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IMPULSE CONTROL AND INTERNET ADDICTION DISORDER AMONG BUSINESS PROFESSIONALS

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ABSTRACT

We compared 94 female and 218 male Indian business professionals' self-reporting their usage of Orkut, Facebook, Google, Twitter, and LinkedIn as ways they search the Internet, engage in social interaction on the world wide web commonly referred to as Web 2.0. Our Chi-square tests revealed differences between male and female professionals on three levels of income: \leq \$10K, \$11-20K, and \geq \$21K. A 20-items instrument adapted from Dr. Kimberly Young's Internet Addiction Test (Young, 1996) was used to measure Internet Addiction Disorder (IAD). We used factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests, with a 2 x 3 factorial design. Gender (male or female) and income were the independent variables. Principal axis factor analysis resulted in four derived factors, used as dependent variables, in four separate two-way ANOVA procedures. Main effects and a two-way interaction effect were detected, with $p < .01$ in only one case, when the factor we labelled "Impulse Control" was used as a dependent variable.

INTRODUCTION

Individuals across the world seek relationship of cooperation and collaboration influenced by the rate at which individuals have allowed the Internet to weave its way into their everyday lives (Hu & Ramirez, 2006). Modern technical innovations have allowed for human interaction to adopt a virtual dimension.

Wikipedia defines Web 2.0 the following way:

A Web 2.0 site may allow users to interact and collaborate with each other in a social media dialogue as creators of user-generated content in a virtual community, in contrast to Web sites where people are limited to the passive viewing of content. (Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Web_2.0)

Online communities where individuals are socially connected with communication tools (e.g. Facebook) via the Internet is now commonly known as Web 2.0 (Roebuck, Siha, & Bell, 2013). Online tools have transformed human virtual encounters, including diverse utilities of Web 2.0, such as retailers' marketing to youth and predicting their preferences for mobile device features (Bell, et al., 2009; Engel, et al., 2011; Stark, et al., 2008; Stark, et al., 2009a; Stark, et al., 2009b). Social networking websites—commonly referred to as SNWs—fall into the same category as Web 2.0 and could contribute to a better understanding for future workplace expectations between Indian male and female professionals. Agarwal and Mital (2009) share their findings:

The results of chi-square analysis indicated that there was a significant difference in the extent of sharing of opinions among males and females (p value < .05, hypothesis rejected). The reason for this could be that women in India are still cautious about using SNWs for various reasons. It was also found that there was a significant difference in the respondents' usage of SNWs for widening of perspective, when the usage of the Internet was low as compared to high Internet usage by the respondents (p value < .05, hypothesis rejected). This seems to indicate that if usage of the Internet is high, then comfort with using SNWs is also higher. (p. 108)

Gender is an important predictor of Web 2.0 usage (Agbatogun, 2013; Huang, Hood, & Yoo, 2013; Ruleman, 2012). Some researchers, however, are finding little to no differences between genders when it comes to Web 2.0 usage (Kim, Kwon, & Cho, 2011; Sahin & Thompson, 2007). We did find two studies where females were found to be more likely than males to use Web 2.0 as communication tools, such as Facebook (Rovai & Baker, 2005; Ruleman, 2012). The literature suggests that wasted human capital resulting from IAD is correlated to gender differences and income, among other important variables.

The High Cost of IAD to Business

The impulse to use social media can be costly to business. Billions in revenue dollars are lost when employees abuse the Internet while working, which then interferes with their jobs (Young, 2010). Lost productivity, corporate liability and corporate surveillance are now workplace concerns due to abuses and improper uses of Web 2.0 among workers (Bell & Martin, 2014).

Web 2.0 misuse creates new management dilemmas on how to respond to incidences where such misuses pose network security risks when employees are addicted to the Internet at the expense of their productivity. Managers' imperative is to ensure that employees are using computing resources effectively and appropriately. Because of prior research, we now know exactly what the signs and symptoms are for Internet Addiction Disorder (IAD).

When an employee has an impulse-control disorder that does not involve any intoxicant, yet, continues to use the Internet to the detriment of important work, the employee is exhibiting IAD. There are four triggers to excessive Internet use: (1) application is a particular application that influences the employee's addiction; (2) emotion is when the Internet helps the employee relax and/or calm down; (3) cognition is when the Internet acts as therapy for the employee, offering the employee relief from maladaptive thoughts or even catastrophic thinking; and (4) life events include the employee's general dissatisfaction with life, including absence of intimate relationships (Young, 1996). Young (2010) proposed a revised framework to manage employee Internet abuse. Her new model described both prevention and intervention methods to address incidents of online misuse in the workplace and refocused hiring decisions into post-employment training. The model examined the hiring concerns with the new "iGeneration" of college graduates. Acceptable Internet use policies with clear methods of Internet monitoring to enforce workers' compliance with company policies are imperatives.

The most common symptoms of IAD are preoccupation with the Internet at inappropriate times, too much time spent on social-networking sites rather than developing face-to-face relationships in the real world, excessive watching of pornography, escaping negative feelings by time online, weight gain, poor hygiene, carpal tunnel, other physical effects of Internet abuse, and ignoring work and relationships to use the Internet (Control Center, 2014).

Cyber slacking, typically defined as the use of Internet and mobile technology during work hours for personal purposes, is a growing concern for organizations due to the potential in lost revenue; being younger, male, and of a racial minority positively predicted cyber

slacking variety and frequency, as do routinized Internet use at work and higher perceived Internet utility (Vitak, Crouse, & LaRose, 2011).

The Internet over the past two decades has significantly influenced people's personal lives. People communicate with each other through Internet facilities such as email services, social web pages, etc. The Internet has influenced so much of our lives that many people get addicted and it has become a serious issue among different societies (Iravani, et al., 2013). In the sparse literature on IAD relating to employees' Internet abuses, we found some evidence that socioeconomic variables such as people's gender, income, poverty, education levels, age, and race might differ in their IAD.

Socioeconomic and Demographic Variables of IAD

Young and Case (2004) examined the effectiveness of emergent risk management practices that attempted to reduce and control employee Internet abuse and its potential for addiction. Over a six month period, fifty usable web-administered surveys were collected. Respondents ranged from human resource managers to company presidents. Data were stored in a database management system and analyzed utilizing statistical measures. Implementation levels of Internet use policies, management training, and clinical rehabilitation were examined; and they discovered effective methods to deter employees' Internet abuses.

Porter and Donthu (2006) found that, although most Americans use the Internet, those who were older, less educated, minority and lower income had lower usage rates than younger, highly educated, white and wealthier individuals. They developed and tested an extended version of the technology acceptance model (TAM) to explain these differences. The model predicted that age, education, income and race were associated differentially with beliefs about the Internet, and that these beliefs influenced a consumer's attitude toward and use of the Internet. Further, they found that although access barriers had a significant effect in the model, perceptions regarding ease of use and usefulness had a stronger effect. The results suggested that by extending the TAM to include perceived access barriers helped explain demographic-based differences in Internet use. They also provided key insights for both managers and policymakers.

Wilson, Fornasier, and White (2010), argued young people increasingly used Myspace and Facebook, to engage with others. The use of the Internet could have both positive and negative effects on the individual; however, few research studies identified the types of people who frequented these Internet sites. The study sought to predict young adults' use of the Internet and addictive tendency toward the use of the Internet from their personality characteristics and levels of self-esteem. University students ($N = 201$), aged 17 to 24 years, reported their use of the Internet and addictive tendencies for Internet use. The students completed the NEO Five-Factor Personality Inventory and the Cooper-Smith Self-Esteem Inventory. Multiple regression analysis revealed that as a group the personality and self-esteem factors significantly predicted both level of Internet use and addictive tendency but did not explain a large amount of variance in either outcome measure. The findings indicated that extraverted and unconscientious individuals reported higher levels of both Internet use and addictive tendencies.

Kuss and Griffiths (2011) found Internet usage was seen as a 'global consumer phenomenon' with an exponential rise in usage within the last few years. Anecdotal case study evidence suggested that 'addiction' to social networks on the Internet might be a potential mental health problem for some users. Therefore, this literature review was intended to provide empirical and conceptual insight into the emerging phenomenon of addiction to Internet by: (1) outlining Internet usage patterns, (2) examining motivations for Internet usage, (3) examining personalities of Internet users, (4) examining negative consequences of

Internet usage, (5) exploring potential Internet addiction, and (6) exploring Internet addiction specificity and comorbidity. The findings indicated that the Internet was predominantly used for social purposes, mostly related to the maintenance of established offline networks. Moreover, extraverts appeared to use social networking sites for social enhancement, whereas introverts used it for social compensation, each of which appeared to be related to greater usage, as did low conscientiousness and high narcissism. Negative correlates of Internet usage included the decrease in real life social community participation and academic achievement, as well as relationship problems, each of which may be indicative of potential addiction.

Marulanda-Carter and Jackson (2012) explored the effect of e-mail interruptions on tasks and explored the concept of e-mail addiction within the workplace. Data were collected from a large car rental company in the UK. The first collection method involved observing the effects of simulated e-mail interruptions on seven employees by measuring the interrupt handling time, the interrupt recovery time, and the additional time required to complete the task given the number of interruptions.

A study by Mădălin Octavian Vanea (2011) examined the relationship between the Internet usage, Internet usage's purposes, gender and the dimensions of Internet addiction. Participants in the study were 100 professionals from Bucharest, Romania (57 males, 43 females, aged 23 - 55 years, $M = 32, 70, SD = 8.28$). The data were collected by a questionnaire related to the participants' gender and Internet related variables and by Young's Internet Addiction Test (IAT). The findings provided an empirical foundation for the adults' counseling practices according to people's tendencies to use intensively/excessively some of types of Internet activity.

McAndrew and Jeong (2012) conducted a study focused on how people used Facebook. An international sample of 1,026 Facebook users (284 males, 735 females; mean age = 30.24) completed an online survey about their Facebook activity. Females, younger people, and those not currently in a committed relationship were the most active Facebook users, and there were many age-, gender-, and relationship-related main effects. Females spent more time on Facebook, had more Facebook friends, and were more likely to use profile pictures for impression management; women and older people engaged in more online family activity. Relationship status had an impact on the Facebook activity of males, but little effect on the activity of females. The results were interpreted within a framework generated by an evolutionary perspective and previous research on the psychology of gossip.

Lin, et al. (2013) in August 2010 asked female Registered Nurses working in a regional teaching hospital in southern Taiwan to complete a paper-based questionnaire. The questionnaire included questions on demographics, the Chen Internet Addiction Scale and the Chalder Fatigue Scale. Multiple linear regression analysis was performed using the Chalder fatigue scale as the dependent variable. Of the 564 (79% response rate) valid questionnaires returned, 6% and 10% of the participants were classified as diagnostic cases and possible cases of Internet addiction, respectively. Fatigue levels, adjusting for other potential confounders including work unit, shift work, regular self-medication, and self-perceived health status, were significantly associated with both possible cases of Internet addiction and diagnostic cases of Internet addiction. This study was the first in reporting a statistically significant association between fatigue levels and Internet addiction in female hospital nurses.

Iravani, et al. (2013) performed an empirical study to find the relationship of the issues of age, gender and employment status on Internet addiction behavior. The survey selected 190 men and 160 women from a city of Najafabad located in province of Esfahan, Iran. A questionnaire with 35 questions was distributed to them. The survey used Chi-Square statistics to examine the effects of three mentioned factors and the results indicated that Internet addiction was more prevalent among singles than married (Chi-Square = 19.94). The

survey also indicated that Internet addiction was more common in men than women (Chi-Square = 6.64).

Internet addiction has been viewed as a clinical disorder for treatment. Kang, Shin, and Park (2013) conducted research to study addiction to the Internet from a management perspective to study consumer behavior as a possible manageable resource. A survey was administered to prolific users of the Internet. The authors performed an exploratory factor analysis on the data to define Internet addiction and to construct its dimensions. The authors termed Internet addiction as an “addictive consumption trait” (ACT) of the Internet; and its underlying dimensions are salience, euphoria, immersion, compulsion, and association. With the newly constructed dimensions of ACT of the Internet, firms could determine the causal relationships between the attributes of their Internet on each dimension of ACT of the Internet. Once firms understand the influences of each one of the attributes on ACT of the Internet, they can re-allocate their resources to maximize consumers' ACT of the Internet.

The first objective of a study by Quiñones-García and Korak-Kakabadse (2014) examined Compulsive Internet Use (CIU) in adults that were either employed (N = 260) or unemployed within the last year (N = 256). Second, the drivers of CIU were examined, with a focus on attitudes that reflected the reality of long working hours and job insecurity that people experienced in current workplaces. A high risk of CIU (63%) with no significant differences between employed and unemployed individuals was found. However, unemployed individuals were in the highest band of Internet use, a risk factor for CIU. Interestingly, unemployed 40–55 years old females experienced higher CIU than their male counterparts. Regarding drivers of CIU, the job attitudes of working excessively and compulsively were the strongest predictors, beyond emotional stability. This was particularly true at high levels of social support. In view of this, organizations should proactively evaluate the risks associated with encouraging working excessively as ill-health consequences associated with CIU could outweigh the benefits.

Beavers et al. (2015) conducted a study of 216 community college students in the United States based on their perceptions of time spent online, as measured by a 20-item instrument adapted from Young's Internet Addiction (IA) Test (Young, 1996). The researchers found that Internet Addiction (IA) was dependent on gender for Social Recluses but not for Internet Addicts or Procrastinators. Females were more prone to be Social Recluses than their male counterparts. Internet Addiction (IA) was dependent on the time community college students spent online for Social Recluses and Internet Addicts but not for Procrastinators. Internet Addiction was not dependent on gender when time online was an independent factor compared on Social Recluse, Internet Addict, or Procrastinator as dependent variables. In that study males and females were statistically the same on perceptions of their IA behaviors when time was considered in the models.

ANALYSIS OF THE NON-PARAMETRIC DESCRIPTIVE DATA

The statistical analysis included data from a broad spectrum of sectors and industries. We compared the means of 218 male and 94 female Indian business professionals based on their reported income from surveys they completed online via Survey Monkey. Table A in the Appendix summarizes the frequency and percentage of the 312 responses. There were 63, 77, and 78 males reporting salaries of \leq \$10K, \$11-20K, and \geq \$21K, respectively. There were 27, 34, and 33 females reporting salaries. Indian business professionals' perceptions were measured by a 20 item instrument adapted from Dr. Kimberly Young's Internet Addiction Test (Young, 1996). These 20 questions were coded as IAD1 through IAD20. The literature suggests there is a need to better understand the influence socioeconomic and demographic factors like gender and income on Web 2.0 usage, i.e., Orkut, Facebook,

Google, Twitter, and LinkedIn. To better understand our descriptive data, we first needed to test the relative frequency of our independent distributions, the two variables we selected as our independent variables.

We, therefore, hypothesize that:

- H1: The relative frequency of the distribution of male and female Internet users will not differ from the relative frequency of the distribution self-reported uses of Orkut, Facebook, Google, Twitter and LinkedIn, representing the Internet.*
- H2: The relative frequency of the distribution of three levels of incomes (\leq \$10K, \$11-20K, and \geq \$21K) for Indian business professionals as Internet users will not differ from the relative frequency of the distribution self-reported uses of Orkut, Facebook, Google, Twitter and LinkedIn, representing the Internet.*

Table B in the Appendix shows corresponding survey questions, means, standard deviations and the Likert-type scale. Pearson Chi-Square was used to test for differences in relative frequency (H1 and H2).

Chi-Square Test for Gender * Web 2.0

We reject H1 for Facebook: there is a difference in the relative frequency or percentage between male and female Internet users regarding Facebook, with Pearson χ^2 (4,311) 12.705, $p = .013$. Table 1 shows that male Indian business professionals very often use Facebook while female Indian business professionals appear neutral on their reported usage of Facebook. Results of a Goodman and Kruskal tau test shows Facebook predicts 4.1% of the error in gender when gender is the dependent variable; while gender predicts only 0.6% of the error in Facebook when Facebook was the dependent variable. Therefore, Facebook is better at predicting the frequency of gender usage than gender is at predicting frequency of usage.

			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
Facebook	Very often	Count	140	51	191
		Expected Count	133.3	57.7	191.0
		% within Facebook	73.3%	26.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	45.0%	16.4%	61.4%
	Often	Count	64	28	92
		Expected Count	64.2	27.8	92.0
		% within Facebook	69.6%	30.4%	100.0%
		% of Total	20.6%	9.0%	29.6%
	Neutral	Count	3	8	11
		Expected Count	7.7	3.3	11.0
		% within Facebook	27.3%	72.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	1.0%	2.6%	3.5%
	Not regular	Count	8	4	12
		Expected Count	8.4	3.6	12.0
		% within Facebook	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	2.6%	1.3%	3.9%
Not at all	Count	2	3	5	
	Expected Count	3.5	1.5	5.0	
	% within Facebook	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	0.6%	1.0%	1.6%	

Total	Count	217	94	311
	Expected Count	217.0	94.0	311.0
	% within Facebook	69.8%	30.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	69.8%	30.2%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test				
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	
Pearson Chi-Square	12.705	4	*.013	
N of Valid Cases	311			

We reject H1 for Google: there is a difference in the relative frequency or percentage between male and female Internet users regarding Google. Pearson χ^2 (4,310) 10.930, $p = .027$. Table 2 shows that females are reporting they use Google very often while male Indian Business Professionals are reporting not regularly or not at all. This difference in frequency is significant. Results of a Goodman and Kruskal tau test which shows Google predicts 3.5% of the error in gender when gender is the dependent variable, a small but significant amount; while gender predicts only 0.8% of the error in Google when Google was the dependent variable. Therefore, Google is better at predicting the frequency of gender usage than gender is at predicting frequency of usage.

We cannot reject H1 for Orkut: there is no difference in the relative frequency of the distribution of male and female Internet users and the distribution of Orkut, with Pearson χ^2 (4,305) 2.176, $p = .703$.

We cannot reject H1 for Twitter: there is no difference in the relative frequency or percent between male and female Internet users regarding Twitter. Pearson χ^2 (4,307) 2.358, $p = .670$.

We cannot reject H1 for LinkedIn: there is no difference in the relative frequency or percent between male and female Internet users regarding LinkedIn. Pearson χ^2 (4,307) 5.553, $p = .235$.

Table 2					
GOOGLE * GENDER CROSS-TABULATION					
			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
Google	Very often	Count	27	19	46
		Expected Count	32.1	13.9	46.0
		% within Google	58.7%	41.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	8.7%	6.1%	14.8%
	Often	Count	52	24	76
		Expected Count	53.0	23.0	76.0
		% within Google	68.4%	31.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	16.8%	7.7%	24.5%
	Neutral	Count	33	23	56
		Expected Count	39.0	17.0	56.0
		% within Google	58.9%	41.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	10.6%	7.4%	18.1%
	Not regular	Count	52	14	66
		Expected Count	46.0	20.0	66.0
		% within Google	78.8%	21.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	16.8%	4.5%	21.3%
Not at all	Count	52	14	66	
	Expected Count	46.0	20.0	66.0	
	% within Google	78.8%	21.2%	100.0%	
	% of Total	16.8%	4.5%	21.3%	

Total	Count	216	94	310
	Expected Count	216.0	94.0	310.0
	% within Google	69.7%	30.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	69.7%	30.3%	100.0%
Chi-Square Tests				
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	
Pearson Chi-Square	10.930	4	*.027	
N of Valid Cases	310			

Chi-Square Test for Income * Web 2.0

We reject H2 for Google: there is a highly significant difference in the relative frequency or percentage among three income levels of Internet users regarding Google. Table 3 shows that frequency distributions differ with Pearson χ^2 (8,310) 22.302, $p = .004$. Google users with incomes of less than or equal to \$10K are often or very often significantly different from Google users with incomes between \$11-20K.

We cannot reject H2 for Orkut: there is no difference in the relative frequency or percentage among three income levels of Internet users regarding Orkut. Pearson χ^2 (8,305) 10.806, $p = .213$.

We cannot reject H2 for Facebook: there is no difference in the relative frequency or percent among three income levels of Internet users regarding Facebook. Pearson χ^2 (8,311) 11.452, $p = .177$.

We cannot reject H2 for Twitter: there is no difference in the relative frequency or percentage among three income levels of Internet users regarding Twitter. Pearson χ^2 (8,307) 12.377, $p = .135$.

			Income			Total
			≤\$10K	\$11-20K	≥\$21K	
Google	Very Often	Count	16	10	20	46
		Expected Count	13.2	16.3	16.5	46.0
		% of Total	5.2%	3.2%	6.5%	14.8%
	Often	Count	28	27	21	76
		Expected Count	21.8	27.0	27.2	76.0
		% of Total	9.0%	8.7%	6.8%	24.5%
	Neutral	Count	16	22	18	56
		Expected Count	16.1	19.9	20.1	56.0
		% of Total	5.2%	7.1%	5.8%	18.1%
	Not Regularly	Count	23	24	19	66
		Expected Count	18.9	23.4	23.6	66.0
		% of Total	7.4%	7.7%	6.1%	21.3%
	Not at All	Count	6	27	33	66
		Expected Count	18.9	23.4	23.6	66.0
		% of Total	1.9%	8.7%	10.6%	21.3%
Total		Count	89	110	111	310
		Expected Count	89.0	110.0	111.0	310.0
		% of Total	28.7%	35.5%	35.8%	100.0%
Chi-Square Tests			Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	
Pearson Chi-Square			22.302 ^a	8	*.004	
N of Valid Cases			310			
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13.21.						

We reject H2 for LinkedIn: The results show that lower incomes are using LinkedIn significantly more than income professionals with slightly higher incomes. Table 4 shows there is a significant difference in the relative frequency or percentage among three income levels of Internet users regarding LinkedIn, with Pearson $\chi^2(8,307) 20.266, p = .009$.

			Income			Total
			≤\$10K	\$11-20K	≥\$21K	
LinkedIn	Very Often	Count	0	5	3	8
		Expected Count	2.3	2.9	2.9	8.0
		% of Total	0.0%	1.6%	1.0%	2.6%
	Often	Count	28	37	33	98
		Expected Count	27.8	35.1	35.1	98.0
		% of Total	9.1%	12.1%	10.7%	31.9%
	Neutral	Count	22	15	29	66
		Expected Count	18.7	23.6	23.6	66.0
		% of Total	7.2%	4.9%	9.4%	21.5%
	Not Regularly	Count	24	18	15	57
		Expected Count	16.2	20.4	20.4	57.0
		% of Total	7.8%	5.9%	4.9%	18.6%
	Not at All	Count	13	35	30	78
		Expected Count	22.1	27.9	27.9	78.0
		% of Total	4.2%	11.4%	9.8%	25.4%
Total		Count	89	87	110	110
		Expected Count	89.0	87.0	110.0	110.0
		% of Total	28.7%	28.3%	35.8%	35.8%
Chi-Square Tests			Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	
Pearson Chi-Square			20.266a	8	*.009	
N of Valid Cases			307			
a. 3 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.27.						

MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF FOUR DERIVED FACTORS

Our analysis of the demographic non-parametric statistics is a clear indication that gender and Web 2.0 usage differs in terms of the frequency with main search engines. We took the study a step further.

Twenty Likert-type items were used to measure respondents' perception of IAD. For the 312 Indian business professionals who completed the survey, all completed enough of these Likert-type items for those items to be useable in factor analysis and factorial ANOVA tests with between subjects design. The 20 questions were coded as IAD1 through IAD20 shown in the Appendix. The responses also included a measure of male and female Indian business professionals across income levels and their perceptions of IA. The survey instrument was analyzed for its reliability.

The literature review found that factors considered were organizational size, age, gender, fatigue, employment status, and country of origin. The articles cited concentrated on studies conducted in Iran, Korea, Romania, Taiwan, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The literature review found one study conducted in India that focused on gender and time spent online.

- H3: Means do not differ (main effect) between male and female Indian Professionals on perceptions of their Internet Addiction.*
- H4: Means do not differ (main effect) among Indian Professionals' income (\leq \$10K, \$11-20K, \leq \$21K) on their perceptions of Internet Addiction.*
- H5: Means do not differ (interaction effect) between male and female Indian Professionals across three income levels (\leq \$10K, \$11-20K, \leq \$21K) on perceptions of their Internet Addiction.*

Instrument Reliability

The 20 items Likert-type scale questions, with choices ranging from “very often,” “often,” “neutral,” “not regularly,” to “not at all,” were tested for reliability using a Cronbach’s (1984) Alpha. The scale reliability was .739. Cronbach’s Alpha Standardized was .751. These threshold of the commonly reported Nunnally (1978) criterion of .70 was met. Twenty variables (survey questions 1-20 shown in Table B in the Appendix) represent the IAD construct that is often described in current literature. The test reliability could not be improved very much by eliminating any of the 20 items (Devellis, 1991). Our assumption is that the construct to be measured is not unidimensional (Cortina, 1993). A principal component factor analysis is normally required to determine the true number of dimensions of a construct in question (Cortina, 1993; Kachigan, 1991; Russell, 2002).

