

Organizational and Employee Vision Alignment: Habits and Willpower

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Abstract:

This qualitative conceptual study was built upon the Power of Habit framework from Charles Duhigg and The Fifth Discipline from Peter Senge. This integrated study targets and emphasizes the capacity of routinized behavior. More specifically, routinized behavior has been shown to lead to organizational performance. The importance of routinized behavior and ritualized performance is explained in terms of organizational development with continued learning disciplines in mind. Furthermore, the study considers employee willpower and individual practices as the most pivotal contributors leading to habit and routine formation. The contributions that are mentioned form a synergy with one another.

The study brings a mesh between the two factors which in turn lead to employee self-fulfillment and organizational performance. This paper discusses the importance of a covenant, which is defined as the exchange of equal work for a fair wage. However, the covenant approach lacks meaning in the traditional form, as it causes a contradiction in the relationship between the employee and their career affiliated organization. Although this study was conducted theoretically with few case studies brought on from some of the directors of the largest world's corporations and as a field in emergence, additional investigation and a plethora of criteria should be instigated to find other motivating factors behind the two main contributors.

Key words: habitual alignment, routinized performance, willpower, organizational development

Introduction

It is not recommended to take on new employees on permanent basis (Suklasyan, 2008). The reasoning behind Suklasyan's (2008) stand is due to the ability to see an employee at work and understand whether the essence of continuous education (to become an expert in a certain field or profession, which is necessary and requires lifelong dedication)—is a beneficial and embraceable concept by the employee. Continuous and lifelong education is arguable one of the most popular in vogue topic that comes with a deep interest in learning. Learning, according to Metcalfe & Mischel (1999), which has long term effects, is the change in chronic activation levels of nodes, in the transition probabilities among nodes, and in the probability and speed of responses. Nodes used by Metcalfe & Mischel (1999) are metaphorically used as points of learning intersection between training and practicing. Thus, the more frequent the change of chronic activation in between nodes, the higher will be the probability of speed which creates new nodes or other learned behavior such as routinized behavior. As result of learning a new practiced behavior, nodes, according to Suklasyan (2008), are worthwhile to spend time on training because the enhancement of practice which further heightens behavior.

From the argument of Suklasyan (2008) it is simple to draw a conclusion that her work was built upon the suggestion of James (1884; 1890) and Lange (1967) as cited in Metcalfe & Mischel (1999) that people monitor their reactions and by monitoring their reactions only then they are able to feel the emotional behavioral responses. In fact, monitoring behavioral responses is so important that countless leaders are applying these learning principles and methods used by their

counterpartners in the realm of established organizations. Along the lines, the logic leads to explain that in a competitive environment, it is essential to develop repetitive monitored behavioral responsive impulses in order to enhance ability to outperform. Moreover, the monitoring of emotional responses brings vision and deep listening to catalyze forces for systemic change that larger organizations cannot access (Senge, 2006). For example, Mwalimu Musheshe started Uganda Rural Development and Training Project (URDT) with the idea of using learning principles and practices to stimulate rural development. Musheshe and his colleague taught people how to formulate their visions and how to build shared plans, while recognizing mental models that held them back and how to resolve differing views through listening to one another, and thinking about their villages as systems (*story is told in Senge, 2006*). The example is a clear demonstration how URDT capitalized on personal context of learned behavior congruent with emotional response by the environment which was the growth of rural communities. Archer (2010) argues that putting meaning to people on how they are “socially conditioned (p. 277) [nurtured by the organization]” together with a purpose [realization and need for personal fulfillment and success], it is possible to advance specific intentions. Precisely, specific intentions also include development of habit and reflexive patterns. Hence, taking part from Archer’s (2010) argument, it is clear and obvious that story of URDT (*story told in Senge, 2006*) and the development of a shared vision through habitual and customary behavior can be explained through social theory. The role of habit has been long played an extremely large role in social theory (Archer, 2010). Camic (1986) is largely attributed for demonstrating that habitual behavior and habits play a much bigger role in classical theorizing that it was previously acknowledged and thought of. The role of social theory in arguing alignment of habits and willpower for personal fulfillment and organizational

