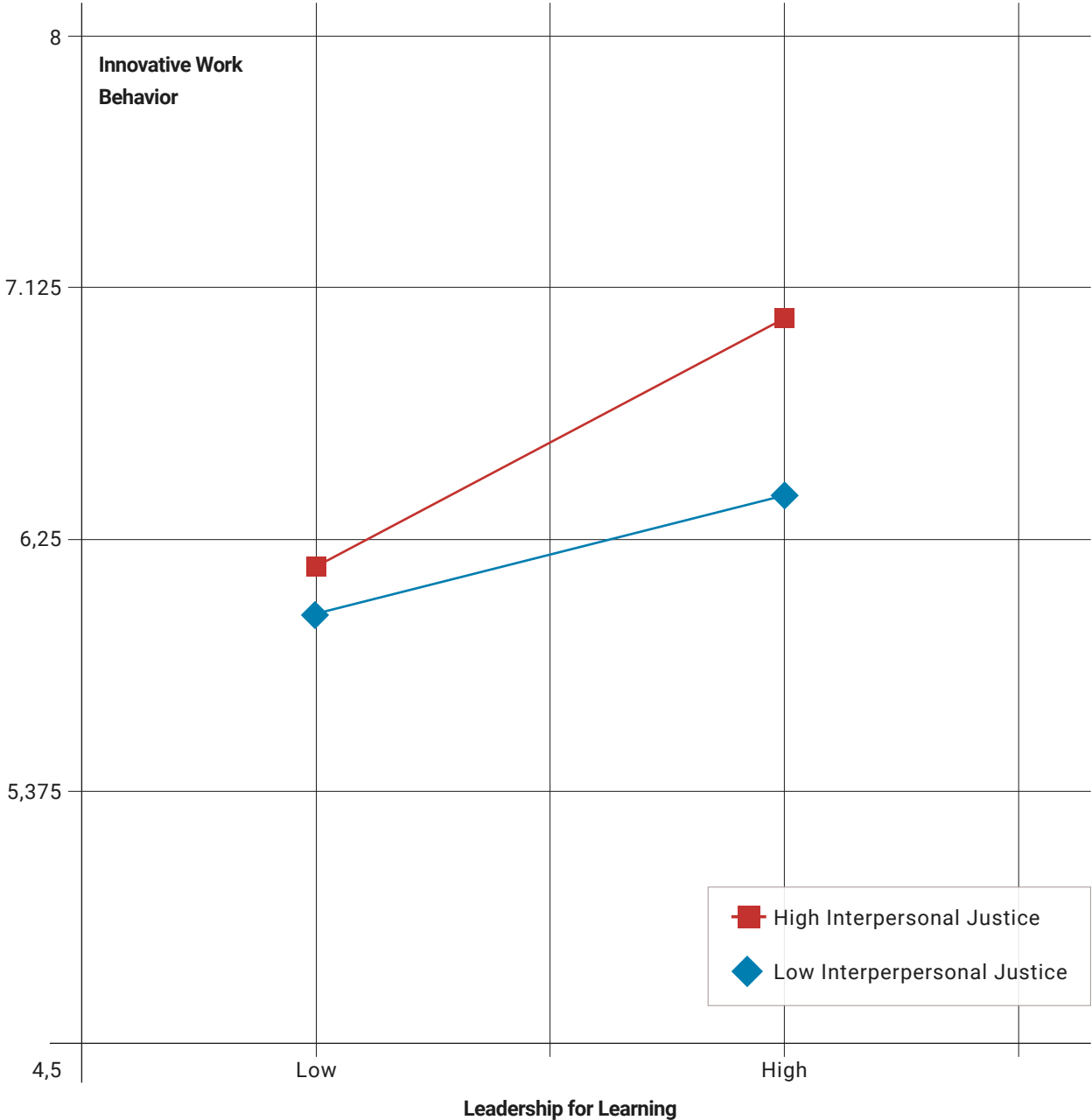
In our analyses, we also found a positive relationship between holding a supervisory position and engagement in IWB. A possible explanation for this relationship might be that supervisors are generally more skilled in problem solving which is a central feature of innovative work behaviour. In addition, we found a negative relationship between gender and IWB. This negative relationship is congruent with research by Rietzschel (2011) who found that women were less likely to engage in idea promotion, which is a part of the innovation process.

Our results offer theoretical advancements for the body of literature on IWB, leadership and interpersonal justice, which are going to be discussed in the next section.

Theoretical Implications

With this research we provide, to our knowledge, first empirical evidence that the interplay between leadership for learning and interpersonal justice can serve to enhance IWB. Especially relevant for the current analysis, research on leadership behaviours has found employee support to be positively associated with IWB (Amabile, 1988). Whereas previous research has looked at leadership support in general, we extend previous analyses by specifically considering the effects of supportive leadership behaviours that promote learning. Future research might benefit from taking a longitudinal perspective investigating the effects of leadership for learning on actual employee learning and subsequently on IWB.