Because there were four derived factors, four separate two-way analysis of variance procedures were conducted. Two-Way Analysis of Variance, with a 2 x 3 factorial design, was used to test for main effects (H3 and H4) and two-way interaction effects (H5) when gender and income were independent variables. In each analysis, the associated derived factor was used as the dependent variable.

Factor Analysis

To gauge for sampling adequacy, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy Test was .407 and the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was 13066.108, with degrees of freedom at 190, with $p = .000$. The communalities average is .900, above the .600 threshold for sample sizes below the rule-of-thumb 300-sample size minimum. Responses to the 20 items measuring Internet addiction (labeled IAD1 through IAD20) were subjected to an unrotated Principal Component Factor Analysis, with a Scree Plot (in IBM’s SPSS 22.0). The Scree Plot suggested six factors. An unrotated initial solution also suggested six factors with an eigenvalue of one criterion. Those six factors explained 92% of variance. Some items correlated a bit high on more than one factor in the initial solution and the “sweet spot,” as some researchers call it, was a four factor solution rather than a six factor solution. The derived factors were indicative of four dimensions of Internet addiction, with a Rotation Sums of Squared Loading shown in Table 5, accounting for 69.81%.

Factor	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Impulse Control	4.434	22.169	22.169
Emotionally Addicted	3.493	17.463	39.632
Familial Detachment	3.135	15.673	55.305
Antisocial	2.901	14.505	69.810
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Factor Scores Method: Regression.			

A four-factor solution was more parsimonious than a six-factor solution with a cut-off of .60. A variable was said to load on a factor if it had a component loading of .60 or higher on that factor and less than .60 on any other factors (Devellis, 1991; Hatcher, 1994; Kachigan, 1991; Russell, 2002). Factors were derived using Principal Axis Factoring with an initial Promax Rotation. Four factors were deemed appropriate for further analysis. No factor had a factor score greater than ± 2 in the Factor Score Covariance Matrix. Principal Axis Factoring with Varimax Rotation (factors were considered independent after a Promax rotation was run first) was used to extract the final four factors, which converged in 6 iterations, as shown in Table 6, with item descriptions.

Eighteen items survived the rotation (excluding IAD20 and IAD15 not considered when naming the factors). The components that loaded on each factor were used to label that factor. Thus, four labels attributed to each factor which captured the true nature of the semantics represented by the items that loaded onto each factor. The factors were named based on interpretation of language contained in the components loadings, and naming the factors helps explain the factor loading. For example, the language found in the six components that loaded on Factor 1 combined seems to represent an "Impulse Control." The factor labels capture the meaning of the items loading on each of the factors.

Our four factors derived from the Principal Axis Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation can be used as dependent variables in our factorial ANOVA tests. IMB's SPSS 22.0 gives the option of saving factors as regression scores for each of the 312 survey respondents. The factor scores are used as dependent variable, one at a time. Therefore, tests of Between-Subject Effects for the two independent variables model, a 2 x 3 factorial design, on four factors.

Survey items	Factors ^b			
	Facto r 1	Facto r 2	Facto r 3	Facto r 4
Factor 1: Impulse Control				
How often do you become defensive or secretive when anyone asks you what you do on-line?	.946			
How often do you avoid homework to spend more time online?	.920			
How often do you form new relationships with fellow online users?	.864			
How often do you feel the desire to go to online when you're offline?	.845			
How often have you tried to reduce your online time?	.699			
How often do you find saying to yourself "Just a few more minutes" while online?	.664			
Factor 2: Emotionally Attached				
How often do you find that you stay online longer than you intended?		.872		
How often does your work/business suffer due to your staying online?		.758		
How often do you prefer the excitement of the Internet to intimacy/interaction with family and friends?		.670		
How often do you lose sleep and go to bed late due to being online late at night?		.668		
How often do you check your email before something else that you need to do?		.647		
How often do you feel more comfortable with your virtual friends than real life friends?		.628		
How often do you feel sad, emotional, or nervous when you're offline and it changes when you're back to online? (Did not survive rotation.)				
Factor 3: Familial Detachment				
How often do you hide from others about your staying online?			.978	
How often do you think life without Internet is actually boring, joyless, and empty?			.916	
How often do others in your life complain to you about the amount of time you spend online?			.872	

Factor 4: Antisocial				
How often does your business or work suffers because of the amount of time you spend online?				.804
How often do you choose to spend more time online rather going out with others in your physical world?				.775
How often do you feel disturbed if someone in the physical world interrupts you when you're online?				.749
How often do you feel the Internet has become an obsession for you? (Did not survive rotation.)				
a. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.				
b. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Factor Scores Method: Regression.				

Factorial Analysis of the Impulse Control Factor

We reject H3 for Impulse Control. There is a main-effect between the means of males and females on their perceptions of Impulse Control, with $F(1, 306) = 4.489, p = .035$.

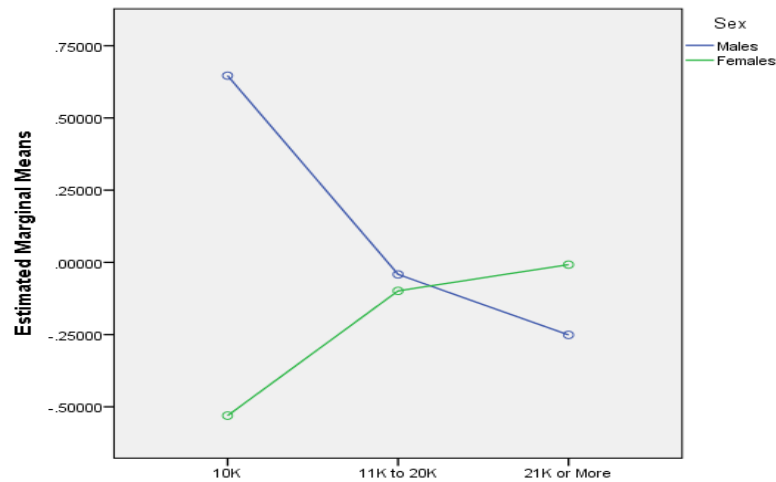
We do not reject H4 for Impulse Control. There is no main-effect of income level on perceptions of Impulse Control, with $F(2, 306) = .475, p = .622$. Means among the income levels do not differ.

We reject H5 for Impulse Control. There is a two-way interaction effect between gender across income levels on perceptions of Impulse Control, with $F(2, 306) = 7.193, p = .001$. Means between gender and among income levels differ in the model where Impulse Control is dependent variable. The lowest income level ($\leq \$10K$ mean = .293) differs from the middle ($\$11k$ to $\$20K$ mean = -.059) and top income levels ($\geq \$21K$ mean = -.179). The middle and top income levels do not differ on Impulse Control. Table 7 shows the Between-Subjects Effects and Adjusted R Squared results.

Table 7						
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS						
Dependent Variable: Impulse Control						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender	7.093 ^a	1	7.093	4.489*	.035	.014
Income	1.501	2	.750	.475	.622	.003
Gender * Income	22.727	2	11.364	7.193**	.001	.045
Error	483.455	306	1.580			
Total	522.771	312				
Corrected Total	522.771	311				
a. R Squared = .075 (Adjusted R Squared = .060)						

Figure 1 is the plot of the estimated marginal means for gender across the three levels of income and is the best way to illustrate the magnitudes of differences among Indian business professionals' perceptions of Impulse Control as a main factor of IAD. Notice that the difference between female and male Indian business professionals is inverse in relation to income. When male incomes increase, their mean Impulse Control decreases. To the contrary, when female incomes increase, their mean Impulse control increases. More income for female professionals means more time on Web 2.0, which means their Impulse Control is weaker than when they had less income. More income for males means they have less time for Web 2.0 and their Impulse Control is subsequently stronger.

Figure 1: Plot of Estimated Marginal Means of Male and Female Professionals by Income * Impulse control



Factorial Analysis of the Emotionally Attached Factor

We do not reject H3 for the factor Emotionally Attached. There is no main-effect of gender on perceptions of Emotionally Attached, with $F(1, 306) = .602, p = .438$. We do not reject H4 for the factor Emotionally Attached. There is no main-effect of income level on perceptions of Emotionally Attached, with $F(2, 306) = 1.279, p = .280$. We do not reject H5 for Emotionally Attached. There is no two-way interaction effect of gender across the three income levels on Indian business professionals' perceptions of Emotionally Attached, with $F(2, 306) = .169, p = .845$. Means between gender and among income levels do not differ in the model where Emotionally Attached is the dependent variable. Test of Between-Subjects effects are shown in Table 8.

Dependent Variable: Emotionally Attached						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender	.995 ^a	1	.995	.602	.438	.002
Income	4.226	2	2.113	1.279	.280	.008
Gender * Income	.558	2	.279	.169	.845	.001
Error	505.590	306	1.652			
Total	512.585	312				
Corrected Total	512.585	311				

a. R Squared = .014 (Adjusted R Squared = -.002)

Factorial Analysis of the Familial Detachment Factor

We do not reject H3 for the factor Familial Detachment. There is no main-effect of gender on perceptions of Familial Detachment, with $F(1, 306) = .821, p = .366$. We do not reject H4 for the factor Familial Detachment. There is no main-effect of income on perceptions of Familial Detachment, with $F(2, 306) = .403, p = .669$. We do not reject H5 for Familial Detachment. There is no two-way interaction effect of gender across the three income levels on Indian business professionals' perceptions of Familial Detachment, with $F(2, 306) = .659, p = .518$. Test of Between-Subjects effects are shown in Table 9.

Table 9						
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Dependent Variable: Familial Detachment						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender	1.512 ^a	1	1.512	.821	.366	.003
Income	1.485	2	.743	.403	.669	.003
Gender * Income	2.429	2	1.215	.659	.518	.004
Error	563.680	306	1.842			
Total	571.393	312				
Corrected Total	571.393	311				
a. R Squared = .013 (Adjusted R Squared = -.003)						

Factorial Analysis of the Antisocial Factor

We do not reject H3 for the Antisocial Factor. There is no main-effect of gender on perceptions of e-Social Recluse, with $F(1, 306) = 2.690$, $p = .102$. We do not reject H4 for the Antisocial Factor. There is no main-effect of income level on perceptions of e-Social Recluse, with $F(2, 306) = .599$, $p = .550$. We do not reject H5 for the Antisocial Factor. There is no two-way interaction effect of gender across the three income levels on Indian business professionals' perceptions of e-Social Recluse, with $F(2, 306) = 1.312$, $p = .271$. Means between gender and among income levels do not differ in the model where the Antisocial Factor is the dependent variable. Test of Between-Subjects effects are shown in Table 10.

Table 10						
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Dependent Variable: Antisocial						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender	2.699 ^a	1	2.699	2.690	.102	.009
Income	1.203	2	.601	.599	.550	.004
Gender * Income	2.633	2	1.317	1.312	.271	.009
Error	307.071	306	1.003			
Total	313.645	312				
Corrected Total	313.645	311				
a. R Squared = .021 (Adjusted R Squared = .005)						

CONCLUSIONS

The literature review of Internet Addictive Disorder found that factors considered were organizational size, age, gender, fatigue, employment status, and country of origin. The articles cited concentrated on studies conducted in Iran, Korea, Romania, Taiwan, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The literature review found one study conducted in India that focused on gender and time spent online. Subsequently, a survey was conducted and there were 312 Indian business professionals who reported usage of Orkut, Facebook, Google, Twitter, and LinkedIn (Internet). They also reported income within three levels: $\leq \$10K$, $\$11-20K$, and $\geq \$21K$. Also, twenty Likert-type items were used to measure respondents' perception of Internet Addiction. For the professionals who completed the survey, all completed enough of these Likert-type items for those items to be useable in factor analysis and factorial ANOVA tests with between subjects design. The following null hypotheses were formulated and tested:

Hypothesis₁: The relative frequency of the distribution of male and female Internet users will not differ from the relative frequency of the distribution self-reported uses of

Orkut, Facebook, Google, Twitter and LinkedIn, representing the Internet. We rejected the hypothesis for Facebook. Male Indian business professionals used Facebook often while female Indian business professionals appeared neutral on their reported usage of Facebook. We rejected the hypothesis for Google. Females reported using Google very often while male Indian Business professionals reported not regularly or not at all. We could not reject the hypothesis for Orkut, Twitter, and LinkedIn; there was no significant difference in the relative frequency of the distribution of male and female users.

Hypothesis₂: The relative frequency of the distribution of three levels of incomes for Indian business professionals as Internet users will not differ from the relative frequency of the distribution self-reported uses of Orkut, Facebook, Google, Twitter and LinkedIn, representing the Internet. Findings: We could not reject the hypothesis for Orkut, Facebook, and Twitter; there was no difference in the relative frequency among the three income levels. We rejected the hypothesis for Google. Females reported they did not use Google while males reported they used Google often or very often. We rejected the hypothesis for LinkedIn. The results showed that those with lower incomes used LinkedIn significantly more than those with slightly higher incomes.

Hypothesis₃: Means differ (main effect) between male and female Indian Professionals on perceptions of their Internet Addiction. There was a main effect of gender on perceptions of Internet Addiction on three of the four factors. Means between the genders differ on those three factors; however, on the other factor, there was a main effect between the males and females on their perceptions of their Internet Addiction.

Hypothesis₄: Means do not differ (main effect) among Indian Professionals' income ($\leq \$10K$, $\$11-20K$, $\geq \$21K$) on their perceptions of Internet Addiction. For all of the four factors, there was no main-effect of income on perceptions of Internet Addiction.

Hypothesis₅: Means differ (interaction effect) between male and female Indian Professionals across three income levels ($\leq \$10K$, $\$11-20K$, $\geq \$21K$) on perceptions of their Internet Addiction. We already know from Agarwal and Mital (2009) that for women in India "if usage of the Internet is high, then comfort using SNWs is also higher." Our findings reveal that for Impulse Control, our derived factor 1, there is a two-way interaction effect between genders of Indian business professionals and their income levels. The lowest income level differs from the middle level and top income levels. The middle and top income levels do not differ on this factor. Income increases for males show they are less prone to be the victims of Impulse Control, while more income for women show they are more prone to be the victims of Impulse Control. With more income, the data analysis shows female Indian business professionals are more vulnerable to exhibit the following IAD behaviors as their incomes increase:

- Become defensive or secretive when anyone asks you what you do on-line.
- Avoid homework to spend more time online.
- Form new relationships with fellow online users.
- Feel the desire to go online when they're offline.
- Tried, without success to reduce their use of online time.
- Often find themselves saying "Just a few more minutes" while currently online.

Limitations and Future Research

This study was limited to one country. The research project could have surveyed more business professionals across multiple countries. A much more heterogeneous population of business professionals could be sampled, which may enable us to make generalizations for other populations of business professionals. A multi-country study should be conducted in

order to ascertain a deeper understanding of the difference between certain demographic characteristics and Internet addictive behaviors.

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Appendix A Survey Questions

Table A				
Descriptive Statistics for Gender, Income and Service Providers				
Independent Variables		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender	Male	218	69.9	69.9
	Female	94	30.1	100.0
	Total	312	100.0	
Income	<=\$10K	90	28.8	28.8
	\$11-\$20K	111	35.6	64.4
	\$21K or more	111	35.6	100.0
	Total	312	100.0	
Orkut	Very Often	21	6.7	6.9
	Often	41	13.1	20.3
	Neutral	75	24.0	44.9
	Not Regularly	77	24.7	70.2
	Not at All	91	29.2	100.0
	Total	305	97.8	
	Missing	7	2.2	
Total		312	100.0	
Facebook	Very Often	191	61.2	61.4
	Often	92	29.5	91.0
	Neutral	11	3.5	94.5
	Not Regularly	12	3.8	98.4
	Not at All	5	1.6	100.0
	Total	311	99.7	
	Missing	1	.3	
Total		312	100.0	
Google	Very Often	46	14.7	14.8
	Often	76	24.4	39.4
	Neutral	56	17.9	57.4
	Not Regularly	66	21.2	78.7
	Not at All	66	21.2	100.0
	Total	310	99.4	
	Missing	2	.6	
Total		312	100.0	
Twitter	Very Often	106	34.0	34.5
	Often	47	15.1	49.8
	Neutral	50	16.0	66.1
	Not Regularly	62	19.9	86.3
	Not at All	42	13.5	100.0
	Total	307	98.4	
	Missing	5	1.6	
Total		312	100.0	
LinkedIn	Very Often	8	2.6	2.6
	Often	98	31.4	34.5
	Neutral	66	21.2	56.0
	Not Regularly	57	18.3	74.6
	Not at All	78	25.0	100.0
	Total	307	98.4	
	Missing	5	1.6	
Total		312	100.0	

Table B			
Items, Means and Standard Deviations of 312 responses			
CODE	ITEMS	Mean	Std. Deviation
IAD1	How often do you find that you stay online longer than you intended?	3.03	1.290
IAD2	How often do you avoid homework to spend more time online?	3.27	1.096
IAD3	How often do you prefer the excitement of the Internet to intimacy/interaction with family and friends?	3.52	1.042
IAD4	How often do you form new relationships with fellow online users?	3.13	1.223
IAD5	How often do others in your life complain to you about the amount of time you spend online?	2.68	1.197
IAD6	How often do your business or work suffers because of the amount of time you spend online?	3.04	.894
IAD7	How often do you check your email before something else that you need to do?	3.22	1.332
IAD8	How often do you become defensive or secretive when anyone asks you what you do on-line?	3.17	1.101
IAD9	How often does your work/business suffer due to your staying online?	3.39	1.052
IAD10	How often do you feel the desire to go to online when you're offline?	3.45	1.319
IAD11	How often do you think life without Internet is actually boring, joyless, and empty?	2.67	1.274
IAD12	How often do you feel disturbed if someone in the physical world interrupts you when you're online?	3.17	.986
IAD13	How often do you lose sleep and go to bed late due to being online late at night?	3.36	1.111
IAD14	How often do you find saying to yourself "Just a few more minutes" while online?	3.53	1.067
IAD15	How often do you feel the Internet has become an obsession for you?	3.80	1.014
IAD16	How often have you tried to reduce your online time?	3.53	1.181
IAD17	How often do you hide from others about your staying online?	2.63	1.236
IAD18	How often do you choose to spend more time online rather going out with others in your physical world?	3.08	.794
IAD19	How often do you feel more comfortable with your virtual friends than real life friends?	3.21	1.193
IAD20	How often do you feel sad, emotional, or nervous when you're offline and it changes when you're back to online?	3.08	1.008

IMPACT OF TASK CONFLICT ON JOB SATISFACTION: MEDIATING EFFECT OF POSITIVE EMOTIONS WHILE CONTROLLING PERSONALITY TRAITS

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ABSTRACT

Drawing on the Theory of Affective Events (AET), the purpose of this paper is to examine the effect of mild and intense conflicts workings and its effects on job satisfaction. According to the AET (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) work related events causes on emotional responses and the subsequent outcomes for not only behavior but also attitudes. A positive affective event produces positive emotional events such as happiness. Also, a negative affective event, naturally, causes negative emotional response like dissatisfaction and anger. One of the most important variables of emotional characteristics is work environment; events in the work place, individual responses, behavioral drivers and attitudes. In the study, it is argued that how mild and intense conflict will influence positive emotions and what is the relationship between mild and intense conflict on group working and job satisfaction while positive emotions is a mediator. The authors collected data from 496 white collar participants working in industrial goods, service, textile, and banking and transportation sector via convenient sampling method and employed hierarchical regression modelling. At the end, this study will argue whether there is a relationship between the personality types and the type of conflict that causes positive emotions which is a reason of job satisfaction. It means that the personality types are used as variable component in the study.

Keywords: *Personality types, mild and intense task conflict, positive emotions, job satisfaction.*

INTRODUCTION

In a today competitive business world, companies are obliged to provide customer satisfaction with high performance to maintain their competitive advantage. In order to provide this satisfaction, human resources are the most important sources. So, job satisfaction is a crucial factor both employees and employers. Job satisfaction can be defined as “. . . a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences”. Organizational goal of high priority has also been attainment of high level of performance through productivity and efficiency (Mount et al, 2006: 598). In order to achieve this, the organizations try to create a conducive and satisfied work force that causes high productivity, reduced turnover, improved commitment and involvement. Ayeni and Popoola (2007) pointed out there are three important dimensions of job satisfaction. The first one is that Job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. As such it cannot be seen, it can only be inferred. Secondly, job satisfaction is often determined by how well outcome meet or exceed expectations. The last one is that job satisfaction represents several related attitudes which are most important characteristics of job about which people have effective

response.

According to Affective events theory (AET), emotions are central to employees' job satisfaction and job performance (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Moods and emotions of employees are in the center of the theory; therewithal conflict and conflict management are directly related to the moods and emotions of employees.

In the literature, task conflict is analyzed based on its level of intensity and it is depicted either as mild or intense (Todorova et al, 2014); and the conditions under which task conflict triggers positive or negative outcomes (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Shaw et al., 2011)

In this study, task conflict is analyzed based on mild and intense task conflict, the fact that high or low levels of task conflict produce different organizational outcomes (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Shaw et al., 2011; Todorova et al. 2014). It is assumed that mild task conflict takes place in the cases where coworkers generally deliberate and articulate different opinions and ideas; and they tend to share dissimilar or contrasting opinions by listening to each other's viewpoint and in some cases they tend to refute each other's perspectives. On the other hand, intense task conflict arises when coworkers usually disagree or dispute over their different opinions and ideas; and they are less likely to listen to others' opinions or alternative suggestions so that they forcefully and repeatedly attempt to persuade others to follow one's position

Mild conflict is generally more manageable than intense conflict. A number of studies find that mild task conflicts are more likely to produce and stimulate more information acquisition based on the assumption that in the cases of mild conflict, coworkers are more likely to develop positive attitudes which in turn increases the level of job satisfaction (Todorova et al, 2014). It also depends on the trust formation in a group. In a similar vein, constructive task conflicts prove to be more useful for reaching a higher degree of consensus whilst group decisions prove to have positive impact on individual acceptance and member satisfaction (Tompson, 2000). Moreover, the level of trust among group members affects the job satisfaction. If it increases, the level of job satisfaction will decrease when there is an intense task conflict (Amason, 1996).

AET model explains the linkages between employees' internal influences (e.g., cognitions, emotions, mental states) and their reactions to incidents that occur in their work environment that affect their performance, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. In this situation, not only dose of conflict but also personality types should be analyzed in terms of job satisfaction. It is built on the emerging literature on the Five-Factor Model of personality argue that basic personality traits, as summarized by the Five-Factor Model of personality can help us understand why certain employees are more satisfied with their jobs than others. The five-factor model provides a framework, outline, and terminology to instigate and guide research involving personality (Cooper et al., 2014). In the big five factor model, there are five taxonomy neuroticism (emotional stability), extraversion, and openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness.

In this study, we will argue whether there is a relationship between the personality types and the type of conflict that causes positive emotions which is a reason of job satisfaction. It means that the personality types are used as variable component in the study.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Personality and Emotions

Each person is different from each other in terms of reactions and perceptions of their lives, also in a work environment. According to the big five traits, there exists five types of

personality; neuroticism (emotional stability), extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness. In this paper two of them namely agreeableness and emotional stability (neuroticism) thought to be the most affecting ones found through literature review will be discussed detailed and their effect on the research variables analyzed.

Agreeableness was defined by a number of personality words like "friendly," "good-natured," "cooperative," "trustful," "nurturing," "sociable," and "considerate (Bozionelos, 2004; Goldberg, 1981). Less agreeableness causes more involved in their work that directly affects acknowledgement in their work environment. Individuals low on agreeableness should be more tolerant of anger (McCrae and Costa, 1987) and less distracted by stressful conflict (Suls et al., 1998). Also they are more likely to benefit from the motivating qualities of expressed anger established in previous work (Van Kleef et al., 2009). On the other hand high agreeableness leads to prioritize relationship with others over work and career success. Also, there is a negative relationship between agreeableness and extrinsic character success (Judge et al., 1999). Agreeableness moderates emotional reactions to conflict and nonconflict problem (Suls et al., 1998). The main characteristics of conscientiousness are industriousness, perseverance, and sense of duty.