performance is crucial. Partly, because the development of habits is a recipe for repetitive behavior and the willpower is the desire to develop that particular behavior pattern. That is, once one has the willpower to develop a successful behavioral pattern, one may find it easy to develop any type of habitual or customary action. Ashforth and Mael's (1989) work describe SIT's attempts to understand why individuals classify themselves into some groups, but not in others (Norman, Avey, Nimnicht, & Pigeo, 2010). More specifically, the fact they are selective on who they associate with suggest a habitual *self-alignment* with others without ever thinking or doubting about it. In psychology's current agenda, the analysis of *self-regulation* (synonymously used as *self-alignment*) and the failure or the lack of discipline for one to self-align oneself, remains central and plays an increasingly dominant role in theories of the self and in conceptions of how humans can manage to achieve mastery over their own self-defeating vulnerabilities (Metcalf & Mischel, 1999). Although the Metcalf & Mischel's (1999) argument is based on daily social settings of the lives of human beings, Senge (2006) draws a parallelism by applying SIT's features in organizational settings by building a shared vision. Whether it is Metcalf & Mischel (1999) arguing the SIT theory in social settings or Senge (2006) explaining shared vision in organizational settings, the basics remain the same; SIT and/or building shared vision foster a commitment in the long term. Additionally, readings of Duhigg (2012), are the touchmark self- and organization-vision alignment. They are a roadmap to building discipline and willpower and the best way to strengthen willpower and self-discipline is to turn it into a habitual form – the kind of organizational habit that Starbucks instills in employees (*see Starbucks case*).

Literature Review

Cantor (1990), Gollwitzer (1996), Higgins (1998), Kuhl (1985) Norem (1989) as cited in Metcalfe & Mischel's (1999) paradigm of self-control tasks entail that extended periods of resisting outside forces whose focus is to tempt one-self astray and thus training one's will (or the self-regulatory system) demands strategic mobilization of thought, feeling, and action coordinated over time and place to "take-control" and to sustain it. Kugelman (2013) states that in the commerce world, programs that deliver strength in willpower development were often the selling point of employers and more often than not is signified the attempt to resist temptation from moving astray from organizational and personal goals. The argument further stretches that habitual repetition of certain senses should be able to align individual and organizational goals. In the contextual perspective of Metcalfe & Mischel (1999), Suklayan (2008) lays out two planning aspects. One that is linked to planning the work of a division on the whole and two regarding personal planning, relying on foreign experience. Each aspect entails a specific argument related to personal interest of job performance satisfaction within a given working day. In her argument, Suklayan (2008) states that statistically speaking at the end of work year, the indices on work volume are taken into consideration when pay dynamics are discussed. Duhigg (2012) makes a great parallel to claims that transforming a habit is not necessarily easy, quick, or simple. But it is possible and individuals, including scholars from the academia and professionals from other fields of life, do understand how to form a habit. In fact, when habits change, organizations transform (Duhigg, 2012).

Returning back to Suklayan (2008), she suggests each employee should have a personal schedule. The ideology behind personal planning, which she has advocated for years, is that at the end of the calendar year, the employee randomly writes

down goals he or she wants to accomplish for themselves. As a rule, the majority of these wishes aim for improvement of professional skills and self-development: the mastering of a new sector; enrolling in courses; writing an article; reworking instructions; studying a standard, a monograph, or a manual placing it into an envelope and submitting it to immediate supervisor. The envelope is opened once a year when the employee submits his or her evaluations to supervisor. Congruently, her argument is also widely accepted in the psychological community whereas Luthans (2002) states psychology's mission not to only support the mentally challenged (as previously accepted) but also to make the lives of people more productive and fulfilling and to identify the nurtured talented, gifted people.

Righteously, I am not sure whether you do or not but just in case you may ask or even doubt the role of psychology in this paper's argument, I have drawn the example of (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) as cited in Luthans (2002) in which they realize that studying people in general, is much more than just concentrating on and trying to fix what is wrong with the involved, which in our case are employees and teach them proper ways in which to behave and form a specific and special habitual behavior. Instead, 'it is about identifying and nurturing their strong qualities, what they own and are best at and help them find niches in which they can best live out these strengths'—that is exactly what this paper's main foci relies upon—understanding and aligning those niches that each employee has and nurture them towards personal and organizational success using willpower, an important [organizational] source in modern societies (Kugelmann, 2013) and habit, automatic behavior mechanisms developed through repetitive and continual behavior contexts (Lally & Gardner, 2013).