Figure 1. Effect of Leadership for Learning on Innovative Work Behaviour for high and low Interpersonal Justice



Previous studies on innovation have largely neglected the role of interpersonal justice. Similarly, whereas some earlier justice research has investigated the relationship between procedural justice and creativity (e.g., Simmons, 2011), research on interpersonal justice has mostly disregarded its possible effects on IWB. This is quite surprising given that a large body of work has focused on the effects of interpersonal justice on other types of extra-role behaviours (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2001). Future research could, for instance, focus on identifying the potential underlying mechanisms of the interpersonal justice and IWB relationship.

In sum, our study identifying leadership for learning and interpersonal justice as potential antecedents of IWB, contributes to the increasing body of knowledge on leader behaviours that could foster employee engagement in IWB by not only considering their main effects but also by delving deeper and exploring their interactive effect. However, to increase confidence in our results, future research should address the following limitations of our investigation.

Limitations and Future Research

Some limitations of our study have to be acknowledged. First, since the study is a relatively small-scale cross-sectional survey, causal inferences regarding the relationship between our predictor and criterion variables cannot be drawn. Moreover, we consciously chose for this design, because correlational studies are typically high in external validity (Mook, 1983), and we were primarily interested in finding associations between our variables of interest. Second, social desirability and common method bias could both be a possible threat to our conclusions, since we used self-reported data. Participants typically want to present themselves in a favourable light in self-reports. Due to common method variance, it is possible that main effects have been overestimated, however, this does not pose a threat to our interaction findings (Spector, 2006). In fact, common method bias can lead to an underestimation of the effect size of the found interaction between interpersonal justice and leadership for learning, which further bolsters confidence in our findings (cf., Evans, 1985).

Several researchers have emphasised the importance of distinguishing between the different dimensions of IWB (de Jong & Den Hartog, 2010). In more practical terms this implies that managers may have to act with caution if they want to promote IWB,

because a situation, which could foster one aspect of the innovation process, does not need to be beneficial for another.

Notwithstanding the above, the present findings reflect situational characteristics of German companies and therefore we may face a generalisability issue. Hence, it would be interesting to look at other cultures and see in how far our findings are generalisable. To this end, research in Eastern cultures could be noteworthy. According to research by Zhou (2006) paternalistic organizational control is central for promoting teams' creativity in Eastern cultures, whereas organizational control impedes creativity and innovation in the West. Prospective investigations should pay more attention to cultural differences between the East and the West, because cultural differences could have important implications for management practice, international business, and economic development (cf. Anderson et al., 2014).

Practical Implications

Even though we have to be careful with inferring practical implications due to the single-study cross-sectional nature of our research, this research can have practical value for organizational practice in terms of leader selection, leadership training, and organizational procedures.

In terms of selection, organizations could choose applicants for management positions who treat their employees respectfully, given that leadership plays a significant role in the innovation process. Leaders contribute to employees staying motivated and involved and they manage the innovation processes through planning and the provision of support and resources. Furthermore, leaders who are open to questions, ready to experiment, willing to offer help, give feedback, and able to engage in perspective-taking could be selected (cf. Galinsky, Magee, Rus, Rothman & Todd, 2014). For instance, in a potential job interview these abilities could be assessed with situational judgment tests. In an assessment centre setting, potential leaders could face situations where they are under pressure to get their teams to engage in IWB and their supportive learning and interpersonally fair behaviours could be rated by other participants and observers.

Of course, human resource development (HRD) would be able to make a contribution to fostering IWB, too (Prieto & Pérez-Santana, 2014). They can contribute to creating

workplaces that promote cultures of learning and support innovation processes. The current findings suggest that HRD could design leadership training programmes where managers, for instance, could be trained in giving feedback, encouraging multiple points of view, posing open questions, and reflecting on ways to enhance their leadership for learning skills. Additionally, a focus on developing leader communication skills, negotiation abilities, listening behaviours, and mediating abilities could be fruitful in counteracting potential emerging work conflicts as a result of innovative behaviour.

However, despite all these admirable outcomes of IWB, a note of caution is due, since IWB is no panacea for all evils and IWBs do not always benefit all parties involved. Innovation is inherently unpredictable and controversial. Engaging in IWB is risky and can entail unintended costs for the innovators. Consequently, engaging in IWB can have dysfunctional consequences such as conflicts with co-workers, increased stress and the experience of increased job demands, frustration, antagonism, and animosity, resistance to change from colleagues, and higher turnover intentions (Janssen et al., 2004). This suggests that HRD and managers would need to be aware of these possible negative consequences and try to pro-actively mitigate them by supporting these innovators wherever possible.

In addition, CEOs and senior management might benefit from paying attention to organizational procedures and systems such as accountability systems and procedural justice systems, since failures of major organizational innovation efforts have been traced back to improper organizational procedures (for instance lack of consultation with workers; e.g., James, 1990). First, systems of procedural justice and accountability combined with flatter hierarchies and more democratic decision-making systems could enhance respectful contact between leaders and workers and thereby foster interpersonal justice (Rus, van Knippenberg & Wisse, 2012). Second, procedural justice systems and accountability systems could nudge leaders to engage in encouraging multiple points of view and acknowledging the leaders' own limitations, since each member of the organization could be expected to justify his/her decisions and behaviour to all others and thereby showing supportive learning behaviours.