It is inevitable that emotions are directly related to personality type (Jehn, 1997; Diener, 2000; Todorova et al, 2014). Emotional stability helps experience work happiness because it causes optimistic point of view. People, that score high, on neuroticism often may experience emotional instability and negative emotions. Generally, individuals are high in emotional stability is stable and calm (Illies and Judge, 2002). Thorndike and Hagen (1979) consider that emotional stability of a person is characterized by evenness of moods, intent, interests, optimism, cheerfulness, composure, feeling of being in good health, freedom from feeling of guilt, worry or loneliness, freedom from day dreaming, freedom from perseveration of ideas and moods. According to Diener (2000) optimistic people are more satisfied than others. Besides, they tend to consider positive outcomes as internal and stable and negative outcomes as external and temporary (Carver and Scheier, 2001). Neuroticism should be less likely to develop positive attitudes towards their work (Bozionelos, 2004). Moreover, there is a negative correlation neuroticism and work performance (Judge et al., 2002). Neuroticism encompasses characteristics that include excessive worry, pessimism, low confidence, and tendencies to experience negative emotion. Emotional stability have been found to be generalizable predictors of both task-based and interpersonally based criteria and for behaviors that promote the attainment of organizational goals as well as behaviors that hinder the attainment of organizational goals (Mount et al., 2006: 596).

H_{1a} There is a positive relationship between agreeableness and positive emotions.

H_{1b} There is a positive relationship between emotional stability and positive emotions.

Personality and Job Satisfaction

Personality and job satisfaction are found to be related in several researches (Judge et al., 2002; Van den Berg and Feji, 2003). Agreeableness has positive correlated to life satisfaction and it probably produces job satisfaction (McCrae and Costa, 1991). Also, agreeableness affects the explanation variance of job satisfaction. According to Cooper et al. (2014), agreeable people tend to be happier all situations and they generally are more altruistic and trusting. As a result, it is not surprising that there is a robust empirical correlation between agreeableness and job satisfaction in a variety of contexts (Judge et al., 2002).

Neuroticism also influences perception of life. These people are generally experience negative incidents (Magnus et al, 1993). Neuroticism is related and integrated with anxiety and it makes people less satisfied in their lives, naturally in the workplace. Meta-analysis of Judge et al where they find that neuroticism is “the strongest and most consistent correlate of job satisfaction”. As a result, we expect that respondents who score higher on neuroticism will have lower reported levels of job satisfaction (Cooper et al., 2014).

Neuroticism will predict within individual variability in negative affect. For example, both low neuroticism and high neuroticism individuals experience low negative affect states but only individuals who score high on neuroticism characteristically experience high negative affect, which leads to higher negative affect variability for people high on neuroticism (Ilies and Judge, 2002: 1123). As a result, lower neuroticism probably causes more job satisfaction (Tokar and Subich, 1997).

Emotionally stable people have more satisfied in their job (Connolly and Viswesvaran, 2000; Peltokorpi, 2008). It means that emotionally stable people can overcome stress well and naturally are more satisfied than neurotic ones (Yang and Hwang, 2014).

To sum up, emotional stability and agreeableness have a multiple correlation with job satisfaction, supporting the dispositional source of job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2002). Templer (2012) found that in Asian societies emotional stability and agreeableness are all related to job satisfaction.

H_{2a} There is a positive relationship between agreeableness and job satisfaction.

H_{2b} There is a positive relationship between emotional stability and job satisfaction.

Personality Characteristics within the Group and Conflict

One of the factors for occurrence of a group depends also on personality factors because personality characteristic of group members may influence group interact (Koçel, 2013:599). Personality has to do with individual differences among people in behavior patterns, cognition and emotion (Mischel et al., 2004). It is found that conscientiousness was a significant predictor of team job performance. In this situation, it is thought that there will be a positive effects on group harmony and not create a conflict in the group (Wagner et al., 1996).

It is stated that openness to experience was related to teamwork (Neuman et al., 1997). Besides, it is argued that it is useful to examine the characteristics associated with the low end of agreeableness. The low agreeableness people are self-centered, uncooperative, inconsiderate, manipulative, vengeful, and argumentative (Mount et al., 2006:611). Agreeableness has been found to be a valid predictor of criteria that pertain to interpersonal performance such as forming cooperative relationships and social facilitation such as teamwork and customer service.

The most frequently studied of the five-factor traits; neuroticism has also been studied in relationship to conflict. Bolger and Zuckerman (1905), McFatter (1998) and Suls et al. (1998) made researches about neuroticism and conflict and found that there is a positive relationship between neuroticism and conflict. Besides, High neuroticism causes to stop talk about anger and they avoid arguments.

However, the different personalities come together in groups; the variety of personality traits can create task conflict. Task conflict exists when team members have differing ideas and opinions about issues specific to duties (Chen and Ayoko, 2012). Jhen et al. (2008) found that task conflict is a type of consensus building, causing unhappiness and antagonism. Todorova et al. (2014) categorized task conflict like mild conflict and intense conflict. In mild conflict, employees can debate and express their opinions and ideas on the

case. On the other side, employees argue about different ideas in intense task. To sum up, although there are sharing the opinion and ideas, listening and willing to understand the others' perspectives in mild task; in intense task there is no endeavor to listen each other.

To sum up, conflict may occur because of different personality traits in a group. The research hypothesis in light of this thought is given below.

H₃ There is a relationship between agreeableness/emotional stability and mild/intense TCE

Conflict and Emotions

Conflict is a result of contradictory requests among a group and maybe is a result of different definitions from a person's job and responsibilities. Conflict is a behavior that happens among members of an organization in order to disagree with others (Naji and Tabouli, 2011:49). According to Ghasemi (2003), goals and behaviors of a person or group are blocked by another person or group. Not surprisingly, the interpersonal relationships of disagreeable people are characterized by conflict and discord (Jensen-Campbell et al., 2003).

Job satisfaction is one of the principal inner feelings. According to Hulin and Judge (2003), job satisfaction is multidimensional psychological responses to one's job involved. Moving from this definition, it can be said that conflict influence on both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Job dissatisfaction increases the protest, objection, complaint, remonstrance, contradiction, disapproval and expostulation (Asghari, 2007:74).

It is argued from analogy that intense and high level of conflict reduces job satisfaction. On the contrary, low and mild level of conflict reduce stagnate and increase initiative and innovation. In any way, job satisfaction consist perception of a person toward his/her job. As mentioned, high level of conflict reduces the job satisfaction and a mid-level of conflict increases the job satisfaction (Naji and Tabouli, 2011:49). In accordance with these findings, the following hypothesis is as below;

H4a Mild conflict has a positive effect on positive emotions.

H4b Intense conflict has a negative effect on positive emotions.

Positive Emotions and Job Satisfaction

Emotions are central components of people's lives and they can be perceived both interpersonally and intrapersonal. They can also be expressed as positive and negative, based on the context that they can emerge. Furthermore, an emotion starts with an individual's assessment of the personal meaning of some antecedent event (Fredrickson, 2001: 218). In this manner, the scholars concur that the defining property of emotions is a reaction to a specific event (Scott and Judge, 2006:623).

In fact, the primary evidence of the relation between positive emotions and job satisfaction can be inferred from Locke's job satisfaction definition. He described job satisfaction as "positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (1976: 1304). In addition to this, it stated that job satisfaction comprises multidimensional psychological responses to one's job. These responses have been identified as cognitive, emotional and behavioral components (Judge and Klinger, 2007: 394). The other important evidence can be deduced from AET, developed to explain how emotions and moods have an impact on job satisfaction. The theory suggested that positive emotions may increase job satisfaction (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). On the contrary, negative emotions or lower positive emotions may cause lower job satisfaction (Scott and Judge, 2006:625). In the light of these findings our hypothesis is as below;

H5 Positive emotions have a positive effect on job satisfaction.

Conflict, Emotions and Job Satisfaction

According to AET each event causes positive and negative effects on peoples' emotions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). It means workplace events are proximal causes of an individual's affective reactions that have direct influences on their attitudes and behaviors (Chen and Ayoko, 2012). Through his theory it can be intelligible how conflict events may influence individual's positive or negative emotional states that are fundamental to attitudes and behaviors in organizations (Ashkanasy and Daus, 2002). Conflict is connected with emotions according to empirical evidence (Bodtker and Jameson, 2001). Besides, the reaction of people is directly related to their emotions (Jehn, 1997).

AET claims that events have both positive and negative effects. Starting from this theory, if employees appraise some conflict events positively, they are likely to experience positive emotions. Thus, task conflict is likely to be associated with positive emotions (Todorova et al., 2014).

In conclusion it may be said conflict is inevitable in a work environment, but the type of conflict influences emotions. Mild conflict is generally based on sharing the ideas and on listening each other. Whatever the subject of conflict, mild conflict causes people feel valued themselves. It means that mild conflict creates positive emotions. On the other hand, employees clash or argue about their differing opinions and ideas in intense conflict and it causes less listening each other. Naturally, all influences emotions negatively. It can be said that mild conflict increases positive emotions, whereas intense conflict decreases them.

As a result, mild conflict increases positive emotions (Todorova et al., 2014) and job satisfaction (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). It can be said that, increase in job satisfaction is mediated proportionally through positive emotions. Otherwise, intense conflict decreases positive emotions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996); Lord, 2015), and job satisfaction (Scott and Judge, 2006). The following hypothesis is as below:

H6a Mild conflict has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

H6b Intense conflict has a negative effect on job satisfaction.

H7a Positive emotions mediate the relationship between mild conflict and job satisfaction relationship.

H7b Positive emotions mediate the relationship between intense conflict and job satisfaction relationship.

RESEARCH METHOD

Sample and Procedures

This study was conducted in Istanbul by using convenient sampling method on white collar participants working in textile, industrial goods, service, transportation and finance sector. A total of 900 questionnaires were provided for distribution, of which 600 (60 %) were returned. After deleting the semi-filled ones 496 (49.6 %) questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS statistical program and tested through hierarchical regression analyses.

The demographic characteristics of participants were subjected to frequency analysis. Of the 496 participants, 253 (51 %) were female. The mean age of participants was 31.48 (SD= 7.07). Education varied at six levels, ranging from elementary level education(2 %), high school level education (14.7 %), college level education (9.3 %) to bachelor degree

level education (56 %), master degree level education (16.7 %), doctoral level education (1.2 %). Sector information of participants: 135 (31.1 %) industrial goods, 112 service (22.6%), 106 textile (21.4 %), 82 banking (16.6 %) and 61 transportation sector (12.3 %). The average of job tenure was 5.21 (SD = 5.42).

Measure

All of scales used were responded to on a 5-point Likert scale, with anchors of 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Scales were coded such that high values represented high level of the constructs.

“Task conflict expression” was measured by the scale developed by Todorova et al. (2014). As there are no existing measure differentiating intense towards mild task conflict expression, Todorova et al. developed their own scale. Utilizing from main definitions and measures of task conflict (Jehn, 1995), current work on conflict intensity (Weingart et al., 2015) and discussions with conflict research experts, they determined words that express intense TCE (e.g., criticize, argue and clash) as well as words that express mild TCE (e.g., debate, express differing viewpoint and disagree). They then wrote six items using these words, which they pretested in a sample of 269 masters of business administration working on their team projects. Result from an exploratory factor analysis was identified two factors: mild TCE and intense TCE. However, one item was dropped because it cross-loaded on both factors. In the pretest the reliabilities of the mild TCE scale ($\alpha = 0.82$) and intense TCE scale ($\alpha = 0.75$) were satisfactory. After that, researchers were used current study mild and intense TCE scale, focusing on coworkers with whom they regularly interact. For both the mild and intense TCE scale that comprise five items, reliabilities in the current study sample were satisfactory ($\alpha = 0.76$ for mild TCE and $\alpha = 0.79$ for intense TCE) (Todorova et al., 2014). We were drawn on same scale and alpha values were satisfactory in our current study ($\alpha = 0.62$ for mild TCE and $\alpha = 0.75$ for intense TCE).

“Positive active emotions” was measured by the scale developed by Weingart, Bear and Todorova (2009), which uses 4 items, to measure dimension. In the current study, employees were presented with the four adjectives for positive active emotions identified by Weingart et al. (2009; i.e., interested, attentive, active, and energetic). Each employee was asked to report whether he or she feels these emotions when engaged in task conflict. The four adjectives were averaged into a scale measuring positive active emotions ($\alpha = .88$).

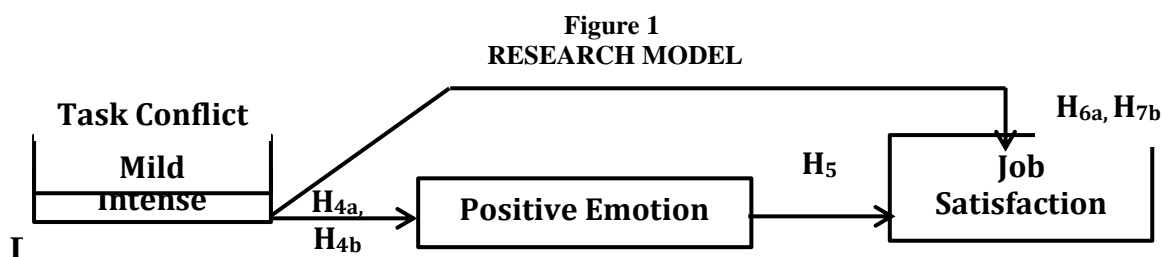
“Job satisfaction” was measured by a five items scale from an index developed and validated by Brayfield and Rothe (1951) and Judge et al. (2000). Judge et al. (2000) was used when participant were 41-50 year old, with scale that asked participant report their satisfaction with various facet of their job. Responses to these items were summed to form a measure of job satisfaction. The reliability of this scale was $\alpha = 0.92$. We used the five- items same scale to measure participant’ perceived levels of job satisfaction. The reliability of this scale in our current research was $\alpha = 0.89$. The alpha value was satisfactory.

“Control variables” was consisted of age, gender, organizational tenure and personality inventory. Personality inventory was measured by a ten item scale (Big Five short form) developed by Gosling et al. (2003).

Research Model

In the current study, firstly we controlled for employee age, gender, organizational tenure and personality inventory (agreeableness, emotional stability). After that, we investigated the relationship between mild-intense task conflict-positive emotions and job satisfaction, and job positive emotions-job satisfaction. Lastly, we examined the mediation

effect of positive emotions on the relationship between mild-intense task conflict and job satisfaction. The hypothesized model is shown in Figure 1



Data analysis package named as SPSS 20.0. The data regarding the demographic characteristics of the participants have been evaluated by using frequency and percent values. Mild and intense TCE, positive emotions, job satisfaction were subjected to reliability analysis and then to factor analysis to summarize the data. The correlation analysis has been applied to see the relations between variables. Besides, initially regression analysis has been performed to determine whether age, gender, organizational tenure and personality inventory (agreeableness, emotional stability) has contribution on the mild-intense TCE, mild-intense TCE has contribution on and employee outcomes (job satisfaction), positive emotions have contribution on job satisfaction. After that, we did hierarchical regression analysis has been performed to determine whether the mediation role of positive emotion has contribution on the relationship mild and intense TCE-job satisfaction. The significance level has been accepted $p < .05$.

Findings

To control for common method bias in line with the original -factor test was conducted.

Although the explanatory power of it is controversial and no single factor emerged in exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (Padsakoff et al, 2003). In line with Knight (1997), in international studies it is important “to evaluate the dimensionality of the scale” and to control for factor structure and loadings. EFAs using VARIMAX rotation were conducted for the control variable (age, gender, tenure and agreeableness-emotional stability dimensions of personality inventory), the dependent variables (job satisfaction), and independent variables (mild and intense TCE, positive emotions and job satisfaction) following generally accepted procedures. One item of job satisfaction (JS_3 = .356) were removed due to low communalities ($< .50$).

It presents the means, standard deviations and zero-order Pearson correlations among studied variables. Most of the respondents expressed the presence of a relatively higher level of agreeableness dimension of personality inventory ($M = 4.01$; $Sd = .878$). This was followed by job satisfaction ($M = 3.58$; $Sd = .863$), positive emotions ($M = 3.54$; $Sd = .899$), mild task conflict ($M = 3.33$; $Sd = .830$) and emotional stability ($M = 3.12$; $Sd = .825$). The lowest item is intense task conflict ($M = 2.57$; $Sd = .906$).

As shown in Table 1, agreeableness was positively correlated to emotional stability ($r = .106$, $p < .05$), positive emotions ($r = .105$, $p < .05$) and job satisfaction ($r = .176$, $p < .01$) and was negatively correlated to intense TCE ($r = -.252$, $p < .01$). Emotional stability was positively correlated to positive emotions ($r = .138$, $p < .01$) and job satisfaction. Mild TCE

was positively correlated to intense TCE ($r = .175, p < .01$), positive emotions ($r = .174, p < .01$), and job satisfaction ($r = .122, p < .01$). Also, intense TCE was positively correlated to job satisfaction ($r = -.129, p < .01$) and positive emotions was positively correlated to job satisfaction. Besides, There is no relationship between intense TCE and positive emotions ($r = .043$). $H_{1a/b}$ and $H_{2a/b}$ hypothesis were fully supported and H_3 hypothesis was partially supported (Table 1).

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age	1								
2. Gender	.145**	1							
3. Tenure	.889**	.148**	1						
4. Agreeableness	.034	-.077	.065	(.72)					
5. Emotional stability	.003	.185**	.001	.106*	(.71)				
6. Mild TCE	-.001	.086	.036	.050	.013	(.62)			
7. Intense TCE	.056	.037	.027	-.252**	.005	.175**	(.75)		
8. Positive emotions	.020	.151**	.064	.105*	.138**	.174**	.043	(.82)	
9. Job satisfaction	.036	.082	.088	.176**	.152**	.122**	-.129**	.237**	(.78)

Note: Values on the diagonal represent alpha coefficients.

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed test), $N = 496$

We have applied six separate regression analysis and then hierarchical regression analysis via SPSS in Table 2. In order to test H_{4a} , H_5 and H_{6a} hypothesis the regression analysis are conducted in first stage. As shown in Table 2, firstly, age, gender, tenure, agreeableness and emotional stability were added in Model 1 and as gender ($\beta = .125, p < .01$), tenure ($\beta = .247, p < .01$) and emotional stability ($\beta = .105, p < .05$) have positive effect, age ($\beta = -.228, p < .05$) has negative effect and agreeableness ($\beta = .086, n.s.$) has not significant on positive emotions. Secondly, age, gender, tenure and emotional stability of control variables and mild TCE were added analysis and while gender ($\beta = .111, p < .05$), tenure ($\beta = .228, p < .05$), emotional stability ($\beta = .106, p < .05$) and mild TCE ($\beta = .158, p < .001$) have positive effect, age ($\beta = -.208, p < .05$) has negative effect and agreeableness ($\beta = .076, n.s.$) has not significant on positive emotions. Therefore, H_{4a} was supported in the regression analysis result in the Model 2. Thirdly, age, gender, tenure, agreeableness and emotional stability were added in Model 3 and as tenure ($\beta = .269, p < .01$), agreeableness ($\beta = .159, p < .001$) and emotional stability ($\beta = .118, p < .01$) have positive effect, age ($\beta = -.232, p < .05$) has negative effect and gender ($\beta = .059, n.s.$) has not significant on job satisfaction. Fourthly, age, gender, tenure, agreeableness, emotional stability and mild TCE were added in Model 3 and as tenure ($\beta = .269, p < .01$), agreeableness ($\beta = .159, p < .001$), emotional stability ($\beta = .119, p < .01$) and mild TCE ($\beta = .104, p < .01$) have positive effect, age ($\beta = -.219, p < .05$) has negative effect and gender ($\beta = .050, n.s.$) has not significant on job satisfaction. Therefore, H_{6a} hypothesis was supported in the regression analysis result in the Model 4. Fifthly, age, gender, tenure, agreeableness, emotional stability and mild TCE were added in Model 3 and as tenure ($\beta = .235, p < .01$), agreeableness ($\beta = .149, p < .01$), emotional stability ($\beta = .099, p < .05$) and positive emotions ($\beta = .187, p < .001$) have positive effect, age ($\beta = -.189, p < .05$) has negative effect and gender ($\beta = .036, n.s.$) has not significant on job satisfaction. Therefore, H_5 hypothesis was supported in the regression analysis result in the Model 5. Lastly, we investigated that positive emotions mediates the relationship between mild TCE and job satisfaction via hierarchical regression analysis.

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a mediation is supported if four conditions are met: a) the independent variable (i.e. mild TCE) is significantly related to the mediator (i.e. positive emotions), b) the independent variable is significantly related to the dependent

variable (i.e. job satisfaction), c) the mediator is significantly related to dependent variable and d) when the independent variable and mediator are simultaneously presented, either the dependent variables in the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable becomes non-significant (full mediate variable) or independent and mediator variables become significant but the independent variable β value increase (partial mediate variable).

Table 2
Hierarchical regression analysis results (mild TCE)

Control Variables	Positive Emotions		Job Satisfaction			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Age	-.228*	-.208*	-.232*	-.219*	-.189*	-.183
Gender	.125**	.111*	.059	.050	.036	.031
Tenure	.247*	.228*	.281**	.269**	.235**	.229*
Agreeableness	.086	.076	.165***	.159***	.149**	.145**
Emotional stability	.105*	.106*	.118**	.119**	.099*	.100*
Interdependent Variables						
Mild TCE		.158***		.104*		.077
Mediator						
Positive Emotions					.187***	.175***
R²	.055	.079	.072	.082	.105	.110
F	5.510	6.831	7.352	7.112	9.275	8.414
ΔR^2	.055	.024	.072	.010	.023	.005

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed test) N= 496

In support of H₄, hierarchical regression analysis results indicated that:

- mild TCE was positively related to positive emotions ($\beta = 0.158$, $p < 0.001$)
- mild TCE was positively related to job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.104$, $p < 0.05$)
- positive emotions is significantly related to job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.237$, $p < 0.01$; see the Table 1).
- When both mild TCE and positive emotions were entered into the analysis, the effect of mild TCE on job satisfaction became significant but mild TCE β value ($\beta = 0.077$, n.s.) decrease.

Hence, our prediction of the mediating role of positive emotions was fully supported. H_{7a} hypothesis was supported in Model 6. Furthermore, collinearity tests (both tolerance and variance inflation factor, VIF) are calculated to test the significance of the different variables in this model. We tested the impact of collinearity using the tolerance and VIF values. Tolerance values exceed 0.92, indicating very low levels of collinearity. Likewise, the VIF values are all quite close to 1.14. These results indicate that interpretation of the regression variate coefficients should not be affected by multicollinearity.

We have applied six separate regression analysis and then hierarchical regression analysis via SPSS in Table 2. In order to test H_{1b}, H_{6b}, H_{7b} hypothesis the regression analysis are conducted in first stage. As shown in Table 3, Age, gender, tenure and emotional stability of control variables and intense TCE were added analysis in the Model 8 and while gender ($\beta = .125$ $p < .05$), tenure ($\beta = .250$ $p < .05$) and emotional stability ($\beta = .103$ $p < .05$) have positive effect, age ($\beta = -.234$ $p < .05$) has negative effect and agreeableness ($\beta = .076$ n.s.) and intense TCE ($\beta = .061$ n.s.) have not significant on positive emotions. Therefore, H_{4b} wasn't supported in the regression analysis result in the Model 8. After that, age, gender, tenure, agreeableness and emotional stability were added in Model 10 and as tenure ($\beta = .277$ $p < .01$), agreeableness ($\beta = .141$ $p < .001$) and emotional stability ($\beta = .121$ $p < .01$) have positive effect, age ($\beta = -.223$, $p < .05$) and intense TCE ($\beta = -.087$, $p < .05$) have negative

effect and gender ($\beta = .059$, n.s.) has not significant on job satisfaction. Therefore, H_{6b} hypothesis was supported in the regression analysis result in the Model 10. Fourthly, age, gender, tenure, agreeableness, emotional stability and mild TCE were added in Model 3 and as tenure ($\beta = .269$, $p < .01$), agreeableness ($\beta = .159$, $p < .001$), emotional stability ($\beta = .119$, $p < .01$) and mild TCE ($\beta = .104$, $p < .01$) have positive effect, age ($\beta = -.219$, $p < .05$) has negative effect and gender ($\beta = .050$, n.s.) has not significant on job satisfaction. Therefore, H_{6b} hypothesis was supported in the regression analysis result in the Model 10.