Conceptual Framework

Willpower Role

Although disregarded as an unscientific figure in the past century, the concept of will is one of the most important concerns in regards to explanation of human behavior (Tierney, 2002) and in the respect of explanation of human behavior towards organizational workplace, it is worth to discuss and to attribute its effects to alignment of personal and organizational vision alignment. According to Fennell (2011), willpower is a trait that matters to one's well-being. It is also a good predictor of positive outcomes in many aspects of life and it usually ranks high as one of the most important predictors in this aspect (Baumeister & Tierney, 2011). In fact, willpower is of great importance because it leaves marked effects on one's well-being over one's life cycle (Fennell, 2011); thus, it is worthy of careful thought consideration and most important worthy of practical implementation. Lastly, understanding of the willpower subtrait should help identify people who will complete action consistent with stated intentions (Fitch & Ravlin, 2005).

Even though willpower has been found to be genetic (Karp, 2014), it has long been a dominating studied subject and it has returned to contemporary psychology again but its status is yet to settle (Kugelman, 2013). It also plays a role under environmental and developmental constrains (Karp, 2014) and as such, it can be developed to enhance a specific purpose. *Willpower* here is referred to commitment related to organization and one's success. Metcalfe and Mischel (1999) have defined willpower as the ability to inhibit an impulsive response that weakens one's commitment. Consciousness has been accepted, in recent literature consensus, to exhibit the most consistent effects on behavior Barrick, Mount & Strauss (1993) as cited in (Fitch & Ravlin, 2005) and to be the strongest and most generalizable predictor of the Big Five personality traits (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Moreover, consciousness is a

strong conduit of willpower formation. As such, it could be deemed that via consciousness we are able to create self-disciplinarian environment around oneself and thus willpower playing the main role to provide the opportunity of creating such a disciplining environment. Additionally, Fitch & Ravlin (2005) isolate conscientiousness in relation to willpower as *consistency, determination and persistence*. Formulated differently, academics and practitioners see it as overcoming the stimulus control (e.g. bypassing a dessert, to forgo tobacco or alcohol, procrastinate on last minute projects, ensuring organizational commitment and policy compliance and many other events that do not only overcome negative events only.) Mark Muraven, a psychology Ph.D. candidate at Case Western University stated that willpower is not only a learnable skill but it is a muscle. It's a muscle, like the muscles in your arms or legs, and it gets tired as it works harder, so there's less power left over for other things (Duhigg, 2012). Job, Dweck, & Walton (2010) and Kugelmann (2013) support this argument by using *willpower* interchangeably to *self-control resources*. That is a definition also supported by Kugelmann (2013) and Fennell (2011), who signify willpower as a diverse dimension of self-control. Additionally, Kugelmann (2013) expands the definition of willpower up to resoluteness and effort. That said, the context of willpower argued in this paper is related organizational resoluteness and effort commitment aimed at aligning its goals to employee's personal goals. In order to do so, it would require individual effort (Kugelmann, 2013) and a mixture emergence of theory, research and practice of positive organizational behavior (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Senge (2006) has concluded the emergence of theory, research and practice of positive organizational behavior as systems thinking. A few critics have been cited in Job, Dweck and Walton (2010) arguing the opposite of willpower effects by considering self-control (willpower) as a limited source. In reality that would not hold true. If Duhigg (2012) considers

willpower a learnable skill and compares it to a gainable muscle mass, then it is possible to expand new learning material and more physical training for more muscle mass. Thus, willpower or self-control are theoretically limitless and do not hinder the ability to perform. The limitless opportunities of learning holds even more true in what Senge (2006) considers *systems thinking* when it directed towards organizational learning.

Willpower has been long studied and understanding and mastering the phenomena has been a long preoccupation of human beings. The literature has burgeoned and thousands of publications have praised the role of willpower for individual and organizational success. It has long been articulated by classic Greek philosophers, and represented in civilization and history since the beginning of human existence. The effects of strong willpower have been shown throughout history repeatedly. Metaphorically speaking, one example of strong willpower was Freud's challenge to himself. He challenged himself in finding a way to further investigate his research thought and finally through determined willpower, he was able to conclude the famous three parts of human personality. Karp (2014) supports the Freud's metaphor by asserting that willpower can be developed to some degree if one is motivated to do so.