Finally, organizations and supervisors can place a premium on innovation and promote the creation of norms that favour learning, are tolerant of failures, and open to

change. Moreover, supportive managers which provide time and space for generating ideas, promoting, and finally implementing them have been shown to foster IWB. For instance, both Google and 3M offer their employees certain amounts of working time per week (Google – 20%, 3M – 15%) to pursue innovative endeavours autonomously or in self-chosen teams. Indeed, the resulting innovations are striking – gmail, GoogleSky, GoogleNews, and the Post-It note to name only a few.

In conclusion, workplaces can be designed for innovation to take place. To achieve this, managers should focus on creating an environment that is supportive of learning and live up to their responsibilities of treating employees with dignity and respect.

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Background

Researchers and practitioners in Work and Organizational Psychology have devoted decades to understanding and developing performance management systems in organizations. The term performance management (PM) refers to organizational interventions or activities aimed at improving individual, group, or organizational performance, for example, via goal setting, feedback, and reward systems. According to a recent extensive review of the field by DeNisi and Murphy (2017), future research should broaden its perspective on the context in which performance management is done. Furthermore, research should take a closer look into how individual or team outcomes of PM interventions can be linked to organizational level performance.

Many organizations, including global players like Deloitte, Accenture, or Adobe are turning away from formal performance management systems towards more informal processes such as instant performance feedback (Roberts, 2017). According to O'Leary and Pulakos (2011) performance management has failed, because in many ways it has been reduced to prescribed steps within formal administrative systems. Scaduto, Hunt, and Schmerling (2015) take a more constructive view on the issue. They argue that PM systems can be effective if they rely on the participation of the different stakeholders in defining performance criteria as well as on regular feedback based on those criteria.

Some of the main reasons, why performance management is, in practice, quite often a difficult task and, instead of supporting employee performance, undermines it, are:

- Performance is multifaceted and interdependent. It does not consist of one single key indicator and every industry, unit, manager, employee will understand something slightly different when talking about performance. In order to measure these various facets, organizations have created complex and elaborate rating processes which often require fine-tuned judgements which are very time consuming.
- With fast changing markets, it is difficult to define individual goals that are not only aligned with the organization's (shifting) strategy, but also meaningful to an individual employee and not outdated or obsolete within weeks.
- Judgements and ratings are always subject to errors and social judgement. Even if defined procedures and rating standards are in place, managers' ratings of their employees will invariably be coloured by their point of view and subjective impression, which, in turn, results in inconsistent and unequal judgment.

- Most modern work forms require group work. This means that it is often difficult or even impossible to tease out an individual's specific output or performance within a group. Hence, measuring individuals' performance in a context where they are interdependent with others and, therefore, don't have full control over their own performance a) will be perceived as unfair and b) will not lead to performance improvements given that feedback at the individual level will not automatically lead to improvements at the group level.

Aims of the Special Issue and Possible Topics

The aim of this In Practice Special Issue is to provide a platform for practitioners and researchers to showcase the latest practice, research and trends in the areas of innovation in performance management and feedback interventions.

We invite both empirical and theoretical submissions and especially welcome contributions from practitioners who have developed and/or implemented innovations in performance management and feedback interventions. In particular, we encourage submissions that address issues related (but not limited) to providing a “missing link” in this area as DeNisi and Murphy called it:

- Is there (some) empirical evidence regarding the relationship between individual performance outcomes and firm level performance?
- What are the latest trends in performance management and feedback interventions?
- If “instant” or “continuous” feedback is the right thing to do, is there evidence regarding its effectiveness or is it just “old wine in new bottles?”
- Evidence-based techniques, tools and methods in the area of performance management and feedback interventions
- Empirical research in the organizational context on innovations in performance management and feedback interventions
- Also, very much appreciated are studies conducted outside the field of organizational psychology, such as for instance in sports. The learnings from performance management in sports can be very fruitful to the organizational domain (Roth, Young, Koenig, Schmerling, & Pritchard, 2017).

Submissions

In order to be considered for publication in the Special Issue, a proposal of 1,000–1,500 words (can include a figure/table) should be submitted by 1st October, 2018. The editors will review the proposals and contact authors with an invitation to submit full manuscripts up to a maximum of 7,000 words by 1st March, 2019.

Proposals and full papers must be written in English and in the style of *In Practice* (see <http://www.eawop.org/style-guide>).

Submitted papers must be unpublished and not be in the process of being submitted to other journals. Publication of this Special Issue is planned for October, 2019.

Send proposals to: InPractice@eawop.org

The editors are happy to discuss ideas for proposals and provide further information about the content of the special issue. For further information, contact Colin Roth (colin.roth@blackboxopen.com).

References

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