Table 3
Hierarchical regression analysis results (intense TCE)

Control Variables	Positive Emotions		Job Satisfaction		
	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10	Model 11
Age	-.228*	-.234*	-.232*	-.223*	-.178
Gender	.125**	.125*	.059	.059	.035
Tenure	.247*	.250*	.281**	.277**	.229*
Agreeableness	.086	.102	.165***	.141**	.121**
Emotional stability	.105*	.103*	.118**	.121**	.101*
Interdependent Variables					
Intense TCE		.061		-.087*	-.099*
Mediator					
Positive Emotions					.193***
R²	.055	.058	.072	.079	.114
F	5.510	4.893	7.352	6.764	8.705
ΔR^2	.055	.03	.072	.007	.025

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed test) N= 496

Lastly, we were totally added age, gender, tenure, agreeableness, emotional stability, intense TCE and positive emotions in Model 11 and as tenure ($\beta = .229$ $p < .01$), agreeableness ($\beta = .121$ $p < .01$), emotional stability ($\beta = .101$ $p < .05$) and positive emotions ($\beta = .193$ $p < .001$) have positive effect, age ($\beta = -.178$ $p < .05$) and intense TCE ($\beta = -.099$ $p < .05$) have negative effect and gender ($\beta = .035$ n.s.) has not significant on job satisfaction. We didn't investigate the mediator variables because it didn't get away between intense TCE and positive emotion. H_{4b} and H_{7b} hypothesis were not supported and our prediction of the mediating role of positive emotion was not supported in this study (Table 3).

CONCLUSION

This study investigates the impact of mild/intense task conflict expression on job satisfaction in the Turkish business context. Methodologically 496 white collar participants working in industrial goods, service, textile, and banking and transportation sector participated in a questionnaire on the aforesaid subjects in Turkish business context. Although Todorova et al. (2014) conducted a study western context to achieve a similar purpose, they did not empirically study the specific process and mechanism through which the relationship of personality types on mild/intense TCE, positive emotions and job satisfaction occurs. Besides, this study argues positive emotion is a critical mechanism that bridges mild/intense TCE and job satisfaction as well. Therewithal, drawing on the theory of Affective Events (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996), the study examines positive emotion as an important contingent factor in the mediation mechanism. The framework proposed in the study offers important implications to theories as well as practices.

As predicted, the results expose that personality (agreeableness and emotional stability) is positively relationship to positive emotions, job satisfaction and negatively relationship between agreeableness of personality aspect and intense TCE but there aren't relationship between personality and mild TCE. In this case, we can consider personality as

one of those key aspects that is critical to mild/intense TCE, positive emotions and job satisfaction because personality characteristic of group members may influence group interact (Koçel, 2013:599)

This study also reveals that mild TCE is positively related to positive emotions but there exists no relationship intense TCE and positive emotions. Also, mild and intense TCE are positively/negatively related to job satisfaction and positive emotions is positively related to job satisfaction. In this research, we can consider positive emotions as one of those key features that is significant to job satisfaction because Locke (1976; 1304) defined “positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences”. In addition, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) argued that positive emotions may increase job satisfaction. Besides, it also explores the mediating role of positive emotions in the mild/intense TCE and job satisfaction linkage. As suggested by Ashkanasy and Daus (2002), conflict events may influence individual's positive or negative emotional states that are fundamental to attitudes and behaviors in organization. In respect to Bodtger and Jameson (2001), conflict is connected with emotions according to empirical evidence. Our research provides empirical evidence by investigating the mediating role in this linkage. The results indicate that mild TCE improve job satisfaction through allowing for positive emotions but intense TCE doesn't support this situation in this study. Conflict is often considered an “a dirty word in organizations, but managers can help people to focus on the informal benefits and positive affective outcomes of mild task conflict (Todorava et al., 2014; 463). In the studies focusing on conflict, it is commonly argued that there is an interrelation between conflict and negative emotions. However, the studies on personality aspect and classification of conflict (mild / intense) are quite limited. Nonetheless, our results are in correlation with the results of the existing studies. In that respect, it can be concluded that the level of conflict (mild / intense) will not always have negative impacts, but mild level of conflict that can trigger positive outcomes can also have positive impact on building job satisfaction. (Yozgat et al., 2015; 114). Furthermore, if managers can help employees exhibit positive emotions from conflict and resultant job satisfaction can ensue (Todorava et al., 2014; 463). In this framework, mild level of conflict can be seen as the antecedent of organizational outcomes which is verified among employees from different sectors.

LIMITATION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The paper adopts the measuring scales that were developed in the western organizational context to investigate the relations and phenomena existing in the Turkish organizational context. Future research should adopt the indigenous measuring scales to investigate the relations and phenomena existing in the Turkish organizational context. Second, job satisfaction was self-reported by the employee, which might be rather subjective and possess the self-serving threat. Future studies should make efforts to obtain multi-source ratings to avoid such problems. This study was not conducted on a single industry. However each industry has its specific conditions which may affect. Therefore, future research may replicate this study in a single industry. Besides, future research should make efforts to examine other mediating and moderating mechanisms in the mild/intense TCE-job performance linkage. For instance, mild/intense TCE might influence job satisfaction by enhancing variables such as perception of justice, supervisor support, and self-efficacy. Moreover, work contextual variables could also be the potential moderators in this linkage. These contextual influences in this linkage could also be investigated.

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EXPLORING THE WORKPLACE COMMUNICATION PREFERENCES OF MILLENNIALS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the workplace communication preferences of Millennial employees, a growing subset of employees in today's organizations. Survey results (n = 84) from a sample of Millennials are presented, focusing on the following themes: sharing information, seeing the big picture, the employee-manager relationship, feedback, and coworker communication. Implications for education and business are discussed as well.

Keywords: Millennials, Millennial employees, managerial communication, workplace communication

INTRODUCTION

The workforce today consists of members of the Silent Generation, Baby Boomers, Gen Xers, and Millennials (Gesell, 2010). As a result of such age diversity, it is likely that employees will have varying approaches to work, as well as differing workplace behaviors, which may result in conflict. Gesell (2010) contends that the current generational mix makes leadership today more complex, and that because of their stark differences when compared to other generations, using traditional approaches of leadership are not successful. Similarly, Ferri-Reed (2014b) suggested that employers need to transition “from a ‘boomer-centric’ workplace to a ‘millennial-centric’ workplace” (p. 13). Hershatter and Epstein (2010) noted that college educated Millennials started entering the workforce in 2004 and will continue until approximately 2022. Millennials as a whole are considered the best educated generation to enter the workforce (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). Given the rise of Millennials in the workforce, managers must consider how to effectively communicate with these employees by recognizing the communication preferences of Millennials.

When a group of Millennials were asked what they look for in a full-time job, many mentioned elements such as “good communication between coworkers and managers,” “respectful and professional work environment,” “a good support system for guidance,” and “good management.” It is evident from comments such as these that the manager plays a large role in shaping the work environment and partially impacts whether an employee is satisfied with the job. Other desires expressed include “fair and equal treatment of all employees” and a “good culture in the workplace.” In the opinions of those surveyed, bosses should also be “understanding,” “easy to work for,” “motivational,” and “friendly and honest.” The focus on boss-related traits when asked for elements desired in a full-time job emphasizes the importance of the manager's role within the organization. These responses and others will be further discussed in the results section of the paper. The purpose of this study was to gain a better understanding of the workplace communication preferences of Millennials.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Madlock (2008), the communication competence of a supervisor is the best predictor of the level of job satisfaction experienced by an employee. Cahill and Sedrak (2012) found that many leaders “have made generational issues a low priority” (p. 4) and that sometimes organizations deliberately avoided focusing on generational tensions that existed in the workplace. Since “early life experiences contribute to generational differences that are deeply imprinted in individuals’ beliefs, values, preferences, and behaviors and are not easily changed” (Cahill & Sedrak, 2012, p. 4) it is important that managers recognize different generational preferences in order to effectively lead a multi-generational workforce. Alessandra (1995) set forth the idea of “the Platinum Rule.” Whereas the Golden Rule focuses on treating others the way you want to be treated, the Platinum Rule suggests, “Do unto others the way they want to be done unto” (p. 23). As it relates to communication, this means communicating with others the way they want to be communicated with, or focusing more on the receiver’s perspective, as opposed to the sender’s. Alessandra (1995) suggested that by communicating with others the way they want to be communicated with, an “instant rapport” can be established “by learning how to do what they want done” (p. 23).

Previous research has found that Millennials desire “frequent, positive, and open communication in the workplace” (Chou, 2012, p. 75) and readily share information with others as well (Chou, 2012; see also Gursoy, Maier, & Chi, 2008; Hill, 2002; Howe & Strauss, 2007; Marston, 2007; Martin, 2005; Tapscott, 1998; Zemke et al., 2000). According to Cahill and Sedrak (2012), Millennials want open communication and for their opinions and ideas to be heard. Ferri-Reed (2010) calls for managerial coaching that balances praise with constructive criticism. Corrective feedback is necessary, but can cause Millennials who are accustomed to receiving praise to become defensive. Instead, she suggests providing specific, objective examples of what needs to be modified while helping the Millennials “understand that changing their unproductive behaviors will help to increase their success” (Ferri-Reed, 2010, p. 33). In addition, Ferri-Reed (2012) identified three things that leaders can do to help Millennials succeed in the workplace: “give them the big picture, help them find the ‘me’ in team, and mentor them on career-building behaviors” (p. 18). Given Millennials’ desire to understand how their work fits into the big picture of the company’s goals and their expectation to be heard, it is important to provide a big picture view for these employees. In addition, many Millennials need help learning the norms of the organization, as well as social expectations and acceptable behaviors in the workplace (Ferri-Reed, 2012).

Ferri-Reed (2014a) noted that Millennials often need detailed directions and desire open communication. Accordingly, Ferri-Reed (2014a) suggested that “Millennials respond best when communication is direct, honest, and without hidden agendas. The quickest way to lose the loyalty of millennials is to withhold information or restrict it to a select few individuals” (p. 16). Behrens (2009) highlighted the fact that due to technology, Millennials are well-connected and aware of many job opportunities that exist. As such, he noted that “The employer who fails to challenge the new [Millennial] employee and provide day-to-day mentoring and encouragement may find the Millennial among the dear departed” (p. 20). Accordingly, it is important that managers are aware of the type of communication Millennials desire and responsive to these needs as a way to stifle turnover due to a lack of communication.

When communicating with Millennials, the manager should also provide positive feedback that is both sincere and direct. It is important to recognize the accomplishments of these younger employees, and doing so could have an impact on their level of loyalty to the company,

as well as their commitment to a career path (Ferri-Reed, 2014a). Providing frequent feedback was also suggested, as Millennials want to be told where they stand and how they can improve (Ferri-Reed, 2014b). Ferri-Reed (2014b) suggested that companies “encourage open communication,” “involve workers in decisions and change efforts,” and “provide continual feedback for performance improvement” (p. 13).

Jablin (1987) posited that an employee’s level of job satisfaction is higher when the supervisor is open in communication with the subordinates. Previous literature suggests that Millennials expect communication with their boss to occur more frequently and to be more affirming and positive in nature than previous generations did (Gursoy et al., 2008; Hill, 2002; Marston, 2007; Martin, 2005). Behrens (2009) suggested reverse mentoring as a way to involve Millennials in their new workplace. Schullery (2013) noted that two-way mentoring often benefits both the experienced and the less experienced employees, as well as the employer. In reverse mentoring, the typical mentoring relationship is inverted and newer, younger employees are paired with more experienced employees whereby the younger employee acts as the mentor with the more experienced employee taking on the role of protégé and acquiring new learning (Allen, McManus, & Russell, 1999; Kram, 1996; Kram & Hall, 1996). Millennials often expect to build close relationships with their superiors in the workplace, similar to the close relationships they were encouraged to build with their parents and teachers (Hershatter & Epstein, 2010). Chaudhuri and Ghosh (2012) suggested that reverse mentoring could serve to increase Millennials’ involvement within their organization and keep them committed, while simultaneously engaging Baby Boomers.

Through this review of the literature, it is apparent that communication plays a crucial role in the adjustment, success, and satisfaction of Millennial employees. By applying the Platinum Rule (Alessandra, 1995) and focusing on the receiver’s perspective, managers and coworkers will be better suited to communicate with employees in the manner in which they are accustomed and desire. Failure to do so can have far reaching implications for the organization including lower levels of job satisfaction and potentially higher levels of turnover.

METHODOLOGY

An Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved survey was administered electronically during the spring and summer 2015 semesters to students enrolled in undergraduate business courses at a regional comprehensive university located in the southwest region of the United States. Five sections of courses were included, and participants voluntarily shared their perspective on workplace expectations and preferences. Students who opted not to participate were not penalized. Once the data collection period ended, the responses were analyzed and incomplete surveys were excluded from the results. The responses to the open ended questions were then open coded to allow for the identification of themes among responses.

FINDINGS

During data collection, 84 completed surveys were collected from participants who reported years of birth that fell into the Millennial category. Individuals who reported birth years outside of 1982 - 2002 were excluded from this study, as they do not fall into the category of Millennials as identified by Howe and Strauss (2000). Females constituted 58.33% of the respondents, and 41.67% of those who completed the survey were male. Survey demographic questions regarding previous work experience were asked to better understand the sample. Of the

respondents, 50 (59.52%) were currently employed and 34 (40.48%) were not. Of those employed, 76% reported being employed part-time, while 24% worked full-time. For the majority of the respondents (68%), their current job is not related to the career they would like after college graduation. Those who indicated that they were not currently employed were asked if they have ever been employed, either part-time or full-time, and they could select all the answer choices that applied. Accordingly, 26 indicated that they have previously worked part-time, while 14 have previously worked full-time. One respondent has never been employed. Since this survey asked respondents about their workplace preferences or expectations, previous work experience is not required to have a valid response to the questions, so the individual who has never been employed was included in the dataset.

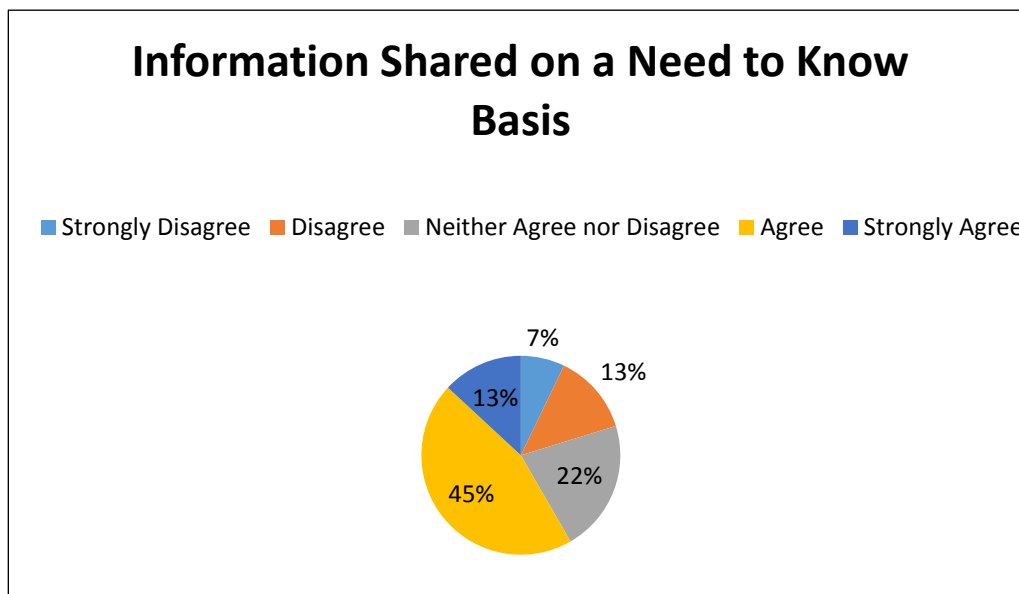
Culture

It is important to understand the broader organizational culture in which Millennials wish to work before narrowing in on communication related preferences. When presented with the statement “The culture of the company is important to me,” the average response on the 1 – 5 Likert scale (1: strongly disagree, 5: strongly agree) was 4.31 with 40 respondents (47.62%) scoring that statement with a 5. Similarly, when survey respondents were asked to rate how important “ethical tone set by management” was when considering full-time employment, the average response was 4.38 with nearly 55% of respondents selecting 5 on the Likert scale.

Sharing Information

Interestingly, the average response on the statement “Company information should be shared with employees on a need to know basis only” was 3.44. Figure 1 shows the breakdown of each response.

Figure 1
Need to Know Basis



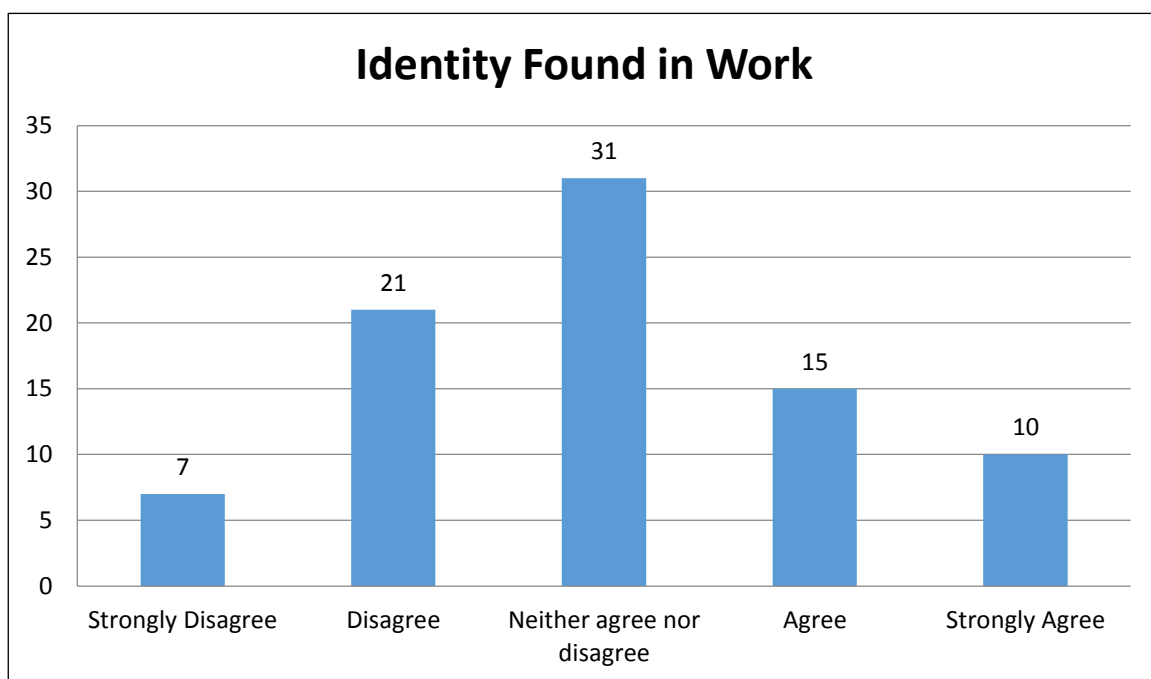
This finding does not support previous research's suggestion that Millennials do not appreciate information being withheld from them.

In addition, the Millennials want to know why their organization or boss is having them do something. The average response was 3.81, with over 69% selecting a 4 or 5 for that survey item. Overwhelmingly, the Millennials surveyed indicated that they expect their opinion to be heard and valued at work, with an average response of 4.26.

Seeing the Big Picture

Recognizing the diversity inherent in the workplace today, it is necessary that managers consider the diverse needs and preferences of employees. When survey respondents were presented with the statement "I need to understand how my job fits in to the big picture," over 76% agreed or strongly agreed. At the same time, there was disagreement as to whether a Millennial's identity is wrapped up in their work. Figure 2 represents the responses to the survey statement "My identity is found in my career."

Figure 2
IDENTITY FOUND IN WORK



Employee-Manager Relationship

The survey also included an open-ended question that asked participants to describe the type of relationship they would like to have with their future boss. From the responses, the following themes emerged: primarily professional, open communication, and friendly but not a friend.

The importance of professionalism and maintaining a professional relationship with the boss was commonly expressed. While some desire a "strictly professional" or "straight business

relationship,” others are open to developing other types of relationships while maintaining professionalism. For example, one respondent described the desired type of relationship in this way, “Easy and friendly, though with clear lines between our positions. I do not want to be friends with my boss, but I don’t want to be at odds with them either.” Another desires “a professional relationship that also involves good comradery [*sic*].” Though most respondents did not clearly express their interpretation of a professional working relationship, it was the most commonly expressed desire in response to the survey question.

Many respondents explained various types of communication they would like to be engaged in with their boss. Elements such as “healthy communication” and an “open relationship communications wise” were mentioned as desired traits, as well as “the ability to talk” to the boss about work-related problems or concerns. Feeling comfortable asking the boss questions was a commonly stated desire among Millennials. One respondent put it this way, “I would like to have a relationship where I feel comfortable talking about assignments and projects with them [the boss].” Another remarked, “I shouldn’t be scared to go talk to my boss.” Communication should occur on a daily basis according to the perspective of one respondent.

Communicating feedback is important as well. A Millennial commented, “I would hope they [bosses] would tell me what I was excelling in and what I needed to work on to improve myself.” In addition, the sentiment that the relationship between a subordinate and the boss should be “a friendly one that allows guidance” was also expressed.

The idea of the boss being friendly, but not a friend was shared in various ways. One respondent noted the desire for a “cordial and relaxed” relationship and went on to explain that “no one wants to come into work everyday with an awkward relationship.” The sentiment that the relationship between an employee and his or her manager should not be too personal was commonly expressed as well. “We need to be friendly and comfortable with each other but we don’t have to get too personal” was a comment one Millennial made about the type of relationship he or she would want with a boss. Another expressed the desired relationship as “I would like to have a friendly relationship, still keeping in mind that they are my boss.” The relationship should be “not strictly business” but “not very casual.” One respondent said the manager should be “boss first, friend second.” However, another person desired a professional relationship, but stated “I would like for my boss to take an interest in big life goals or accomplishments that are going on” as well.

While in the minority, the following noteworthy responses were also received. One person mentioned the desire for the boss to also serve as a mentor. The lack of frequency of this response aligns with the survey responses that indicate a lack of perceived value from the Millennials’ perspective when it comes to forging relationships with those older than them in the workplace. Other reported sentiments included that the relationship should be “laid back” and “fun,” though this perception was certainly in the minority. A few individuals included “mutual respect” in their response.

Feedback

Providing feedback is crucial to communication success. In the workplace, feedback serves to correct inappropriate behaviors or wrong endeavors, as well as to encourage the employee when they are doing things correctly. In the absence of quality feedback, employees are left floundering, unsure of their status. Course-correcting feedback should be offered in a timely manner in order to ensure the employee does not continue down the wrong path on an assignment for too long.

Feedback in the workplace can come from many different sources. When survey respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with the statement “I am comfortable with negative feedback from my boss,” the average response was 3.81; however, when asked about receiving negative feedback from a coworker, that number dropped to 3.5.

Managerial Feedback

Respondents were asked to describe the type of feedback they expect to receive from their manager. The most common response was related to “constructive criticism,” though many expounded on how they would like the message to be framed. One person commented, “When I do something incorrectly, I would want them to nicely teach me the correct way or talk to me about how to improve it.” “I’d like constructive criticism where I feel like even though I’m doing something wrong, that I’m still learning from the experience” was described by another to explain the desired managerial feedback. A desire for “honest feedback” was also expressed, as well as feedback that includes “both positive and negative so I can work on my weaknesses and continue to grow with my strengths.” “One on one advice that is helpful and makes me learn” is a benefit of receiving constructive feedback from the manager.

Respect was emphasized as well. One Millennial surveyed noted, “If I am doing something incorrectly I expect for my manager to let me know in a respectful way.” “Feedback that is honest yet professional and unbiased” is expected. Another mentioned, “Negative feedback will only make me better at my job, while positive feedback will make me feel like I’m doing something right.” Since “both [positive and negative feedback] are essential to my growth,” both should be provided, in the opinion of many Millennials surveyed. One noted that “any feedback is good feedback.”

The desire for positive feedback was commonly expressed as well. One person desires “mostly positive with some constructive criticism,” while another mentioned that managerial feedback should be “positive and encouraging.” “I do not expect to be rewarded very often but if I am working extremely hard I want my boss to notice” was the sentiment of one respondent. Another person highlighted the desire “to be recognized for my successes.” However, not everyone surveyed expects positive feedback. One person commented “I should expect brute honesty no more no less. I want to know what they think of my work and suggest some ways to help improve if they have any suggestions.” Another expects mostly negative feedback, which was indicated by the comment “negative for the most part. You shouldn’t get praised for doing your job.” However, praise for a job well done was often desired among Millennials surveyed. One respondent expressed a desire for “rewards every now and then when I do something right.” Another wants to be told “what I am doing right.” The sentiment that “I like to be told that they can see how hard I work ... also, that I am a great employee and worker” was noted by another respondent. In the opinion of one participant, “just a nod or a pat on the back is sufficient.” Another Millennial commented “I need to know what I am doing right. A little encouragement will not hurt.” Many of these sentiments support existing literature’s view of Millennials and their need for feedback.