You may consider this argument as a game drawing from the *Trust Game Theory*, proposed by Berg, Dickahut and McCabe (1995) as cited in (Volk & Kohler, 2012). Essentially, the game theory is an experimental two-player task designed to investigate trust and trust worthiness whereas one player takes the role of an investor (this study would consider the organization as investor), the other player trustee (the employee). The importance of the game stands on participant's *free will* to cooperate and their *willpower* to last long periods of time in cooperation. Free will is a closely-related individual trait to willpower. To believe in free will means to believe in exercising willpower (Karp, 2014). The notion of free will gives

people the opportunity to work towards and anticipate a better future for themselves, thus the free will notion is a necessity to experience achievements, accomplishment, control and positive relations across different spheres of life Clarke & Capes, 2013; Kane, 1996).

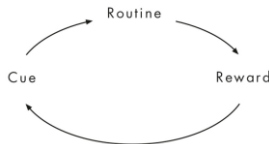
Drawing from Senge (2006) readings, commonalities between team learning and the Trust Game by Berg, Dickahut and McCabe (1995) as cited in (Volk & Kohler, 2012) are existent. For example, in situations in which cooperation might be the socially desirable response, participants might be more likely to indicate that they would cooperate if they were in a given situation than to actually show cooperation in a real task in which they can increase their personal gain by not cooperating (Volk & Kohler, 2012) and thus losing personal gain and organizational trust. *Trust Game* creates a level playing field for both players and as such it creates an opportunity for players to develop willpower skill that would enhance one's abilities to a more cooperative environment and organizational success by producing more cooperatively. Similarly, Senge (2006) suggest practicing a discipline (whether it is collaborating to colleagues or competing for turf) to be a lifelong learner and through learning employees *can* develop some sort of willpower applicable to oneself.

"Discipline" is not meant as an "enforced order" or "means for punishment," but rather a body of theory and technique that must be studied and mastered to be put into practice (playing field for both players) because studies suggest that willpower is gained through discipline. Discipline in itself is consistent and fosters learning and the unraveling of the hidden. Through learning and mutual cooperation, employees are able to develop willpower required to align personal and organizational goals. Volk & Kohler (2012) support cooperation by arguing that people may cooperate out of altruism or reciprocity. Coincidentally enough, Suklaysan's (2008) argument very is closely related to and in line with Luthans (2002) in

terms of organizational commitment to employee's success. Suklaysan (2008) claims that the vital space in which an organizational specialist spends most of his working hours (static physical desk and work environment) should be equipped and supplied in a manner ensuring maximum convenience (that in turn should produce more qualitative work) as well as economy of time and creative power (that empowers and unleashes human capital power). Furthermore, in organizational specialist's proximity should there be not only reference and procedural work policies but also working catalogue. Returning to (Snyder, 1997) as cited in Luthan's (2008) argument, Fitch & Ravlin (2005) state that individual differences in willpower have implications as to whether or not individuals will, in fact, carry out stated intentions (that is, properly completing their assigned tasks).

Habits Role

Habits, according to Duhigg (2012), are not destiny. They can be ignored, changed, or even replaced. In fact, the following picture is how Duhigg (2012) sees habit loop:



The cue is a sign that reminds one of a certain following action. The routing is the usual action taken upon that particular cue resemblance. And the reward is the satisfaction and the feeling we experience once we have responded to our cue. This feeling could be a positive or negative one. In the eyes of Wood & Neal (2007), habits are learned dispositions to repeat past responses. Or “relatively unmotivated” (Giddens, 1979, p. 218) “sequences of behavior that have become virtually automatic (James, 1890, p. 107).” Habit's characteristics depicted in Duhigg (2012) and in Wood & Neal (2007) are what Senge (2006) considered as

mental models. Senge (2006) views mental models (*habits*) as “deeply ingrained assumptions, generalizations, or even pictures or images that influence how we understand the world and how we take action.” Based on this assumption, Senge (2012), Duhigg (2012) and Wood & Neal (2007) definitions, supported by Giddens (1979) and James (1890) are consistent on what constitutes a habit.