Coworkers

Participants were also asked about the relationship they hope to have with their coworkers. Key findings are summarized in the table below.

Statement	Average Response (1 – 5 scale)
I can learn a lot from older employees who have been with the company for a long time.	4.65
Getting along with my coworkers is important to me.	4.50
I value relationships with coworkers of different ages.	4.17
I am comfortable obtaining information from my coworkers if my manager/boss is not providing information.	3.74

As shown from the results in Table 1, Millennials are not as comfortable asking for information from their coworkers if the boss is not providing sufficient information. As such, it is important that the manager is providing clear directions and carefully articulating expectations, as the Millennial may hesitate to seek out the information elsewhere.

There appears to be a disconnect between valuing relationships and learning from more experienced workers. It seems that Millennials are more likely to want to learn from those long term employees, but do not necessarily want to develop a relationship with them or value that possibility. In response, the manager and organization should help foster a culture of community and encourage younger and older workers to develop friendships with one another, not simply get information. A formal mentoring or reverse mentoring program may help in the development of this.

Coworker Communication

Opinions were mixed when Millennials were asked about the type of communication they anticipate being involved in with their coworkers. The majority reported they expect to be involved in primarily (if not totally) professionally or business focused communication. This open ended data supports the findings of the previous survey question related to feeling comfortable talking with a coworker if the boss is not providing the information. Sentiments such as “constant communication” and “cordial” were expressed, as well as “friendly” and “relaxed” to describe the desired communication environment.

For those desiring primarily professional communication with coworkers, but also open to more personal or relaxed communication, what several people referred to as “business casual” conversation, the following expectations were shared. “I would want to be friendly with my coworkers, but I would not tolerate gossip or mean comments. Most conversations should be professional or relevant [to the workplace].” In addition, it was noted that there needs to be “a healthy balance between friendship and teamwork.”

There were respondents who reported a desire for a combination of professional and personal communication; however, many stated that they desired to be involved in professional communication only. One respondent noted, “I am not here to make friends but will enjoy my time at work.” Another commented that communication should be “about work related things” as well as “bettering the organization.” The ability to ask questions or seek feedback of coworkers was articulated as well. One person commented, “You should be able to ask co-workers questions and have everyone work well together.” The idea of getting help from coworkers was expressed several times, including the statement that “I want to be able to go to them if I have a question or need ideas and I want them to do the same.”

However, there are Millennials who reported wanting to engage in conversation with coworkers that went beyond just the workplace. Some respondents viewed such interactions as “encouraging” or “a break from the stress of work.” One person commented, “I want to be able to talk about work just as much as I can talk about my personal life” to express the type of communication mix he or she desires in the workplace. “I expect to be able to have conversations with my coworkers that do not always revolve around work. I expect to have a deeper connection with my fellow co-workers and be part of their lives” was the comment provided by one Millennial.

Though the minority, extremes in responses did exist. One Millennial surveyed responded that if he or she was not working on a group project “communication with coworkers is not important.” Another mentioned not wanting too frequent communication, “but not so far apart at times where I have to struggle to remember their names.” Regardless of the type of communication preferred, respectful interactions were often mentioned. Avoiding gossip and profanity were included in many responses as well. An environment that is perceived to be “fun” and “supportive” will go a long way in helping Millennials communicate appropriately with their coworkers in the workplace.

CONCLUSION

This study’s findings have numerous implications for business and education. Educators have a role to play in preparing the next generation of the workforce. As such, Millennials can be taught about generational differences within the workplace, as well as how to deal with potential conflicts that might arise as a result of ingrained thoughts on how workplaces function. It is important for Millennial students to learn that they may have to work in situations that may not meet their desired level of communication or feedback from their supervisor. By learning to recognize generational differences, Millennial employees may be better suited to modify their behaviors and tailor their interactions to meet the workplace norms or communication preferences of others. From the business perspective, it is essential that managers are trained how to lead a diverse workforce and recognize the communication preferences of those they are responsible for leading. Armed with such knowledge, managers can help Millennials transition to the workplace and thrive in their new role.

The limitations of this study include surveying only Millennials pursuing higher education, as well as using only five sections of undergraduate business classes at one institution of higher education to compose the sample. Future research is needed to confirm or refute these findings using a broader sample of Millennials, including both those pursuing higher education and those who are not. In addition, future research should consider the perspective of the managers of Millennials. This could be done through quantitative or qualitative methods to better understand the type of communication differences that exist among generations, as well as how the managers effectively lead a multigenerational workforce and the challenges inherent in doing so. These findings could help both managers and educators as the next generation of leadership continues to enter the workplace.

In conclusion, this study’s findings confirmed some previously reported characteristics of Millennials, yet contradicted others. The unique perspectives of Millennials were emphasized while related challenges for managers were highlighted. Through open-ended responses, a deeper understanding of the workplace preferences and expectations of Millennials surveyed was gained, which included both managerial and coworker communication. The culture of the organization was discussed as well, as it contributes to the communication environment

experienced. Millennials are entering the workforce in droves and are challenging management to change the status quo. As organizations and managers work to retain Millennial employees, it is crucial that the communication practices within the organization are reevaluated as well.

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CORRUPTION, BUSINESS, AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to explore the literature covering the different aspects of corruption and its bidirectional relationship with businesses and different economic development variables. It aims to identify the latest trends, techniques and data used in analyzing the relationship between corruption and development, and to draw general conclusions on the status of the latest findings in that area. There seems to be a consensus, though at times challenged, that corruption effectively hinders development through reducing investment, diverting resources, reducing human capital, harming the environment, and that such hindering is more evident in the developing world. Many attempts were made to achieve a quantification of such relationship with results that can estimate a percentage growth improvement if institutional quality and rule of law were improved. In addition, the literature offers evidence that point out in the direction of inequalities playing a role in introducing corruption. Moreover, the literature points out that corruption may reduce the effectiveness of foreign aid and may reap a country from the benefits of free trade. In addition, corruption is shown to have the ability to decrease the productivity of a nation. Democracy was shown to have a decreasing effect on corruption conditioned upon per capita purchasing power. Finally, there seems to be evidence that the quality of institutions plays a great role in reducing corruption.

Keywords: *Economic Growth, Economic Development, Corruption.*

INTRODUCTION

Corruption has been at the center of extensive research since the turn of the 21st century. Early corruption research can be traced back to the late 60s and before. A simple definition of corruption involves individuals who are public officials that are abusing their public office for private gain. However, some views extend that definition. Kaufmann (2015) sees corruption from a larger perspective “involving a network of politicians, organizations, companies, and private individuals colluding to benefit from access to power, public resources, and policy-making at the expense of the public good” The later form can affect the rule of law and regulations, and hence is referred to sometimes using the term State capture. Such forms of illegal activities may require widening the definition of the term corruption itself. Svensson (2005) regards corruption as a result and an indicator of the power of the political institutions of a country in addition to its economic standing, dominant culture and rule of law status and asserts that the definition of corruption itself is not definite.

Several indexes are used to measure corruption. An early measure was constructed by Political Risk Services Group, the publishers of the International Country Risk Guide. As part of a country’s risk assessment, the guide tries to focus on actual and potential corruption where nepotism and political ties to businesses may take place. Their measure is a way to alert potential foreign investors of dangers that can form challenges to the government of a certain nation when corruption is exposed causing widespread discontent. Such backlash can overthrow a government and be of cost for foreign investors. Hence, the measure is designed in such a way that ties corruption to potential political instability.

A most widely used measure of corruption is the one published by Transparency International; the Corruption Perception Index. The measure utilizes data from 11 different organizations and 12 data sources and aims to evaluate the perception of corruption. The different data sources include country rankings in different aspects from the African Development Bank Governance Ratings, Bertelsmann Foundation Sustainable Governance Indicators, Bertelsmann Foundation Transformation Index, Economist Intelligence Unit Country Risk Ratings, Freedom House Nations in Transit, Global Insight Country Risk Ratings, IMD World Competitiveness Yearbook, Political and Economic Risk Consultancy Asian Intelligence, Political Risk Services International Country Risk Guide, World Bank - Country Policy and Institutional Assessment, World Economic Forum Executive Opinion Survey and the World Justice Project Rule of Law Index.

Corruption is often perceived as a developing nation's phenomena and seen as an obstacle to development. It is viewed as a major hindering factor in attracting foreign direct investment and in drafting proper development policies. However, the inquiry into whether corruption is a cause or an effect is one that frequently engages researchers. Is corruption a result of poverty or a cause of it has been a major question of economic research. In addition, research has been focused on many different correlations that can be made; how corruption relates to openness and trade, income inequalities, political institutions, the degree of urbanization and many other factors. In addition, much research investigates the most effective way to decrease corruption, comparing country experiences and correlating corruption to proxies of the rule of law and efficient institutions. This paper aims to shed some light on recent trends in corruption literature, the techniques and data used and the latest findings in this area.

CORRUPTION LITERATURE

Early corruption research can be traced back to the 1960's and 1970's. Work by Becker and Stigler (1974) focused on the relationship between the government official and the public. The research was trying to understand the roots of having corrupt government officials and suggest remedies. One straightforward solution suggested by Becker and Stigler was to introduce efficient wages. This line of research was further enhanced by work introduced by Banfield (1975) and Rose-Ackerman (1975) where they further investigate this principal agent problem. Shleifer & Vishny (1993) focused on consequences of corruption on resource allocation and economic development. Utilizing a model of demand and supply for government goods, where the marginal cost to the seller of the government good can be its legal price or taxation, or a bribe, Shleifer and Vishny argued that corruption hinders economic development through two channels; the weak grip of the government opens the door for a multitude of government institutions to enforce bribes on private individuals such as those seeking investment licenses, in the light of such weakness, bribe value can significantly increase to the point that it can stop the flow of vital growth needed capital from foreign direct investment. The later reason can explain why foreign investment didn't flow to certain countries in the transforming economies and in Africa. The second reason given by the authors is the distortions entailed by the secrecy of corruption which can divert resources from highly publicized and much needed projects in healthcare and education to less desired ones where eyes are less focused on and bribery can thrive.

Mauro (1995) carried out what may very well be the first empirical study that tries to link corruption to economic growth. Mauro utilized a newly assembled set of indices on red tape, corruption and government efficiency that was based on surveys to a multitude of international businesses operating in 70 countries covering the period between 1980 and 1983.

Mauro's dataset made available proxies for ranking institutional efficiency consisting of indexes of political stability, institutional change, social change, the possibility of opposition takeover, stability of labor, and terrorism among other factors. Moreover, he also constructed a bureaucratic efficiency index consisting of the efficiency of the judiciary system, the degree of red tape, in addition to the degree of perceived corruption. Mauro ran series of regressions and correlations of those variables to ethnolinguistic fractionalization, per capita GDP growth, investment to GDP ratio, primary education, secondary education, population growth, government expenditure to GDP, revolutions and coups, assassinations and other variables.

Mauro's utilization of the subjective indices of bureaucratic honesty and efficiency yielded what may be the first empirical evidence on the effects of corruption on economic growth. Mauro's findings indicated a negative and significant correlation between corruption and investment, and corruption and growth. The extent of Mauro's analysis allowed him to make quantified predictions. Based on his results, he predicted that if Bangladesh could increase its bureaucratic integrity and efficiency to the level of that of Uruguay which according to his calculation, corresponded to a one standard deviation increase in the subjective bureaucratic efficiency index, then its investment rate could rise by around five percentage points, and its annual GDP growth rate would also increase by more than half a percentage point. In addition, Mauro's findings also indicate that corrupt and unstable governments tend to spend less on education; a finding that is in line and is consistent with Shleifer and Vishny (1993) deduction that corruption opportunities are less when spending on education than when spending on other components of government expenditure. Mauro's research was one of the very first in quantifying the effects of corruption on investment and growth and opened the door for more research in the same direction.

Mo (2001) attempted to quantify how corruption affects economic growth and identify the mechanism of such effect. Mo started with a production function with labor L , capital K and a factor of productivity T where output is

$$Y = Tf(K, L) ,$$

Mo reached a Solow like model through differentiating the production function;

$$\frac{dY}{Y} = \frac{dT}{T} + Tf_k \frac{dK}{Y} + \frac{f_L}{d} \frac{dL}{L}$$

where growth occurs with the increase of the quantities of capital and/or labor in addition to any social and technological improvement. Mo identified the growth rate of GDP (GR) to be a function of total factor productivity Y , investment output ratio IY , and the growth rate of labor dLL . Hence,

$$GR = F(\gamma, IY, dLL)$$

Mo then specified that the total factor productivity Y is a function of an index of the level of corruption C , initial GDP per capita IG , and a proxy for the degree of human capital stock H ; that is

$$\gamma = \gamma(C, IG, H).$$

In addition, Mo specified the mechanism where corruption affects growth where

$$\frac{dGR}{dC} = \frac{\partial GR}{\partial C} + \left(\frac{\partial GR}{\partial IY} \cdot \frac{\partial IY}{\partial C} \right)$$

The later decomposition identifies the effect of corruption on growth through investment. Mo added similar decompositions identifying other channels; human capital and political instability. Mo utilized data from the National Bureau of Economic Ideas assembled by Barro and Lee, used the Transparency International corruption Index and Business International surveys. His sample covered 54 countries with data covering from 1970 to 1985. Running estimations using least squares method and White heteroskedasticity test, Mo's results yielded interesting conclusions; an increase of 1% increase in the corruption level reduces GDP growth rate by 0.72%. In addition, Mo's findings indicate that political instability is the major channel where corruption affects economic growth the most; 53% of the total effect. In addition, MO's findings indicate that corruption significantly reduces both the level of human capital and the share of private investment in GDP.

Guney (2014) inspected the effect of corruption on what he referred to as prosperity and the sustainability of prosperity. Guney utilized the Prosperity Index prepared by the Legatum institute where eight categories are used to proxy prosperity. In addition, he identified a sustainable development proxy derived from the previous categories. Some of those categories include indicators about the economy, the status of entrepreneurship and opportunity readiness, governance, the level of education, the status of health, the country's safety and security level, status of personal freedoms, level of social capital. Each of the previous categories has its own subcategories and the data is compiled from international organizations or institutions such as Gallup World Poll, World Bank World Development Indicators, International Telecommunication Union, House, World Health Organization, Amnesty International, Centre for Systemic Peace and others. The subcategories count reaches 89 and include variables such as the degree of democracy, the degree of urbanization, ratio of private bank credit to GDP and others. To proxy corruption, Guney used both the Corruption Perception Index and the Corruption Control Index. In addition, Guney used the Environmental Performance Index which was introduced through a joint research project between Yale University, the Centre for International Earth Science and others. The index is constructed from sub categories that reflect environmental health and the degree of protection of ecosystems. Guney constructed two models to test the relationship between corruption and prosperity, corruption and sustainable development. Guney specified that if α is the unobservable unit effect, i is the number of units, and t is the time interval, then his tested model is:

$$Prosperity_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta_1 Corruption_{it} + \beta_2 Democracy_{it} + \beta_3 Literacy_{it} + \beta_4 Urbanization_{it} + \beta_5 Credit_{it}$$

The same settings of the previous model were applied to sustainable development and a panel data was utilized. Guney's findings are very indicative of the impact of corruption on both variables; corruption accounted for over 70% of prosperity and almost 50% of sustainable development. His findings also point that the effect of corruption differs by the state of development where the effect is larger in developing nations.

Aklin et al. (2014) inquired into the claims that corruption leads to weak upholding of environmental laws. Utilizing data from a Brazilian survey in 2012 Aklin et al. tested whether corruption, education and/or income were perceived as the reason for poor environmental laws enforcement. Their findings showed a mixed opinion; individuals of higher incomes tended to blame corruption for weak environmental laws' enforcement, whereas lower income individuals did not share the same views. In addition, higher educated individuals did not perceive corruption as a major cause of poor enforcement as compared to those with lower education.

Poprawe (2015) analyzed the effect of corruption on tourism. Utilizing a panel data of 100 countries over the span of 16 years, Poprawe tried to link the Corruption Perception Index and other variables such as proxies for openness and GDP growth to tourism data. Poprawe's empirical findings suggested that a decrease in corruption by one point as measured by the Corruption Perception Index can increase tourism inflow between 2% and 7%. Poprawe deduces that cost burden on tourists having to pay bribes switches them away from corrupt destinations into more honest ones.

Chen et al. (2015) examined the effect of corruption on individual bank fragility. They utilized a panel data covering the period from 2000 to 2012 and involving around 1200 banks in 35 economies in different states of development; the data covered emerging economies, Central and Eastern European economies and Latin American and Asian ones. They proxied for individual banks' risk-taking using the time varying Z-score index and to proxy for corruption they utilized the Corruption Perception Index, they then tested the specification:

$$Risk_{it} = c + \beta \cdot Corruption_{jt} + \delta \cdot Character_{it} + \varphi \cdot Regulations_{jt} + \rho \cdot MacroConditions_{jt} + \eta \cdot Other + f_i + \varepsilon_{it}$$

Where risk as expressed in the probability of insolvency using the Z score is explained in terms of the Corruption Perception Index, a series of variables reflecting bank characteristics, a series of variables reflecting bank regulation policies, and proxies for the macroeconomic situations present in the country where the bank operates. Their findings indicate an association between high levels of corruption and high bank risk taking. Their results indicate that corruption leads to reduction in bank profitability and a higher variation in bank returns. Moreover, their findings indicate that when central banks follow a monetary expansionary policy corruption leads in creating risky bets taken by banks. In addition, their findings also indicate that corruption reduces the economic growth effect of pro-cyclical business cycles.

Huang (2013) investigated the link between corruption and income inequality over the period 1995-2010 in several Asian countries. Using a bootstrap Granger causality, Gini indexes from the specified countries, and the Corruption Perception Index for the same time period for each of the Asian nations in the sample, Huang tested the relationship:

$$Gini_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta_i CPI_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

Where the Gini index in country i at time t is dependent on the value of the Corruption Perception Index. Accounting for heterogeneity across countries and for cross sectional dependencies, Huang examined the causality between the variables. His findings point out to a one directional Granger causality where corruption increases inequalities in both the Philippines and China and one direction Granger causality in the opposite direction for Thailand, Korea, Japan and Indonesia. Huang found no causality between corruption and income inequality in the rest of his sample nations; Vietnam, Taiwan, Malaysia and Singapore.

Many other investigations into the nature of the relationship between corruption and inequality exist in the literature. For example, Dutta & Mishra (2013) investigated the causal relationship from inequality to corruption. Their settings assumed that corruption in one market can arise because of excessive inequalities in another market. Applying this setting to an imperfect credit market where wealth inequalities can prevent proper screening of credit seekers, Dutta and Mishra demonstrated that greater inequality can lead to corruption.

Lopez (2015) investigated the relationship between foreign aid represented in Official Development Assistance and corruption. Using a panel dataset covering the period from 1999 to 2010, Lopez disaggregated aid into categories of sectors according to the usage of the aid in order to investigate how each aid allocation decision is sensitive to corruption. Those categories included economic infrastructure and services, productive sectors, commodities, budget assistance, debt related, and humanitarian aid. Lopez ran a pooled ordinary Least Squares regression and fixed effects regressions with standard errors that are clustered at the donor level and at an aggregate level in addition to running a specific regression for each category. The methodology involved pooled ordinary Least Squares regressions and fixed effects regressions with standard errors that are clustered at the donor level. Lopez tested the following setup:

$$\begin{aligned}
 ODA_{ijt} &= \text{Constant} + \alpha(\text{Percent Imports, U.S. Military Interest})_{ijt} + \beta(\text{Donor GDP})_{jt} \\
 &+ \lambda(\text{Refugees, Natural Disasters, Civil War, Population, Democracy, Corruption, Recipient GDP})_{it} \\
 &+ \delta(\text{Colony, UN Voting Similarity})_{ij} + \varphi(\text{Energy, Region})_i + \xi(\text{Year})_t \\
 &+ (\text{Omitted recipient need variables})_{it} + (\text{Omitted recipient need variables})_i \\
 &+ (\text{Composite error term})_{ijt}
 \end{aligned}$$

Lopez findings point out to a negative modest significance of corruption on foreign aid choices across many sectors where the more corrupt recipients of aid are, the more they receive of humanitarian aid and the less they get of social infrastructure and productive aid.

Another debate that is evident in the literature has to do whether trade is encouraged by corruption or whether trade decreases corruption. Much research was introduced inquiring how corruption would be influenced by trade deals and more openness. Some findings conclude that trade lowers corruption. The line of thought follows that trade increases competition, hence reducing monopoly and its rent seeking actions. Therefore, the motivation of businesses to bribe or the ability of businesses to afford bribery is reduced. The work of Ades and Di Tella (1999) point out to trade increasing competition and the possibility of trade playing a role in reducing corruption. The work of Gatti (2004) demonstrated that the more open an economy is the less corruption it appears to have.

More recent work by Majeed (2014) investigated how openness, trade and corruption may relate. Majeed used a panel data set for 146 nations covering the period from 1984 to 2007 and made use of the International Risk Country Guide (ICRG) as a proxy for corruption. Majeed used various techniques to test the following model:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Corruption}_{it} &= \alpha + \beta_1(\text{Trade openness})_{it} + \beta_2(\text{Set of Corruption Control Variables})_{it} \\
 &+ \beta_3\text{Per Capita Income}_{it} + (\text{Country Specific Unobservable effect})_i \\
 &+ (\text{Time Specific Factor})_t \\
 &+ (\text{Independent Identically Distributed Disturbance Term})_{it}
 \end{aligned}$$

Majeed conditions included a lot of the traditional variables involved in the literature; proxies for economic freedom, rule of law, government expenditures as percent of GDP, degree of democracy, degree of urbanization, government stability, internal and external conflict, investment profile, military politics, and the quality of bureaucracy. Majeed's findings point out that trade can increase corruption in linear model specifications and decreases it in non linear specifications. This finding can explain why the literature contains a mixed conclusion about trade and corruption. Majeed argues it is other factors such as the quality of bureaucracy, financial maturity and the rule of law that act as a transmission mechanism from trade and openness to reducing corruption. In other words, trade when accompanied by good institutions can lead to less corruption.

Much research was carried out investigating the effect of corruption on the firm's performance. Lambsdorff (2003) investigated the relationship between corruption and a country's national productivity. Lambsdorff used the ratio of GDP to the capital stock as a measure of productivity where the higher the ratio is the lower is productivity. He used the Transparency International Corruption Perception Index to proxy for corruption. In addition, he included proxies for the corruption sub categories; bureaucratic quality, civil liberties, government stability and law and order together with proxies for other variables such as openness of the economy. Lambsdorff employed data from the Penn World Tables for 93 countries covering the period from 1974 to 2000 and ran a multitude of regressions. Lambsdorff's findings indicate that a 1% increase in corruption decreases productivity by 2%. His findings also indicate that the quality of bureaucracy and the degree of civil liberties in addition to government stability all have a positive and significant effect on productivity. In addition, Lambsdorff found evidence that the negative effect of corruption decreases with the improvement in the quality of bureaucracy implying the importance of legal reforms in increasing productivity. The later results were matched by the findings of Meon and Weill (2010) who established that corruption has a negative effect on national efficiency in the cases where institutions are of good quality and the opposite in case of poor quality of institutions.

Faruq et al. (2013) extended the later line of research utilizing data from the International Country Risk Guide (ICRG) in addition to a specific firm level dataset of more than 900 firms over the span of 12 years. The specific dataset covered the years from 1991 to 2002 and was gathered by the Center for the Study of African Economies of Oxford University covering the African nations of Tanzania, Ghana, and Kenya. Faruq et al. ran a series of tests; Data Envelopment Analysis to evaluate production efficiency with a given a set of outputs and a corresponding set of inputs. In addition, they controlled for other determinants such as age and size of the firm as a proxy of a firm's experience, labor/capital mix, foreign ownership, competition, market shares and ethnic tension. Faruq et al. used two approaches to evaluate firm efficiency; input oriented approach that asks whether a firm can keep the same level output but decrease its inputs, and the output oriented approach that investigates whether a firm can increase its output with the same level of inputs. In addition, they employed a Tobit and ordinary OLS regressions to investigate the impact of corruption and bureaucratic quality on productivity. Faruq et al. evaluated the following model:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Efficiency}_{it} &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(\ln \text{age}_{it}) + \alpha_2(\ln \text{age}_{it})^2 + \alpha_3(\ln \text{size}_{it}) + \alpha_4(\ln \text{size}_{it})^2 \\
 &+ \alpha_5(\ln(\text{labor} - \text{capital} - \text{mix}_{it})) + \alpha_6(\ln \text{Competition}_{it}) \\
 &+ \alpha_7(\ln \text{Corruption}_{it}) + \varepsilon_{it}
 \end{aligned}$$

Their findings indicate that while traditional factors like firm experience as given by its age, size, experience, and the degree of competition influence its productivity. However, their findings point out that the lower the productivity of a firm is the more corrupt behavior the firm tends to display. In addition, their results confirm that poor bureaucracy and corruption decrease firm productivity but corruption displays a larger negative impact on productivity than that of the quality of the institutions.

Jetter et al. (2015) investigate the relationship between corruption and democracy. They used the Corruption Perception Index data in addition to a gathered panel data for 155 countries covering the years from 1998 to 2012, their data included GDP per capita, proxies for degree of democracy, imports, openness, government final consumption as percentage of GDP, population and population growth, degree and years of education, urban population, freedom of press, number of years since last regime change, life expectancy, inflation and

other relevant data. The richness of the data allowed them to control for many variables. Their tested model took the form:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Corruption}_{it} = & \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{Corruption}_{i,t-1}) + \beta_2\text{Democracy}_{it} + \beta_3(\ln \text{GDP}_{it}) \\ & + \beta_4(\text{Democracy}) \cdot (\ln \text{GDP}_{it}) + \beta_5C_i + \beta_6Z_t + \varepsilon_{it} \end{aligned}$$

$$\ln \text{GDP}_{it} = \gamma_1 + \gamma_2 \ln \text{GDP}_{i,t-1} + \gamma_3\text{Democracy}_{it} + \gamma_4\text{Other Control Variables}_{i,t-1} + \gamma_5C_i + \gamma_6Z_t + \zeta_{it}$$

Carrying out a series of regressions, Jetter et al. got robust results which pointed out that democracy has a decreasing effect on corruption only if a society's per capita income in real 2005 purchasing power dollars is above \$2000. Below that level, democracy had no effect on corruption. Their results implies that democracy in poor economies wouldn't necessary imply less corruption as relative poverty prevails.

Delavallade (2012) utilized a survey made by the Universite Paris 1 of France for private firms in North Africa in Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco. The survey involved over 580 firms, and included inquiries about tax evasion, corruption perception, the degree of competition and other related items. Using the data, Delavllade tested the model specification:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Corruption}_i & = \beta_0 + \beta_1\text{Percentage of Undeclared Taxes}_i \\ & + \beta_2\text{Percentage of Undeclared Taxes}_i^2 + \beta_3\text{Property Rights Proxy}_i \\ & + \beta_4(\text{Market Share Increase in the last two year as proxy for competition})_i \\ & + \beta_5\text{Proxy for Regulations affecting the firm}_i \\ & + \beta_6\text{Coporate tax as percent of sales}_i + \beta_7\text{Other control variables}_i + \theta_i \end{aligned}$$

Testing the model yielded interesting results about corruption of firms in North Africa. Delvallade concluded that administrative corruption holds and aids those North African firms in tax evasion. However, this illegal help is conditioned; it prevails up to an amount where undeclared sales of a firm are half the size of the firm's total sales. Going beyond this percentage increases the risk of being detected for all participants. Hence, corrupt officials are extra cautious not to get caught. Moreover, Delvallade concluded that poor judicial system as well as poor competition increases corruption activities. The later finding validates other empirical finds of the importance of the judicial system.

Rontos (2015) investigated the causes of corruption in a worldwide sample of around 180 countries. Using data covering from 1995 to 2011 and utilizing the Corruption Perception Index as a a proxy for corruption, Rontos tested the specification:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Corruption Perception}_t & = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{Income Level Indicators})_t + \beta_2(\text{Democracy Indicators})_t \\ & + \beta_3(\text{Government Effectivness Indicators})_t \\ & + \beta_4(\text{Human Development Indicators})_t + (\text{Error Term})_t \end{aligned}$$

Running tests to examine for multicollinearity, heteroscedasticity, and using various estimating techniques, Rosto examined the relationship between the corruption index and each of: GDP, GNI in PPP, the Freedom Rating Index to proxy democracy from Freedom House, World Bank Government Effectiveness Indicator, and the UNDP Human Development Index (excluding income data). Rosto's findings point out to government effectiveness as the most important aspect of fighting corruption. He also points out that economic development negatively correlates with corruption. Similarly, he concluded that the weakness of political system in lower developed nations negatively correlates with its corruption level.

DISCUSSION

This paper reviewed some recent literature investigating the nature of the relationship between corruption and development aiming to generalize on the data, methods and techniques used to establish this link and draw some conclusions on what research has been able to unveil in this regard. Much of the research employs straightforward econometric techniques involving data reflecting the quality of institutions, economic openness, degree of democracy, and other growth and development variables and regressing those variables to an index of corruption investigating the direction and the magnitude of the relationship.

There seems to be a consensus, though at times challenged, that corruption effectively hinders development through reducing investment and diverting resources away from highly productive visible sectors, reducing human capital and even hindering sustainable development and that such hindering is more evident in the developing world. Many attempts were made to achieve a quantification of such relationship with results that can estimate a percentage growth improvement if institutional quality and rule of law were improved. In addition, the literature offers evidence that points out in the direction of inequalities playing a role in introducing corruption. Moreover, research points out that corruption reduces the effectiveness of foreign aid and can reap a country from the benefits of free trade in absence of good institutions. In addition, corruption is shown to have the ability to decrease the productivity of a nation. Democracy was shown to have an effect on corruption, however, only when people surpass a threshold of a given purchasing power. Finally, there seems to be evidence that the quality of institutions plays a great role in reducing corruption.

Table 1
SELECTED CPI AND OTHER INDICATORS

	Country Rank	CPI Score (2015)	Country	Per Capita GDP in Current \$ U.S.	Economic Freedom Rank	HDI Rank
The 10 Least Corrupt Nations in the World	1	91	Denmark	52002	12	4
	2	90	Finland	41921	24	24
	3	89	Sweden	50273	26	14
	4	88	New Zealand	37808	3	9
	5	87	Netherlands	44433	16	5
	5	87	Norway	74735	32	1
	7	86	Switzerland	80215	4	3
	8	85	Singapore	52889	2	11
	9	83	Canada	43249	6	9
	10	81	Germany	41219	17	6
Countries in the Middle of World Corruption Ranking	83	37	Benin	779	101	166
	83	37	China	7924	144	90
	83	37	Colombia	6056	33	97
	83	37	Liberia	456	143	177
	83	37	Sri Lanka	3926	93	73
	88	36	Albania	3965	59	85
	88	36	Algeria	4206	154	83
	88	36	Egypt	3614	125	108
	88	36	Indonesia	3346	99	110
	88	36	Morocco	2872	85	126

Table 1 Continued.						
SELECTED CPI AND OTHER INDICATORS						
	Country Rank	CPI Score (2015)	Country	Per Capita GDP in Current \$ U.S.	Economic Freedom Rank	HDI Rank
The 10 Most Corrupt Countries in the World	158	17	Guinea-Bissau	573	145	138
	158	17	Venezuela	NA	176	71
	161	16	Iraq	4629	NA	121
	161	16	Libya	4643	NA	94
	163	15	Angola	4102	156	149
	163	15	South Sudan	731	NA	169
	165	12	Sudan	2089	NA	167
	166	11	Afghanistan	590	NA	171
	167	8	Korea (North)	NA	NA	NA
	167	8	Somalia	552	NA	NA

Source: CPI is compiled from Transparency International, Per Capita GDP is compiled from World Bank World Development Indicators, Economic Freedom rank is compiled from the World Heritage Foundation Economic Freedom Report, and the Human Development Index HDI is compiled from UNDP Human Development Report.

There exists a degree of complexity in the nature of the relationship between corruption and other economic variables that require sophisticated econometric techniques to investigate. An idea about how hard it is to make simple judgments about this relationship can be demonstrated through Table 1. The table provides selected economic variables for the highest ten less corrupt countries in the world, and for ten countries that are in the middle of world ranking when it comes to corruption, and the ten most corrupt nations in the world corruption ranking. Trying to trace which of those nations enjoy a higher GDP may be easy for the ten least corrupt nations, but not for the other two categories, similar complexities would exist for most of the variables which requires a comprehensive panel data for any analysis to be meaningful.

END NOTE

Notations mostly follow Mo (2001)

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BEYOND THE CULTURE OF CORRUPTION: STAYING ETHICAL WHILE DOING BUSINESS IN LATIN AMERICA

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ABSTRACT

Corruption stifles innovation and economic growth, most particularly in the poorest of societies. This research examines the relationship between culture and corruption in 88 countries and offers insights specific to the Americas regarding what may be done to reduce the impact of corruption while keeping the cultural richness throughout our hemisphere. Publically available datasets were reviewed for this study: the prevalence of corruption as reported by Transparency International in their annual reports based on both expert opinion (Corruption Perception Index, CPI) and public surveys (Global Corruption Barometer, GCB); country-level cultural measures from the work of Hofstede and GLOBE; and individual attitudes and factors from the World Values Survey (WVS). Although each measure of corruption and confidence in social organizations was generated differently, they were all strongly correlated with one another. Cultural factors contributing to higher perceptions of corruption, controlled for Gross National Income (GNI) per capita, were higher Hofstede's Power Distance world-wide and Masculinity and Indulgence vs. Restraint in the Americas, and higher levels of GLOBE's Self-Protective leadership world-wide and in the Americas. The perception of corruption in the police sector (GCB) is a significant contributor to overall level of corruption (CPI) world-wide and in the Americas, while the payment of bribes is related to greater perception of police and civil corruption, but lesser corruption in the business sector (as measured by GCB). In Latin America, reduced corruption and less distrust in businesses is associated with public and private leaders who have a strong work ethic, a strong sense of control in their jobs, a high level of happiness, and a strong faith in God. However, full empowerment of leaders and the absence of accountability may be related to a larger pervasiveness of bribe payments and petty corruption in the public sectors.

INTRODUCTION

Background

High levels of corruption and poor economic performance are inextricably tied together, and are a self-perpetuating situation in many Latin American countries. Corruption is commonly defined as the use of a position of power for illegal personal gain (Argandoña, 2005; Cleary, 2007; Charoensukmongkol & Sexton, 2011), and the payment of unofficial fees to authorities for personal benefit (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Adverse impacts from corruption range from the relatively small but ubiquitous *mordida* [the nibble] that many drivers pay a traffic officer to not fine them what the infraction truly merits (Cleary, 2007; Fried, Lagunes, & Venkataramani, 2010) to vast sums of money paid for preferential treatment during the bidding of government contracts (Mahagaonkar, 2008; Kenny, 2009).

In the private sector, corruption flaunts intellectual property rights, hindering the trust needed for successful collaboration and innovation. Improper payments for business deals undermines fair competition (Maloney, 2002; Argandoña, 2008; Transparency International GCR, n.d.), further suppressing economic productivity (Crespi & Peirano, 2007; Veracierto, 2008). When corruption is present within the court system, it prevents the fair and impartial justice for citizens in many nations of the world, and precludes recourse to a higher authority for businesses, both domestic and foreign, who attempt to take an ethical stand against improper solicitations in the normal conduct of their trade. With the erosion of trust in the courts, greedy individuals are empowered to take advantage of the disenfranchised without concern for any adverse consequences (Fried et al., 2010); without a fair system of justice, all other sectors of society are laid bare to corruption. A country's courts send a blaring message to their citizens: "In this country corruption is tolerated," (Transparency International – GCR, n.d.).

Problem

The prevalence of corruption in Africa, Asia, and Latin America contrasted with the lack of widespread corruption in Northern Europe and the Anglo world (Transparency International, n.d.) begs the question: Is corruption cultural? But this is a loaded question – corruption has been shown to be correlated with culture (Hofstede et al., 2010), but does the culture cause the corruption or does corruption influence the culture to become self-perpetuating? This study draws heavily on the work of Stanfill, Medina, Esquivel, de la Rosa, and Villarreal (2015), and goes beyond it to identify the values and beliefs within the bounds of Latin American culture which, if influenced by international businesses through their commercial and societal efforts, can lead to a lower prevalence of incidents of corruption (Veracierto, 2008) or lessen the adverse impacts from corruption on their business development efforts (Anokhin & Schulze, 2009).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Corruption, Trust and Innovation

Maloney (2002) asserts that the causes of Latin America's economic under-performance are related to its deficiency in innovation and technological adaptation. First, there has been and continues to be a lack of "learning capacity," which is its human capital as well as the linkages between institutions facilitating the adoption and development of new technologies. Also, the failure is perpetuated by the reluctance to embrace technology, generally associated with artificially constructed monopoly power. Analysis shows that not only had Latin America lagged the rest of the world in economic growth over many decades, but that it appears to be related to a lack of openness to trade, domestic investment, and a "knowledge index" which represents many innovation-related factors. Maloney decries the continuing eschewing of competition with monopolistic industries: "[I]t is worrying that many Latin American leaders, in the face of vast international evidence, are even today reverting to policies that will guarantee that the region remains far from the knowledge frontier," (Maloney, 2002, 149).

Anokhin and Schulze (2009) investigated the relationship among entrepreneurship, foreign direct investment, innovation, and corruption in 64 countries and found that the better the *Worldwide Governance Indicator – Control of Corruption* (WGI-CC), which is very strongly correlated with Transparency International's *Corruption Perception Index* (CPI, Carballo, 2009), the greater the level of innovation in a country. As foreign direct investment (FDI) increases, control of corruption has a greater positive effect on patent applications, but a lesser positive effect on realized innovation. The authors emphasize that efforts to control corruption can increase the levels of trust with the ability of the state institutions to reliably and equitably enforce the rules of trade and the law. Tangible results will not be immediately apparent, however over time, the reduction in corruption can increase investment and productivity in entrepreneurship and innovation.

Veracierto (2008) used game theory to demonstrate how the normal equilibrium levels of innovation in industry are disturbed in the presence of bribe payments for market entry. The author notes an unusual result of the analysis where, near critical point (probability of corruption going undetected divided by the probability of detection), small increases in the corruption-related penalties and fines (as a percentage of the value gained in the deal) can influence business and government officials to act more justly, resulting in large increases in the amount of product innovation, while changes in penalties far from that critical value have no effects. (Veracierto, 2008, p. 34).

Corruption and Economy (GDP)

It is well known and documented that nations with greater wealth (i.e. GNI per capita) are less corrupt by nearly every measure (Moore, 2008, Carballo, 2009; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, 222; Hiskey, Montalvo, & Orcés, 2014; Batabyal & Chowdhury, 2015). Going into more detail, Charoensukmongkol and Sexton (2011), controlling for major macroeconomic factors and economic integration, found that local corruption tends to hurt international trade in Latin America and the Caribbean, particularly with respect to exports, which largely consist of commodities. Mo (2001) examined the means by which corruption (as measured by the 1996 CPI) affected the economic growth rate of 46 countries for the

period of 1970-1985. While the direct effect of CPI explained 11% of the impact on economic growth, other mechanisms related to corruption had greater effects: the average education of those over 25 years old explained 15%, private investment explained 21%, and political instability (assassination rate and number of changes in the government) explained 53%.

Corruption in business

Argandoña (2008) discusses the ethical considerations of making facilitating payments, paid to expedite a contract or approval. The main issues with such petty corruption is that it leads down a slippery slope; although facilitating payments may be pervasive in a country, may be a low-cost alternative to more significant costs related to delays, and may not result in any loss of reputation (particularly in countries where grand corruption is rampant), these payments help create a culture of corruption in the company and the national society, they may lead to escalated frequency or amounts of future payments, and they impair citizens' trust in official organizations. While business may be permissive with respect to small bribes to obtain something to which they are already entitled, "...they should adopt the opposite attitude, at least as a general rule, given the internal and external consequences of facilitating payments for the company, its stakeholders and society at large" (Argandoña, 2005, p. 261).

Arizabalo (2007) evaluated economic and corruption data to determine the effects which the perception of corruption had on more than 2,000 businesses in 20 Latin American countries. The author found that, after controlling for general economic factors, higher corruption (lower CPI) was a significant factor in reducing annual sales, while a high disparity in the distribution of wealth increased sales; either factor separately combined with other overall economic factors explained 40% of the variance in sales. However, when both are included together, corruption and income disparities exacerbate their negative effects, explaining an additional 7% of variance. The author concludes that the combination of corruption and income disparity in Latin America seriously discourages foreign investment in the region.

Kenny (2009) elaborates on the world-wide impact of corruption, summarizing data from the *Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Survey* (BEEPS). This survey was initially conducted in 1999 -2000 and canvassed more than 4,000 organizations within 22 transitioning Eastern European countries. He provides some specific examples:

Within infrastructure projects and operation: an estimated 5-20% of construction costs are spent in the payment of bribes.

The median firm reported paying 1-2% of revenues to illicit fees to public officials.

The top five components of the illicit payment budget of the average organization are: dealing with licenses, health and fire inspections (28%), related to taxes (18%), securing government contracts (15%); dealing with customs (12%), and facilitating connections to utilities (11%) (p. 319).

The author notes that the source of the funds is important to the magnitude of the adverse impact: building a road with cheap materials and pocketing the savings is worse than just inflating the price; however, if funds are diverted from a maintenance budget to pay an

inflated price, then the adverse economic impact from poorly maintained roads elsewhere may completely offset any benefits from the new road.

While Kenny (2008) noted that bribe payments are higher in construction than in most industries, businesses everywhere lose an appreciable amount of their revenues to illicit payments. In Mahagaonkar's (2008) survey of 3,477 businesses in developing African nations with CPI values within the range of Latin America, the average company paid 1.4% of sales in bribes, and country averages ranged from 0.1% to 4.4%.

Corruption and government

Cleary (2007) condemns corruption as "low-level terrorism" that creates fear and erodes trust in the government, courts, and police. According to Ungar (2013), a pervasive sense of impunity throughout various levels of Latin American society impedes official efforts to combat corruption: street assaults within the poorest of communities is beneath the interest of authorities, the frequent bribing of police officers by individuals is taken for granted, payoff of officials by businesses who violate state regulations is self-perpetuating, and the close relationships between elite drug-lords with their force of arms and senior political figures with their broad influence, put them both above the reach of the law. In situations like these, the typical citizen will seek protective patrons where they can, and the informal ties far outweigh trust in government officials. Moore (2008) found that across 17 Latin American countries, countries perceived as less corrupt (higher CPI) were those with more reliable rule of law, greater confidence in governmental institutions, and less burdensome regulations, while less participation in corrupt activities was only related to less administratively burdensome laws.

Considering the justice system, Salzman and Ramsay (2013) evaluated the factors which affected an individual's confidence in the court systems in 10 Latin American countries, including nearly all of Central America as well as Columbia, Chile, and Uruguay from South America. Based on 2006 data from the *Latin American Public Opinion Project* (LAPOP) which included approximately 10,000 individuals, the researchers found that confidence in the lower courts in their country was greatly improved if the individual generally supported political institutions and approved of strict enforcement of the law. Confidence was much lower if the individual had a general perception of corruption in the courts, and was moderately lower if he had better political knowledge, was older, and had fewer material possessions. Actual experience in the courts (including actual corruption) was not related to confidence, nor was actual objective quality of the judicial system; in essence, perception is more important than fact.

The police force is perhaps the most visible aspect of government influence on the common citizen. Sabet (2013) reported that the higher the percentage of people in a country who reported paying a bribe the lower is the confidence in the police. Investigating 14 cities in Mexico, greater dissatisfaction with the police was related to being solicited for a bribe and the individual's perception of general insecurity within their city and of personal insecurity, while general confidence in institutions reduced their dissatisfaction with police. Along with other factors, these explained 20.5% of the variance. However, police are likely to continue taking payments. Referencing a study he conducted the year prior, Sabet (2013) noted that the police internal affairs departments of four Mexican cities were ineffective in combatting pervasive corruption, citing such excuses as the lack of public reporting of incidents and lack

of resources and authority to address corruption. Interestingly, although failure to report the observance of an act of bribery is officially grounds for dismissal from the police force in Mexicali, there was not a single case of an officer reporting another for bribery.

Fried et al. (2010) found that class distinctions were a factor in police officers soliciting bribes due to a linkage back to corruption in the judicial system. The authors conducted an experiment in Mexico City and found that police officers inconsistently enforce many traffic laws but once an officer does stop a driver, behavior differences based on class distinctions clearly arise. Although not statistically significant due to the low sample size ($n = 42$), officers are possibly more likely to demand a bribe from poorer individuals (seven out of eight) and let richer individuals off with a warning (only seven out of thirteen solicited). In a follow-up qualitative survey of 10 officers, all stated that they were more lenient with upper-class drivers out of fear of repercussions, either from the driver's influence with the officer's superiors or fear of the driver's influence with the courts if the officer wrote a ticket.

Morrison and Conaway (2006), in their book *Kiss, Bow, or Shake Hands*, provide warnings to business travelers regarding petty corruption on the part of police in Argentina and Mexico and civil administrators in Honduras and Panama, but point out the strict anti-bribery stance of Chile.

Impact of corruption on individuals

While aggregate national assessments of corruption are important, it is perhaps more important for focusing anti-corruption efforts to evaluate the effects corruption has on segments of the population and individuals themselves, who will be the employees and customers of international business ventures.

Corruption is widely understood to have a disproportionate effect on the poor and the young (Hodess & Wolkers, 2004; Fried, Lagunes, & Venkataramani, 2010). Carballo (2009) evaluated corruption and economic data from 18 Latin American countries and found that the magnitude of corruption's hold on the poor depended on the magnitude of the problem. Lower corruption as measured by CPI and other means resulted in fewer people below the \$4/day poverty line; however, the relationship was a logarithmic one, where a change in corruption level had less of a beneficial effect in countries with the highest level of poverty.

Morris (2008) examined the relationship between two methods of measuring corruption: perception, such as the CPI and GCB, and participation/victimization, such as Transparencia Mexicana's *Índice Nacional de Corrupción y Buen Gobierno [National Index of Corruption and Good Government]* (INCBG) and LAPOP. In a national level analysis, several perception metrics were found to be strongly interrelated but not correlated with participation metrics; Costa Rica, for example is perceived to be relatively clean but actual participation was as high as in other countries, while Paraguay and Argentina are reputed to be among the most corrupt but actual participation is less than Costa Rica (Morris, 2008; Carballo, 2009). Overall, the perception of corruption is higher than actual instances of victimization (Seligson, 2013). In a survey of more than 1,500 people in Mexico, although more than half of respondents had not paid, or even seen someone else pay, a bribe to police or other public official, more than 81% felt that corruption was very or somewhat generalized, while actual personal experience with corruption only increased the portion with this perception to 86% (Morris, 2008, 399-400).

Morris (2008) found that more affluent, younger, males were more likely to participate or observe the payment of bribes. Similarly, Parboteeah, Bronson and Cullen (2005) and Lavena (2013) both reported that willingness to justify ethically suspect behaviors as reported in *World Values Survey* (WVS) data was correlated with younger, less educated males. An earlier WVS study across 28 nations found that individual managers showed a greater willingness to justify ethically suspect behaviors if they were younger, married or previously married males (Cullen, Parboteeah, & Hoegl, 2004).

Corruption and Culture

Hofstede's cultural dimensions

With respect to Hofstede's dimensions of culture, greater national wealth is strongly related to higher Individualism of the country, and due to the changes in the relationship over time, wealth begets Individualism rather than the other way around (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 132). Poorer countries (implying lower Individualism) had higher levels of corruption as measured by the CPI. When he evaluated only the thirty wealthiest countries in his dataset, Hofstede et al. (2010, p. 222) found that among wealthy nations, CPI was strongly correlated with Uncertainty Avoidance. Reporting Shane's 1993 findings, countries with higher Uncertainty Avoidance were slower at innovation (Hofstede et al., 2010, 211).

Husted (2002), referencing Hofstede, analyzes the culturally influenced likelihood that recent conventions against corruption signed by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the Organization of American States (OAS) will be effective in Latin America. Based on the high Power Distance culture in Latin America, he believes that policy alone will have little effect on corruption unless a country is led by a very strong president. The relatively high level of Uncertainty Avoidance is manifested by a proliferation of regulations, rules and laws, many of which are ignored in practice as they are regarded as unenforceable. Latin American countries tend to be very collectivistic (low Individualism) which is reflected in the role that family and close friends play in daily life; therefore, taking care of the family in-group may justify actions at the expense of the larger out-group. This leads to his insight that punishing corruption in Latin America with means of social shame (e.g. jail time) may be more effective than fines; however, high Masculinity may imply the opposite.