According to Duhigg (2012), the reason the discovery of the habit loop is so important is that it reveals a basic truth: When a habit emerges, the brain stops fully participating in decision making. Therefore it becomes an automatic behavior (James, 1890). It stops working so hard, or diverts focus to other tasks. So unless you deliberately *fight* a habit the pattern will unfold automatically (Duhigg, 2012). Relating to habit emergence, Wood & Neal (2007) claim that habits emerge from gradual learning of associations between responses and the features of performance contexts that have historically covaried with them. Furthermore, once the habit is formed, perception of contexts triggers the associated response without a mediated goal (Wood & Neal, 2007).

As this paper attempts to establish, habits play a crucial role in ensuring ultimate organizational performance. In fact, Alcoa’s decision to bring Paul O’Neil on board as Chief Executive Officer gave light to new policies that ultimately were based on habit formation. More precisely, the primary and most important decision that Paul O’Neil undertook once assumed position that was “zero injuries” for Alcoa plants throughout the world (Duhigg, 2012). He set to achieve this goal through habit formation. His goal was set to habitualize each worker’s behavior in terms of safety. Each action taken by each worker has to speak of safety before taking action. Wood & Neal (2007) suggest that habit association accrue slowly and do not shift appreciably with current goal states or infrequent counterhabitual responses. Moreover, given these constraints, goals can (a) direct habits by motivating repetition that leads to

habit formation and by promoting exposure to cues that trigger habits, (b) be inferred from habits, and (c) interact with habits in ways that preserve the learned habit association. What is interesting about Wood & Neal (2007) and Duhigg (2012) the story of Paul O'Neil is that there is a fine line of agreement between the two as put to practicality that suggest why habits actually contribute to better organizational performance. That is, Paul O'Neil repeatedly motivated and persisted in the understanding of the contribution of safety at Alcoa for his employees which in turn led to habit automation. This happened when one of the Alcoa executives drove by a construction zone and observed several unrelated employees to Alcoa business, and advised them of safety when he called OSHA in breach of safety procedures. Paul O'Neil had instilled some particular habitual behavior in ALCOA's executives. This behavior was related to safety and every time, any executive saw something unsafe, they would speak up without thinking whether it was appropriate or not to speak to some other unrelated company employees. This would only happen in a habitual behavior situation where the cue is seeing workers work unsafely, the routine of drawing worker's attention for lack of safety equipment and the reward of have zero work injuries. (*taken from Duhigg, 2012*). Without knowing, at ALCOA plants, employees had developed a habitual behavior towards safety. Please, do not mistake habit repetition with human automatization. Suklasyan (2008) argues that it is impossible to automate intellectual functions. Therefore, we believe in ideas on "automatic classification" (Suklasyan, 2008). A seasoned organizational consultant as cited in Senge (2006) cited once, "People don't resist change. They resist being changed." Seeking change for the sake of adaptability is a failure to align organizational and personal visions and this paper fails in proving so. Thus understanding the power of habit in employee behavior change is potent and unignorable.

Moving forward to second goal constraint per Wood & Neal (2007), Paul O'Neil achieved exceptional organizational performance by exerting new definitions to safety which in turn formed a conceptual habit that contributed to a zero injuries goal set forth. He did that by taking the same cue with the same reward into consideration with a different routine which brings us to third condition of habit formation per Wood & Neal' (2007) argument. Duhigg (2012) stated that in order to change a habit, one must change the routine. Paul O'Neil perfected this concept. For every action that took place, employers were encouraged to think beyond production and think whether it was safe to operate the machine. Supervisors were taught to evaluate and compensate on safety attributions rather than production. Managers were rated on safety incidents and a portal was set up among plants around the world to exchange tips and ideas on how to protect employees. Townsend & Bever (2001) as cited in (Wood & Neal, 2007) state that most of the time what we do is what we do most of the time. If what Wood and Neal (2007) is true, then repeating a certain behavior repetitively will lead to behavior perfection or habit formation. If Townsend & Bever (2001) as cited in (Wood & Neal, 2007) are correct, then the majority of day-to-day living is characterized by repetition in this way. Surely enough, daily actions tend to be patterned into sequences that are repeated at particular times in customary places. For example, when we do tie our shoes, we have become so proficient and excellent at the task that we never have to think about it any further. In another example, when we feel cravings in a busy afternoon at the office, we tend to go and get a snack to fulfill our cravings until when we realize that we are gaining weight and we react to the outcome. Returning back on track to my argument that formation of habits helps shape organizational performance, Wood & Neal (2007) argue that when habits and goals are both present to guide action, they interact in their effects such that under some circumstances people respond habitually and under

others they exert regulatory control to inhibit the cued response and perhaps perform a more desired one. If employees and organizations are able to align both personal and organizational goals together, a more responsive employee towards organizational issues will be inclined without much brain utilization. There is a theory of cuing in two different forms. In the *direct* form, habit responds to cognitive associations between context cues and responses and in the *motivated* form by the diffuse motivation with the experience of the rewards for responding to certain contexts. This model according to Pinder (1984) as cited in (Fitch & Ravlin, 2005) does not stand. To Pinder (1984), motivation implies a willingness to put forth effort towards a purpose, which requires that a person form an intention toward the activity. Thus, if habit formation requires no brain utilization, a conscious willingness is a form of brain activity that wouldn't align well in a position where the use of brain is not highly encouraged for the purposes of habit formation. It can be easily identified that an intention toward an activity does not justify the act of activity. Said differently, the conclusion here is that habits do not require putting forth effort towards a purpose; they rather happen automatically and instinctively. In fact, that is so true that Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) provide a twelve steps process that rigorously refrains alcoholics from self-promotion and making them dependent upon the objective of appraisal from outside observers and the testimonials of members during meetings and in one-on-one contacts (Gross, 2010). AA's twelve step process is not a process whereas alcoholics are promised a change of habit once they follow certain steps or guidelines but rather it is a process that requires constant input and effort from alcoholics towards cultivating a different behavior. To Senge (2006), it would require personal mastery. Accordingly, the ability to focus on ultimate intrinsic desires, not only on secondary goals, is a cornerstone of personal mastery. Moreover, personal vision comes from within; however,

personal mastery will threaten the established order of a well-managed company or empowering people in an unaligned organization can be counterproductive (Senge, 2006).

Discussion

Scholars argue the current status of the theory, research and practice of positive organizational behavior as still emerging (see *Youssef & Luthans, 2007*). However, significant process is being made and Senge (2006) considers this emerge as systems thinking. Senge (2006) argues that business and human endeavors are also systems bound by invisible fabrics of interrelated actions, which often take years to fully play out their effects on each other. Of course, development of interrelated factors in between human endeavors has its own personal dilemma. Like anything else in social science, nothing is self-sustaining (Archer, 2010) and thus a myriad series of habitual actionable behaviors perfectly synchronized with social relations between participants enhances the ability of organizations to align themselves with their employees organically and pragmatically. This pragmatic and organic alignment requires a contribution of organizational tools to employees and employee productivity to organization's performance. The key to successful alignment is creating a learning organization. More specifically I am referring to a learning organization what Senge (2006) would consider it "a place where people are continually discovering how they create their reality (pg.12)." Organizations learn only through individuals who learn. Accordingly, learning does not guarantee organizational learning and without it no organizational learning occurs.

Financially speaking, Max de Pree, former CEO of Herman Miller speaks of a "covenant" between organization and individual, in contrast to the traditional "contract". According to De Pree, "contracts are a small part of a

relationship. A complete relationship needs a covenant . . . a covenantal relationship rests on a shared commitment of ideas, issues, values, goals, and management processes . . . Covenantal relationships reflect unity, grace, and poise. They are expressions of the sacred nature of relationships (*see Senge, 2006*).” If finances are main concern for an organization in relation to its employees, then we should consider the covenant approach offered by Max de Pree. Should that happen, employees produce extraordinary results and they are growing more rapidly than could have occurred otherwise. Some of these results could be financial performance, safety measurements, better hydraulic equipments or any other type of measuring mechanism units that corporations define it successful for their own performance success.

In total, as described by Duhigg (2012) habits can be changed, altered and corrected for as long we keep cues and rewards static and intervene on routines. The alignment of organizational and employee visions through reciprocal cooperation seems a worthy, long, and arduous trip through more theory building, research and effective applications into workplace settings.