Cultural norms for ethically-suspect behaviors

Lavena (2013) evaluated *World Values Survey* (WVS) data at the individual level to determine factors which would lead to greater willingness to justify ethically suspect behavior in five Latin American countries. Country alone explained 5% of the variance in corruption permissiveness: Mexico, Brazil, Chile, and Guatemala were more permissive, while Argentina was less. Demographic factors explained another 1.8%. General societal permissiveness (e.g. homosexuality, divorce, abortion) and lack of national pride explained an additional 4% of the variance. Interestingly, the study found no effect from an individual's general trust of other people nor believing that God is important in one's life affected corruption permissiveness.

Cullen et al. (2004) reported that measures of institutional anomie (industrialization's erosion of individual adherence to cultural and social norms) were significantly related to

individual manager's willingness to justify ethically suspect behavior based on WVS data. The study also found that managers who attend religious services at least once per week were less likely to justify such behaviors. Parboteeha et al. (2005) found that wealthier individuals were less likely to justify questionable behaviors, and each of the six GLOBE cultural dimensions were significant predictors, but overall religiosity of the society was not significantly related.

Methods to Reduce Corruption and its Impact

Training for employees on self-efficacy and internal locus of control

Aremu, Pakes and Johnson (2011) conducted a quasi-experimental study of 300 Nigerian police officers to compare the effectiveness of anti-corruption training focused on internal (self) locus of control (L/C) vs. external (fate) and on self-efficacy (S/E) beliefs (ability to achieve vs. effort doesn't matter) on ethical behavior (EB), considering the moderating effect of emotional intelligence (EI). Participants were assigned by city to three groups: a control group from one city received no additional training, and two experimental groups each received six weeks of anti-corruption training based on L/C in one city and S/E in another. Compared to the control group, both experimental groups showed reduced tendency to participate in corruption activities (EB scores), showing that training with respect to L/C and S/E are both effective. Additionally, those with high EI showed statistically better improvement than those with low EI.

Improved enforcement of policy and regulations

Tillen and Ellis (2009) presented results of a September 2008 survey of more than 200 executives in Latin America relating to business-related corruption.

Nearly 50% of all respondents consider corruption a significant obstacle.

Almost 70% believe that they have lost business to competitors who paid bribes.

14% (Chile) to 77% (Mexico) of executives believe customs agencies are corrupt.

Only 18% believed anti-corruption laws are effective, while more than 30% felt that no individual, company, or government official would be punished for bribery.

However, 55% say that their company maintains anti-corruption safeguards, 66% say that efforts have increased in the previous five years, and 82% say that their company has taken at least some steps toward reducing corruption risk.

Veracierto's (2008) game theory model of bribe payments suggests that stiff fines are needed to discourage illicit payments, and that they must be set based on the ability to detect an inappropriate decision by an official. For instance, if government inspection has a 5% probability of detecting that a deal was influenced through bribes, the payer and official combined should be fined 19 times the value of the deal; if the probability were 10%, the necessary amount is only 9 times the value of the deal. For policy makers, this concept can be used to justify the costs of enforcement based on the economic impact costs of turning a blind eye, while for corporations it emphasizes the benefits of ethical transparency. Tillen and Ellis (2009) recommend that American companies who do business in Latin America thoroughly vet potential partners, select only the most reputable, and require anti-corruption clauses in contracts, particularly considering that the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act (FCPA) is enforced in the United States.

Other broad-based approaches

Although international businesses may not be in full control of some societal methods of reducing the impact of corruption, they may be able to leverage aspects of their employees' religiosity and technological capabilities.

Cleary (2007), a Dominican priest, reports that the Catholic Church has made and continues to make substantial efforts to fight corruption. The Latin American Conference of Bishops (CELAM) in 1997 released its *Declaración ética contra la corrupción* [Ethical declaration against corruption], which was followed by various national efforts led by their bishops, such as Cardinal Archbishop Oscar Rodríguez, of Tegucigalpa, Honduras. He directed the efforts against the national issue of corruption following Hurricane Mitch, not only from the altar, but as chair of the national commission on corruption, a position he took when no one else would. Within two years, more than half a million citizens had participated in the commission's programs. Further evidence of the value of faith was shown by Cullen et al. (2004), as they found that managers were less willing to justify ethically suspect behaviors (WVS) if they attended religious services more often than once per week.

Kock and Gaskins (2014) advocate that policy makers should strongly consider initiatives that broaden internet access in their countries, as a means for greater accountability and therefore lower corruption. Analyzing data from the World Bank for 24 Latin American and 23 sub-Saharan African countries annually from 2006 to 2010, they noted that high Internet diffusion (measured as the number of users per 100 inhabitants) was associated with greater levels of voice and accountability, which was then associated with lower levels of government corruption (CPI), explaining 69% of the variance in CPI after controlling for GDP and Hofstede's initial four cultural dimensions. Versi (2011) noted that mobile phone recording of government officials making land deals with peasants has reduced petty corruption by half; many of the official who had lied about the value of a person's land in order to get it for a lower price have been put into prison.

MEASURES

Corruption

Surveys are an essential tool for the development, implementation, and monitoring of national economic policies, particularly as those policies must account for interactions between four economic dimensions: growth, distribution of wealth, quality of government institutions, and the political/values system of the society (Herrera, Razafindrakoto, & Roubaud, 2007). Transparency International, providing the most widely cited survey-based measures of corruption, was founded in 1993 with a purpose "to stop corruption and promote transparency, accountability and integrity at all levels and across all sectors of society" (Transparency International, n.d.).

Corruption Perception Index (CPI)

The annual CPI report (Transparency International CPI, n.d.) has been produced since 1994. Annually, a panel of non-resident experts as well as resident and non-resident business leaders reviews source data which come from multi-national surveys and expert (generally peer-reviewed) reports obtained within the most recent three year period. Individual country

scores are interlaced using statistical processes to produce an index scale from 0 (highly corrupt) to 10 (very clean) (Lambsdorff, 2004). The scale was changed in 2012 to allow year-over-year comparison (0 = *highly corrupt* to 100 = *very clean*) (Transparency International, n.d.). This study includes 86 of the 146 countries in the 2004 CPI for world-wide cultural comparisons, and 19 countries of the Americas for correlation with GCB and/or WVS data.

Global Corruption Barometer (GCB)

Transparency International began using direct individual survey data in 2003 to produce the GCB (Transparency International GCB, n.d.). Except for 2003, each annual survey has asked respondents to measure the level of corruption by sector of society (including justice/courts, police, business, and civil registrations/permits sectors, among others) and personal impact (if anyone in the respondent's family had paid a bribe in the previous 12 months). Several other questions have been asked over the years, but for corruption correlations in this study, only the results from the above questions are used. For cultural analyses, this study uses the 2004 GCB, which includes 52,682 respondents in 63 countries, selected by quota or random sampling, were surveyed between July and September, and asked five questions with several sub-questions for each. In a handful of countries, authorities did not allow interviewers to ask one or more questions so there are gaps in the data (Transparency International GCB, n.d.). For economic and corruption correlations, the study uses all available GCB data after the 2003 inaugural year (2004-2007, 2009-2010, and 2013).

In 2003 - 2006, GCB respondents are asked to rate the magnitude of various problems on their society. Petty/Administrative corruption which is pervasive in daily life (e.g. bribes paid for licenses, traffic violations, etc.) was rated as a major problem by 45% of respondents world-wide in 2004, but was not as great an issue as Grand/political Corruption (e.g. leading political elites, major companies, etc.) which was rated as a major problem by 57% of respondents. Corresponding sectors of society, Political parties (4.0) and Parliament/Legislature (3.7), were rated world-wide as the most corrupt sectors. When considering the impact of corruption on three spheres of influence, corruption was rated to have a greater impact in the Americas than the world in every major category of influence: Political life (3.3 vs. 3.1 for world), business environment (3.1 vs. 2.95 world), and personal and family life (2.7 vs. 2.3 world) (Hodess & Wolkers, 2004). For the purposes of this study, the focus will be on the more common impacts of corruption, namely: Justice/Courts, Police, Business, and Civil sectors, and the Payment of Bribes, which are available within every GCB study since 2004.

World Values Survey (WVS)

In support of social scientists and policy makers, The World Values Survey association, headquartered in Stockholm, Sweden, documents the beliefs, values and motivations of people throughout the world (World Values Survey, n.d.). Since commencing the first wave of surveys in 1981, the WVS has now conducted six waves, interviewing nearly 400,000 respondents in almost 100 countries which contain almost 90% of the world's population. The same questionnaire is used for every country within each wave, although some countries may prohibit specific questions or have them modified. Data is available to

individually categorize participants by employment status and role, religious practices, and various ethical stances including acceptance of bribes. As suggested as follow-on research in Stanfill et al. (2015), this study uses aggregated data from 37,519 WVS participants (28,743 from Latin America and 8,776 from North America) to evaluate the relationships between individual-level characteristics and corruption within a country.

Economic Strength of Countries

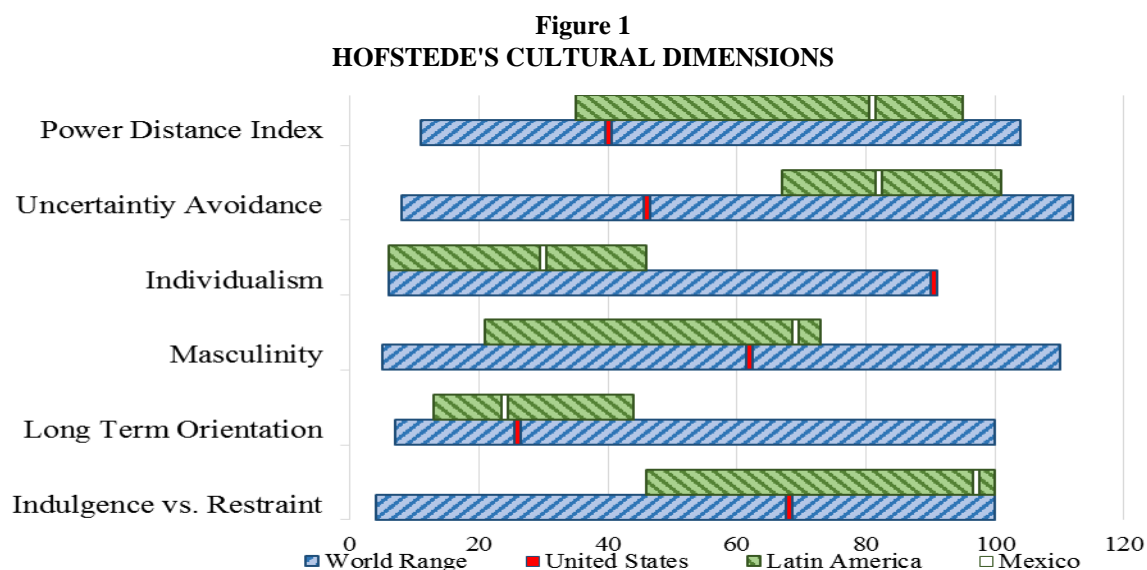
Gross National Income per capita (GNI)

Since many studies report that corruption is strongly correlated to national wealth, corresponding annual GNI per capita, expressed as current \$US in thousands, was used as a control for these corruption analyses. Cultural analyses were controlled based on the 2005 GNI.

Culture

Hofstede's cultural dimensions

Based on research conducted between 1967 and 1978, Hofstede (1983) identified that matched-sets of employees in different countries tended to answer basic questions differently, reflecting differences in their value systems. Based on data from 50 countries, he defined four dimensions of national culture, all relatively independent of one another: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism, and Masculinity. As more data became available from the *World Values Survey* (WVS), two more scales were identified, Long-term Orientation and Indulgence vs. Restraint, primarily to account for unique attributes of Asian cultures (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Hofstede et al. (2010) report values at the societal (typically national) level as index values and hierarchical ranking. This study uses the index values for comparisons; ranges for Latin America and the world are provided in Figure 1.



GLOBE

The GLOBE Project (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) set out to build on Hofstede’s work by developing a new survey to measure national culture. They involved many experts to generate a list of cultural attributes, align them with cultural dimensions, and then build and validate an instrument which they subsequently used for an unprecedentedly massive global study. The team defined nine cultural dimensions and measured their alignment with practices (As-Is) and values (Should-Be) (House et al., 2004, 30-37). GLOBE reports values at the societal (typically national) level for culture As-Is and culture Should-Be (House et al., 2004, 742-747); while they were reported in Stanfill et al. (2015), the results are not reported here due to the lack of additional insights over those provided by Hofstede’s (2010) dimensions.

The GLOBE Project also defined six Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theories (CLTs). House et al. (2004, 675, 682, & 714) report values for the Should-Be CLTs for each of the 62 countries in which they conducted surveys, and the GLOBE team reported the As-Is CLTs for CEOs a sub-set of the countries in a later study (House, Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, & Sully de Luque, 2014, 229-238); both are used in this study. Ranges for Latin America and the world are compared in Figure 2 and Figure 3.

Figure 2
GLOBE Cultural Leadership (As-Is)

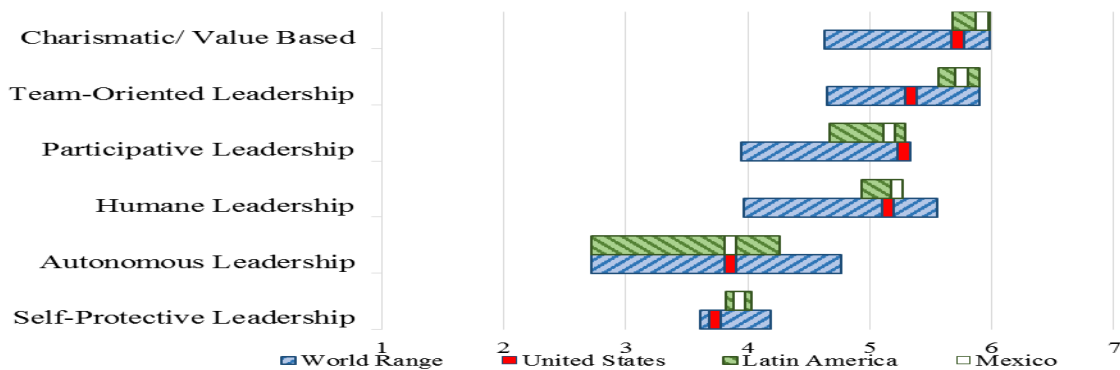
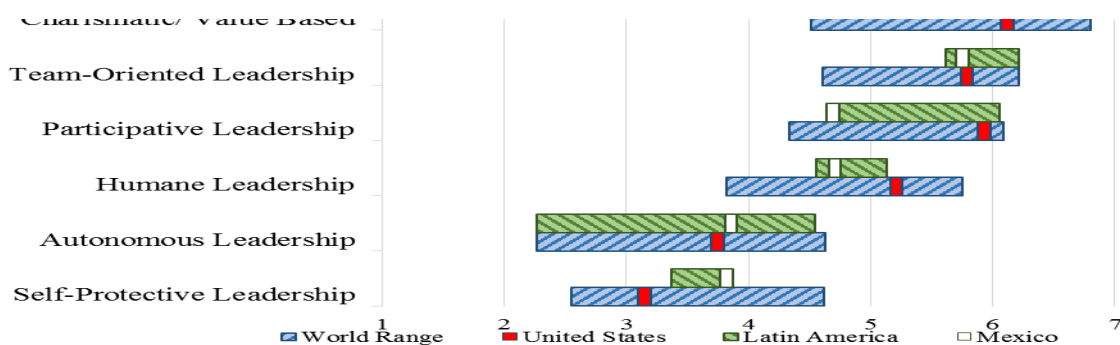


Figure 3
GLOBE Culturally Implicit Leadership Theories (CLT)



METHOD

Country-level analysis

Economy and Corruption

Annual corruption and economic data from 2002-2014 (Transparency International CPI, n.d.; Transparency International n.d.; The World Bank, n.d.), were added to a file in SPSS v23. Only available data for the countries of the Americas was evaluated: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Columbia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. As not all countries participated in each survey, comparisons were performed with missing data removed pairwise.

Culture and Corruption

National-level corruption data from 2004 (Transparency International CPI, n.d.), economic data from 2005 (The World Bank, n.d.), and cultural data (Hofstede et al., 2010; House et al., 2014) were added to a file in SPSS v23 for 78 countries which had at least one set of paired measures available. The same Americas subset was evaluated with the exception of the Dominican Republic, Nicaragua, and Paraguay and the addition of Jamaica. Missing data was removed pairwise.

Individual Values and Corruption

The above-listed annual data for Latin America only (the United States and Canada were removed so as not to introduce cultural effects) was rolled up by country and groups of years to yield a single value for each variable for comparison to the three WVS waves. In order to have the greatest number of data pairs available, GNI, CPI, and GCB results from 2005 were grouped with WVS wave 4 (1999-2004), 2010 was grouped with wave 5 (2005-2008), and 2013 and 2014 included with wave 6 (2010-2012). Individual WVS responses were either averaged for a country when well distributed across multiple values or taken as the percentage of individuals responding at the end of scales when extreme values were deemed to be more meaningful.

To examine if there are behaviors, values, and other characteristics exhibited by leaders or the population within the Latin American culture which are related to the various measures of corruption, WVS values were aggregated nationally to indicate some of those characteristics. Leaders were identified by three methods:

1. Those reporting they supervise someone (3,784 respondents, waves 5 and 6)
2. Those working in a management, owner or military job (3,389, waves 4 and 5)
3. Those reporting working in a public institution (2,342, waves 5 and 6)

Values were determined for the population as a whole and for the leader categories for:

1. *Acceptance of Ethically Questionable Actions*. Average response (*never – always*) for when is it justifiable to falsely claim government benefits, skip paying a fare on public transport, cheat on taxes, and accept a bribe).

2. *Strict Refusal of Ethically Questionable Actions*. Percentage of respondents answering *never* to all four of the above questions.
3. *Education Level*. Average on a seven-point scale from none to incomplete and complete levels of primary, secondary and university education.
4. *Happiness and Satisfaction with Life*. Average of rescaled Feeling of happiness and Satisfaction with your life.
5. *Satisfaction with Financial Situation*. Average of Satisfaction with financial situation of household.
6. *Importance of Faith in God*. Average of rescaled Religion importance in own life, Religious faith as an important child quality, Considering self a religious person, God's importance in own life, and Attending religious services at least weekly (Cullen et al, 2004).
7. *Respect for Others*. Average of Tolerance and respect for other people and Unselfishness as important child qualities.

Values were determined only for individuals in the leader categories for:

1. *Work Ethic*. Average of Importance of work in own life, and Important child qualities of Hard work, Feeling of responsibility, and determination/perseverance.
2. *Freedom and Control*: Average of how much Freedom of choice and control in own job.
3. *Full Empowerment*: Percentage answering *Complete* for Freedom of choice and control.
4. *Independence*: Average of how much Independence in the tasks for own job.
5. *Full Independence*: Percentage answering *Complete* for Independence.

RESULTS

Corruption and Economy

As expected, this study confirmed previous researchers (Carballo, 2009; Hofstede et al., 2010, 222; Hiskey et al., 2014; Batabyal & Chowdhury, 2015) in finding that CPI correlated very strongly with national wealth in the Americas (Table 1). Richer countries are less corrupt: CPI ($N = 246$, $r = .73$, $p < .01$), GCB Justice ($N = 85$, $r = -.70$, $p < .01$), GCB Police ($N = 85$, $r = -.74$, $p < .01$), GCB Civil ($N = 85$, $r = -.43$, $p < .01$), and GCB Payment of Bribe by a family member within the previous year ($N = 85$, $M = 17\%$, $r = -.51$, $p < .01$). Only GCB Business was not correlated.

		GNI	CPI	GCB Justice	GCB Police	GCB Business	GCB Civil	GCB Avg.	GCB Pay Bribe
GNI	Correlation	1	.726**	-.698**	-.738**	.014	-.427**	-.637**	-.514**
	N	247	246	85	85	85	85	85	82
CPI	Correlation	.726**	1	-.704**	-.844**	-.050	-.580**	-.748**	-.603**
	N	246	246	85	85	85	85	85	82
GCB Justice	Correlation	-.698**	-.704**	1	.828**	.247*	.621**	.890**	.593**
	N	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	82
GCB Police	Correlation	-.738**	-.844**	.828**	1	.195	.644**	.892**	.639**
	N	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	82
GCB	Correlation	.014	-.050	.247*	.195	1	.198	.435**	-.109

Business	N	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	82
GCB Civil	Correlation	-.427**	-.580**	.621**	.644**	.198	1	.831**	.538**
	N	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	82
GCB Avg	Correlation	-.637**	-.748**	.890**	.892**	.435**	.831**	1	.585**
	N	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	82
GCB Pay Bribe	Correlation	-.514**	-.603**	.593**	.639**	-.109	.538**	.585**	1
	N	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

When controlling for GNI per Capita (Table 2), CPI was most strongly correlated with the GCB Police sector ($r = -.64, p < .01$), followed by Civil ($r = -.45, p < .01$) and Justice ($r = -.36, p < .01$). Payment of Bribes was also correlated with CPI ($r = -.38, p < .01$). By evaluating Latin America alone to remove the disproportionate effect of North America's greater individual wealth, the correlations were only slightly more moderate (Table not shown): GCB Police ($N = 71, r = -.54, p < .01$), Civil ($r = -.44, p < .01$), and Payment of Bribes ($N = 68, r = -.33, p < .01$). GCB Justice was no longer significant. Overall, these are particularly strong correlations considering that 50% correlation between different instruments surveying the same concept is about the best that is commonly possible (Hofstede et al., 2010, 254). For this reason, only the more common CPI measure will be used for corruption when comparing to national culture.

		CPI	GCB Justice	GCB Police	GCB Business	GCB Civil	GCB Avg	GCB PayBribe
CPI	Correlation		-.361**	-.638**	-.090	-.446**	-.527**	-.375**
	df		79	79	79	79	79	79
GCB Justice	Correlation	-.361**		.647**	.366**	.479**	.803**	.377**
	df	79		79	79	79	79	79
GCB Police	Correlation	-.638**	.647**		.288**	.540**	.807**	.447**
	df	79	79		79	79	79	79
GCB Business	Correlation	-.090	.366**	.288**		.232*	.577**	-.128
	df	79	79	79		79	79	79
GCB Civil	Correlation	-.446**	.479**	.540**	.232*		.803**	.405**
	df	79	79	79	79		79	79
GCB Avg	Correlation	-.527**	.803**	.807**	.577**	.803**		.384**
	df	79	79	79	79	79		79
GCB PayBribe	Correlation	-.375**	.377**	.447**	-.128	.405**	.384**	
	df	79	79	79	79	79	79	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Corruption and Culture

Corruption and Hofstede's dimensions of culture

Power Distance was found to be the strongest contributor to CPI for the world-wide sample ($N = 55, \beta = -.54, \Delta R^2 = .52, p < .01$) which is consistent with Husted (2002), but

contrary to his view, Individualism partially offset the effect ($\beta = .29$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p < .05$) (Table 3), meaning that more Individualistic societies were somewhat less corrupt than would have been expected based on Power Distance alone; Husted surmised that collectivism would lead to disparity between in-groups and out-groups.

Additionally, this study confirmed Hofstede et al (2010) with a slightly stronger correlation between economic wealth and Individualism ($N = 64$, $r = .68$, $p < .001$) (Correlation table not shown). Therefore, controlling by GNI per capita, which accounts for 70% of the variance in CPI ($\beta = .65$, $\Delta R^2 = .70$, $p < .001$), the effect of Individualism was insignificant and the Power Distance had a lesser impact on CPI, explaining only 11% of the remaining variance after wealth was considered ($\beta = -.27$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$) (Table 3).

For the Americas, without considering economic factors, corruption was due to a different set of cultural values (Table 3): Individualism (previously noted to be a surrogate for or by-product of wealth) led to lower rates of corruption and accounted for 38% of the CPI variance ($\beta = .90$, $\Delta R^2 = .38$, $p < .01$), followed by Masculinity contributing to greater corruption ($\beta = -1.02$, $\Delta R^2 = .20$, $p < .01$), and the new Indulgence dimension offsetting to reduce corruption ($\beta = .71$, $\Delta R^2 = .18$, $p < .05$), being perhaps another indicator for national wealth. When compensating for the confounding effect of national wealth by controlling for GNI per capita ($\beta = .90$, $\Delta R^2 = .43$, $p < .001$), the Individualism effect goes away, leaving Masculinity explaining 63% of the remaining variance in CPI ($\beta = -.96$, $\Delta R^2 = .36$, $p < .01$) and Indulgence again offsetting and explaining another 15% of the remainder ($\beta = .45$, $\Delta R^2 = .08$, $p < .05$).