Conclusions

Thus far it has been discussed and argued how willpower and habits play a role in gathering individuals and organizations towards a vision. Habits and willpower have long been a topic with interest for philosophers who have attempted to describe them in terms of human actions. An improvement of understanding in the role that habits and willpower play daily in human actions may yield substantial results to make more intelligent and effective decisions for one’s life and to ensure organization’s life by aligning the right employees to the appropriate agency.

The concept of habits is unique. We have spoken how it is developed and how its outcome is based on the reward given at the end of the behavior. To form a new pattern of behavior, it is essential for one to keep the same cues with same rewards but change only routine. Behavior creation requires a determinant will stemming from individual and organizational abilities. For individuals, it is essential to develop the power of free will to develop a new behavioral pattern to, what Senge (2006) referred to, share the same vision. Under this argumentative theory, reciprocity applies. Employees develop new patterns that align well with organizations to commit to personal and organizational success while organizations pledge fairness by providing the necessary tools and resources for personal development and fair pay.

As stated earlier, the key to personal and successful alignment is creating a learning organization which is “a place where people are continually discovering how they create their reality (Senge, 2006, p. 12).” That said, it is essential that employees are able to continually and continuously discover and re-discover their reality time over time in order to keep constant. If such actions were to happen manually time after time, then exhaustion and boredom would set in. Hence, it is crucial that these behaviors are developed as habitual learned behavior without manual efforts by the individuals. What is important to take into account is that a learning organization does not per se guarantee organizational learning and without organizational learning, there is no learning throughout the agency. But as discussed, in regards to habits on how they can be changed, altered and corrected, the development of new behavior patterns will enhance the ability of one to cope with different relative environments. Of course, such behavior adaptation would require special circumstances. Some special circumstances as discussed by Fitch and Ravlin (2005) are trust, coordination, teamwork and ultimately job performance.

They all fundamentally affect whether organizational members can be counted upon to do what they say.

We continually seek to change because we like to hope that change will bring something different for better for us. Willpower is the main dimension of Hope and it is a conclusive two-way expectancy which forms outside forces (e.g. organization providing the necessary tools for employee success). *Hope* is one of the few components that Luthans's (2002) Positive Organizational Behavior (POB) theory conveys. Academic community has given it a name: Appreciative Inquiry. In reality, he gives Hope a dimension that he argues is similar to efficacy expectancies and the pathway dimension is conceptually close to efficacy outcome expectancies. In other words, we do hope to find and develop patterns that are congruent with our own personal beliefs to individual extent and aligned and well-laid out in institutional context.

Bandura (1997) would argue that efficacy expectancies are all-important (therefore willpower for each task is essential), while Snyder's (2000) hope theory treats the agency and the pathways as equally important, operating in a combined, iterative manner (both contributing to main purpose, in our case both the organization and employee contributing to aligning personal and organizational goals) (Luthans, 2002). In addition, Hope is created, motivated and developed in relation to the pursuit of personally valuable goals (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Ultimately what truly matters is pursuit of happiness in the process of habitus development and having the ability or the willpower to self-control oneself to the extent of personal change and continuance of self-development.

Limitations

The theoretical argumentative analysis displayed in this paper is a theory-built deconstructive analysis based on two

particular frameworks. Since majority of the scientific evidence presented in this theoretical argumentative paper is theoretical and, to some degree, very abstract and difficult to implement in practice, it is expected to have a few limitations. One visible limitation is the acceptance of willpower as a new emergent subtrait in regulation of human behavior. That specific new regulation includes development of new patterns, alteration of older patterns and/or correction of previous behaviorist styles. Another limitation this paper presents is the abstract mode and philosophical epistemology followed throughout each individual argument. Some readers may find it difficult to read due to its abstract nature and integration of two theoretical frameworks in one. A third limitation to this study are the new untested topics introduced in the context pertaining to the theoretical investigation of the above topic; thus, narrowing the nature of argument and focusing it intently to the topic.

Nevertheless, the limitations provide opportunities for other researcher to examine the topic in different other context and/or build upon new principles. Some future research, for instance, could be directed towards deconstruction of each theoretical perspective on its own and its application to the topic. In another instance, the topic could be further enhanced and attempted to understand how ritual behavior responds to certain stimulus.

Although the paper is limited in scope, it could be a great starting point for other researchers who may want to develop an interest in understanding how habitual behavior revolves and responds to willpower as prescribed by Senge (2006) and other suggesting academic literature.

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