Dimension	Worldwide		Americas		Worldwide			Americas		
	β	Adj. ΔR^2	β	Adj. ΔR^2	β	Adj. ΔR^2	Rmg ΔR^2	β	Adj. ΔR^2	Rmg ΔR^2
GNI per Capita / 1,000	Uncontrolled				.65**	.70		.90**	.43	
Power Distance Index	-.54**	.52			-.27**	.03	.11			
Individualism/Collectivism	.29*	.04	.90**	.38						
Masculinity/Femininity			-1.02**	.20				-.96**	.36	.63
Indulgence vs. Restraint (WVS)			.71*	.18				.45*	.08	.15
<i>N</i> / Adj. R^2	55	.56	11	.76	54	.73		11	.87	

**Significant $p < .01$ (2-tailed), * Significant $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed)

GLOBE CLT (Value) Dimension	Worldwide		Americas		Worldwide			Americas		
	β	Adj. ΔR^2	β	Adj. ΔR^2	β	Adj. ΔR^2	Rmg ΔR^2	β	Adj. ΔR^2	Rmg ΔR^2
GNI per Capita / 1,000	Uncontrolled				.71**	.76		.54*	.74	
Self-Protective Leadership - CLT	-.59**	.45	-.85*	.70	-.27**	.04	.17	-.46*	.09	.35

Team Oriented Leadership - CLT	-.49**	.05	-.32*	.09						
Charismatic/Value-Based - CLT	.33*	.03								
<i>N / Adj. R²</i>	62	.52	14	.79	62	.80		15	.83	
GLOBE Leadership As-Is Dimension	β	<i>Adj. ΔR^2</i>	β	<i>Adj. ΔR^2</i>	β	<i>Adj. ΔR^2</i>	<i>Rmg ΔR^2</i>	β	<i>Adj. ΔR^2</i>	<i>Rmg ΔR^2</i>
GNI per Capita / 1,000	Uncontrolled				.62**	.84		.55**	.89	
Self-Protective Leadership - As Is	-.86**	.72	-.91*	.96	-.40**	.07	.47	-.53**	.10	.91
Humane Oriented Ldrship - As Is								.10*	.01	.09
<i>N / Adj. R²</i>	21	.72	8	.96	21	.92		8	1.00	
**Significant $p < .01$ (2-tailed), * Significant $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed)										

Corruption and GLOBE's Leadership Values and Practices

Only three of the eighteen GLOBE Second-order Leadership Factors (House et al., 2004) were correlated with higher corruption levels (Correlation table not shown): higher Self-Protective CLT Should-Be ($r = -.72, p < .01$), higher Self-Protective Leadership Practice As-Is ($r = -.86, p < .001$), and lower Participative Leadership Practice As-Is ($r = .47, p < .05$). Since CLT Should-Be (Values) dimensions (House et al., 2004) represent desires rather than actual behaviors which would impact national results, the focus of this discussion is on the latter (House et al., 2014), although regression results of both are reported (Table 4). When controlling for national wealth, GNI per capita explained 84% of the world-wide variance in CPI ($\beta = .62, \Delta R^2 = .84, p < .01$) and Self-Protective Leadership As-Is predicted 47% of the small amount of remaining variance ($\beta = -.40, \Delta R^2 = .07, p < .01$); both explained slightly more in the Americas, with GNI per capita ($\beta = .55, \Delta R^2 = .89, p < .01$) being the largest contributor and Self-Protective Leadership As-Is explaining nearly all the remaining variance ($\beta = -.53, \Delta R^2 = .10, p < .01$). Humane Oriented Leadership As-Is made a small offsetting contribution ($\beta = .10, \Delta R^2 = .01, p < .05$); however, this is noted with caution due to the small sample size ($N = 8$) for the Americas.

Corruption's Impact on the Individual

Corruption sectors and impacts on the individual

The Global Corruption Barometer (GCB) asks respondents to measure corruption impact by sector of society (e.g. justice/courts, police, business, civil registrations/permits), and directly (if anyone in the respondent's family had paid a bribe in the previous 12 months). As previously discussed, economic wealth, as measured by the GNI per Capita, was moderately to strongly correlated with all corruption measures except for GCB Business (Table 1). Within Latin American countries only, this effect may not be as great (Table 5). GCB Police sector was the only significant sector contributing to CPI, when ignoring GNI ($N = 71, \beta = -.60, \Delta R^2 = .36, p < .01$) and when controlling for GNI ($\beta = -.53, \Delta R^2 = .25, p < .01$), which itself had a lesser impact ($\beta = .22, \Delta R^2 = .15, p < .05$). For the payment of bribes, both uncontrolled and controlled cases are very similar and the GNI control is not significant: the percentage of people paying bribes in Latin America is driven by perceived corruption in the Police and Civil sectors ($N = 68, \beta_{\text{Police}} = .33 - .40, p < .01, \beta_{\text{Civil}} = .27 - .31, p < .01$,

$\Delta R^2_{Combined} = .25 - .27$), with an interesting offsetting contribution of lower perceived corruption in the Business sector ($\beta = -.28 - .29$, $\Delta R^2 = .06$, $p < .01$).

Table 5
REGRESSION ANALYSES FOR INDIVIDUAL EFFECTS
FROM CORRUPTION IN SOCIETAL SECTORS

Sector	CPI		Paid Bribe		CPI			Paid Bribe		
	β	Adj. ΔR^2	β	Adj. ΔR^2	β	Adj. ΔR^2	Rmg ΔR^2	β	Adj. ΔR^2	Rmg ΔR^2
GNI per Capita / 1,000	Uncontrolled				.22*	.15		-.13	.04	
GCB Police	-.60**	.36	.40**	.22	-.53**	.25	.29	.33**	.07	.07
GCB Business			-.29**	.06				-.28**	.05	.06
GCB Civil			.27*	.05				.31**	.17	.18
<i>N</i> / Adj. R^2	71	.36	68	.32	71	.39		68	.33	

**Significant $p \leq .01$ (2-tailed), * Significant $p \leq 0.05$ level (2-tailed)

Corruption relationships with individual values

The WVS contains questions asking participants their level of confidence with various sectors of society on a four point scale (1 = *complete confidence* to 4 = *no confidence*). This study utilized the aggregated responses of those questions, with the average indicating sector Lack of Confidence, and the percentage reporting little or no confidence as sector Distrust for four questions: Justice System/Courts (waves 5 and 6 only), Police, Major Corporations (for Business), and Civil Services. These results correlated very strongly with the corresponding GCB sectors for both the Americas and Latin America only (Table 6), with Justice and Police sectors having the strongest alignment ($r_{Justice} = .79 - .83$, $p < .01$, $r_{Police} = .76 - .84$, $p < .001$), Civil moderately correlated ($r_{Civil} = .58 - .61$, $p < .05$), and Business was the weakest ($r_{Business} = .50 - .58$, $p < .05$). There were some cross-sector correlations, but they were generally weaker.

Table 6
PARTIAL CORRELATIONS BETWEEN WVS, GCB, AND CPI MEASURES OF CORRUPTION,
CONTROLLING FOR INCOME PER CAPITA / 1,000

Correlations <i>n</i> (Countries)	Latin America Only						Latin and North America					
	CPI	GCB Pay Bribe	GCB Justice	GCB Police	GCB Business	GCB Civil	CPI	GCB Pay Bribe	GCB Justice	GCB Police	GCB Business	GCB Civil
Lack of Confidence Justice			.83** *			.63*			.79** *			.62*
			13			13			16			16
Percent Distrust Justice			.82** *		.62*	.62*			.80** *			.61*
			13		13	13			16			16
Lack of Confidence Police	-.76** *			.80** *		.59**	-.80** *		.55**	.84** *		.63* *
	21			19		19	26		24	24		24
Percent Distrust Police	-.68** *		.55*	.76** *		.64**	-.75** *	.43*	.63**	.81** *		.64* *

	*					*					
	21	19	19		19	26	23	24	24		24
Lack of Confidence Business								.45*		.51*	
								24		24	
Percent Distrust Business			.54*		.50*			.54**		.58**	
			19		19			24		24	
Lack of Confidence Civil			.56*		.58*		.48*	.58**	.55**		.61*
			19		19		23	24	24		24
Percent Distrust Civil			.61**		.60**		.44*	.65**	.52*	.49*	.61*
			19		19		23	24	24	24	24

*** Significant $p \leq 0.001$ (2-tailed). ** Significant $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed). * Significant $p \leq 0.05$ level (2-tailed).
Note – Shaded cells indicate anticipated conceptual alignment between GCB and WVS surveys.

Corruption relationships with societal characteristics

For Latin America, higher levels of corruption (lower CPI) were associated with a higher importance of faith within the population ($r = -.56, p < .05$) and surprisingly, a greater level of happiness ($r = -.46, p < .05$) and satisfaction with own financial situation ($r = -.48, p < .05$) (Table 7). Despite the higher level of corruption, those same attributes were associated with less distrust of business ($r_{Faith} = -.57, p < .01$; $r_{Happy} = -.68, p < .001$; $r_{Finance} = -.48, p < .05$), perhaps indicating a relative preference for the private over the public sector. People were more likely to have paid a bribe in countries where there was a greater acceptance of ethically questionable behaviors ($r = .55, p < .05$) and fewer people strictly refusing such behaviors ($r = -.53, p < .05$). The general acceptance of those behaviors was also related to a greater distrust of the police ($r = -.46, p < .05$). Finally, the better the overall education level of a country, the greater the distrust in the courts ($r = .71, p < .01$).

Corruption relationships with leader characteristics

Considering both those individuals who reported being in a supervisor role (Sup) and those who reported working in a job with management authority (Ldr), higher levels of corruption (lower CPI) were associated with leaders having a greater sense of freedom of choice ($r_{Ldr} = -.81, p < .01$), complete empowerment ($r_{Ldr} = -.87, p < .01$), complete independence ($r_{Sup} = -.65, p < .05$), and more satisfaction with their financial situation ($r_{Ldr} = -.70, p < .05$). Conversely, there was less distrust with business (WVS) when leaders were happier ($r_{Sup} = -.73, p < .01$; $r_{Ldr} = -.71, p < .05$), had a stronger faith in God ($r_{Sup} = -.74, p < .01$), and felt greater freedom and control in their jobs ($r_{Sup} = -.56, p < .05$). Businesses and courts were generally perceived as more corrupt (GCB) when leaders advocated a lower work ethic ($r_{Ldr} = -.79, p < .05$) but had a higher education level ($r_{Sup} = .62 - .65, p < .05$). Police were perceived as more corrupt when leaders felt fully empowered ($r_{Ldr} = .76, p < .05$) and fully independent ($r_{Sup} = .63, p < .05$), as well as being less trusted when leaders felt fully independent ($r_{Sup} = .57, p < .05$; $r_{Ldr} = .95, p < .05$).

Corruption relationships with public employee characteristics

Public servant values play a significant role in the trust in business. Distrust is lessened when public employees are happier ($r = -.66, p < .05$), have a strong faith in God ($r = -.59, p < .05$), and have greater freedom in their jobs ($r = -.55, p < .05$), including feeling fully empowered ($r = -.56, p < .05$), but consideration must be given to the caveat that religious faith of public employees is generally higher in countries which are more corrupt ($r = -.60, p < .05$) which is consistent with the population as a whole as well. Additionally, while increased authority for public servants results in better outcomes for business, it has adverse impacts on police corruption ($r = -.46, p < .05$) and increased payment of bribes ($r = -.46, p < .05$). When public employees are more accepting of ethically questionable behaviors, trust is lower for the courts ($r = .65, p < .05$) and police ($r = .71, p < .05$), and the general public pays bribes more often ($r = .65, p < .05$).

Table 7
PARTIAL CORRELATES OF CORRUPTION MEASURES WITH VALUES AND CHARACTERISTICS, CONTROLLING FOR INCOME PER CAPITA / 1,000

Correlation <i>n</i> (Countries)	CPI	GCB Pay Bribe	GCB Justice	WVS Justice	GCB Police	WVS Police	GCB Business	WVS Business	GCB Civil	WVS Civil
WVS Characteristics of the Total Population.										
Acceptance of Ethically Questionable Actions		.55* 17			.49* 18					
Strict Refusal of Ethically Questionable Actions		-.53* 17								
Education Level				.71** 15						
Happiness and Satisfaction with Life	-.46* 21							-.68*** 21		
Satisfaction with Financial Situation	-.48* 20	.61* 17						-.48* 20		
Importance of Faith in God	-.56* 21							-.57** 21		
WVS Characteristics of Individuals stating that they supervised others.										
Strict Refusal of Ethically Questionable Actions		-.70* 11								
Education Level			.62* 12	.68* 13			.65* 12			
Happiness and Satisfaction with Life								-.73** 13		
Importance of Faith in God								-.74** 13		-.64* 13
Freedom and Control								-.56* 14		
Full Independence	-.65* 14				.63* 12	.57* 14				
WVS Characteristics of Individuals in a Job characterized by Leadership.										
Happiness and Satisfaction with Life								-.71* 10		
Satisfaction with Financial Situation	-.70* 10									
Work Ethic			-.79* 9				-.79* 9			
Freedom and Control	-.81** 10	.78* 9								
Full Empowerment	-.87** 10	.73* 9			.76* 9					
Full Independence						.95* 5				
WVS Characteristics of Individuals working in Public Organizations.										

Acceptance of Ethically Questionable Actions		.65* 12	.61* 12		.71* 12					
Happiness and Satisfaction with Life									-.66* 15	
Importance of Faith in God	-.66* 15								-.59* 15	
Importance of Respect for Others		.60* 13								
Freedom and Control									-.55* 15	
Full Empowerment									-.56* 15	
Full Independence		.64* 12			.69* 12					

*** Significant $p \leq 0.001$ (2-tailed). ** Significant $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed). * Significant $p \leq 0.05$ level (2-tailed).

DISCUSSION

Findings and Recommendations

These findings confirm the generally understood relationship between corruption and the national wealth of countries around the world as well as within the Americas (Carballo, 2009; Hofstede et al., 2010, 222; Hiskey et al., 2014; Batabyal & Chowdhury, 2015): wealthy nations are generally perceived to be less corrupt, while poor countries are all plagued with corruption in many sectors. Also, a small number of actual instigators of corrupt activities can affect a larger number of victims and distort the perceptions of corruption for the majority of a nation's citizens (Carballo, 2009; Morris, 2008; Seligson, 2013). This magnifying effect causes a pervasive opinion that corruption cannot be reduced – laws are unenforceable, perpetrators are uncontrollable, and instigators are untouchable (Tillen & Ellis, 2009). Therefore, the lack of trust in governmental and business ethics stifles innovation that is needed to improve the economy as a whole (Mo, 2001), and protect the efforts of international corporations who consider investing in a country (Arizabalo, 2007).

This study confirmed a cultural association between corruption and Individualism as tied to economic wealth (Hofstede et al, 2010), and Power Distance in the world-wide sample (Husted, 2002). In the Americas, however, this study found that Masculinity and Indulgence explained as much variance in CPI as economic wealth. The influence of an assertive attitude was also seen in the relationship between the general sense of corruption and payment of bribes and Latin American leaders' sense of empowerment. However, attitudes and behaviors can be changed with time and consolidated effort. Several approaches to reduce the victimization and perception of corruption, particularly in the business sector, merit further research.

Training for government employees on self-efficacy

As noted by Aremu et al. (2011), specific training to encourage self-efficacy may reduce the fatalistic perception that ethical practices cannot be implemented in already corrupt societies, and can reduce at least the stated intent to condone illicit payments at the lowest levels. However, this study finds that a sense of empowerment and independence, particularly in the extreme, increases the public perception of corruption and payment of bribes. Because citizens are personally impacted most commonly by police, judicial, and civil functionaries, research should evaluate the feasibility of a concerted effort to empower

government employees to combat business corruption while also instilling a sense of accountability, considering the potential side effects on general and police corruption.

Religious support

The Catholic Church is a powerful but underappreciated resource for the fight against corruption. While the religiosity of large cross-sections has not been shown to have a clear impact on corruption, this study found that the population of more corrupt countries, especially Latin American countries, generally has a stronger faith in God. There are individual-level examples (Cleary, 2007) that demonstrate that a deeply embedded faith will lead to more ethical decisions, and this study confirms Cullen et al. (2004) in finding that increased religious faith on the part of managers, particularly for public servants, may lead to more ethical behavior. International businesses operating within Hispanic nations should allow the religious aspects of their workers' lives to be evident in the workplace. Identifying a potential business partner who practices his faith on a regular basis may reduce the risk of encountering ethically questionable dealings.

On a macro level, future research should examine how religiosity or spirituality is related to the values and actions of critical sub-groups of society, such as government employees (typically seen as the instigators of petty corruption) and business leaders (responsible for decisions largely unseen by the general public). Studies should evaluate how church leaders can collaborate in efforts to change attitudes and improve the level of integrity at all levels of society.

Technology for individual empowerment

As suggested by Kock and Gaskins (2014) and Versi (2011), mobile technology and Internet use is a powerful means to provide opportunity for improved voice and accountability – it levels the playing field with respect to levels of credibility and social class. Although not specifically addressed in this study, using technology to ensure transparency and accountability in business transactions may dissuade an otherwise empowered and independent partner from taking advantage of a foreign associate. Larger scale research should examine how programs for improved computer access and literacy can be leveraged to enhance the enforcement of existing anti-bribery and anti-corruption laws.

Improved enforcement of policy and regulations

Although confidence in Latin American governments' ability to enforce existing standards of ethical behavior is not high, there have been some increased efforts of late (Tillen & Ellis, 2009). Research such as that of Veracierto (2008) may be useful in justifying greater enforcement efforts: large fines alone may not be effective if the ability to detect corrupt behavior is low; however, improving the capacity for detecting illicit factors in business and government dealings may make even lower fines effective. This study found little evidence that leader financial satisfaction was related to corruption, so the imposition of fines in Latin America may not be a significant driver of behavior. Additional research should be directed toward evaluating and comparing the anti-corruption effectiveness of fines, public shame as suggested by Husted (2002), or proactive application of international standards of business ethics by multinational managers doing business in Latin America.

A key consideration for companies operating within Latin America is that the typical North American reliance on the legal enforceability of contracts is not likely to work well south of the Rio Grande. Similar to previous researchers (Fried et al., 2010; Moore, 2008; Salzman & Ramsay, 2013; Ungar, 2013), this study found that distrust in the judicial systems in Latin America was indirectly related to all aspects of corruption. Although the GCB Justice perception of corruption was not a significant direct contributor to CPI or payment of a bribe, it was significantly correlated with CPI and every other GCB measure presented here, as well the WVS measures for distrust in all four sectors: justice, police, business, and civil. Instead of relying on signed contracts alone, international business seekers should leverage the Latin American cultural importance of personal trust-based relationships. However, business partners should be aware that the personal relationship will not limit the manager's freedom to choose to operate the business in compliance with international laws and the highest of ethical standards.

Limitations and Next Steps

This study evaluated relationships between data from several sources at a relatively high level and from a variety of perspectives: relatively old global CPI data from 2004-2009 was used in order to better align with the timing of the GLOBE survey; data from both North and Latin America was utilized for CPI and GCB comparisons; and data was restricted to Latin America alone for WVS comparisons with CPI and GCB. Now that conceptual linkages between culture and the various corruption measures have been quantitatively supported for Latin America, future research should examine corruption relationships from a more consistent source and time perspective, be it at a world-wide, regional, national, or individual level. The annual Transparency International surveys and the five-year-cycle World Values Survey data can be utilized for very detailed analyses, however extensive data scrubbing and alignment efforts will be needed due to the restrictions and modifications to question content imposed by the governments of some nations.

Implications for Doing Business in Latin America

The North American Anglo-based culture is extremely Individualistic while the Latin American cultures are much more Collectivistic; therefore, while Americans and Canadians have little problem speaking up in the face of treatment perceived to be unfair, Hispanics are more likely to accept unofficial methods as a reasonable means to avoid trouble and speed up or bypass cumbersome administrative transactions. But the ethical risk faced by international companies operating in the Latin American private sector is perhaps not as great as the risk faced by local employees from the pervasive petty corruption and bribe payments allowed by police and civil functionaries in the public sector. This study found that when business leaders and public officials feel more freedom and control in their jobs and greater independence in the performance of their duties, there is greater trust in the proper conduct of business but lesser confidence in those trusted to serve the public interest. Multinational executives seeking to identify ethical Latin American business partners should look for individuals who value hard work but are happy and satisfied with life, empowered but do not represent themselves as all-powerful, and independent but still recognize a level of personal accountability to a higher authority.

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THE GLASS CEILING PHENOMENON- DOES IT REALLY AFFECT WOMEN'S CAREER ADVANCEMENT IN MALAYSIA?

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ABSTRACT

As Malaysia sees more women participating in the labour force, the number of women at top management level is still considerably low. Studies which discuss this issue generally attribute this scenario to the "glass ceiling" phenomenon which refers to the barriers that women may face in their career progression in their organisation. Glass ceiling can be divided into two categories in this study: personal challenges that consist of demographic factors, family commitment and family support; and work challenges that consist of organisational culture and career advancement opportunities. This exploratory study aims to identify whether the demographics of working women have an effect on women's career progression. The study also examines the main challenges women may face in their career progression in Malaysia. Using purposive sampling and quota sampling techniques, 300 working women were given a self-administered questionnaire. Using descriptive analysis and cross-tabulation analysis, it was found that three demographic factors have an effect on women's career progression while family commitment, organisational culture and career advancement opportunities are the main challenges which form the "glass ceiling" that hinder women's career progression in Malaysia. Policy implications include a pertinent call for mindset change among the corporate sector and society at large.

INTRODUCTION

Female participation in the labour force increased to 54.1% in 2015 compared to only 46.8% in 2010 (Department of Statistics, 2015). As Malaysia moves towards becoming an industrialised nation, the expansion of the financial and services sectors have created new job opportunities for all Malaysians including women in the urban economic areas. In recent years, the issue is no longer about female labour force participation but about more about women's positions at the management level and at decision-making level. They are still under-represented in top management and decision making posts in both the public and private sectors (Grant Thornton International Business Report, 2015). As women are empowered, due to better access to education, better potential for their career advancement is expected, but the number of women at top management level is still very low.

Malaysia has the most organisations without any women in senior management roles within ASEAN, with a study showing that almost one in three was bereft of women in such positions. According to a survey by Grant Thornton (2015), "The number of businesses without women holding senior leadership positions in Malaysia has been on an increase ever since year 2012 (21 per cent to 31 per cent)." The same survey also showed that only 26 per cent of people in the senior management in Malaysia consist of women which is still the lowest

among other ASEAN countries. Despite the encouragement by the government and the prime minister's call to see women making up 30 per cent of the boards of all public companies, and also initiatives such as the launch of the 30 per cent Club in 2015, the results of the survey clearly shows that lack of women in leadership is still an issue this year. (Malay Mail, 7 March 2016).

The low representation at top management posts could be caused by barriers due to personal reasons such as family responsibilities, family support or demographic factors such as age, education and marital status. Besides, the barriers could also be due to work challenges such as organisational culture and career advancement opportunities such as promotion opportunities, training, selection and recruitment methods. This phenomenon has been termed as the "Glass Ceiling" (GC) refers to barriers women face as they try to climb the corporate ladder. The Glass Ceiling sometimes refers to invisible barriers or artificial barriers women face that hinders them from progressing past a certain level. (Federal GC Commission [FGCC], 1997).

According to Ellen Teo the CEO of Union Energy in Singapore, "Asian culture hasn't matured enough to accept the fact that women can hold a job and also have a family." (Grant Thornton International Business Report, 2015).

This study attempts to understand the low number of women at management level in the public and private sector in Malaysia by examining whether there is a link between the challenges women face and their career progression to top management posts. Using descriptive analysis, this exploratory study tries to examine whether the Glass Ceiling phenomenon exists in the country. And if the phenomenon does exist, whether it is due to personal challenges or work challenges.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Labour market discrimination exists if individual workers who have identical productive characteristics are treated differently because of the demographic groups to which they belong. Smith (2006) said that gender discrimination in the labour market is alleged to take two prominent forms. First, women sometimes are suspected to earn less by the employers although they have the same experience, and work under the same conditions in the same occupations and this is labeled as wage discrimination. Second, women with the same education and productive potential are seen as shunted into lower-paying occupations or levels of responsibility by employers who reserve the higher paying jobs for men and this type of discrimination is called occupational discrimination. Occupational discrimination is the type of discrimination that is relevant to this study as women try to enter top management, they face some challenges and gender inequality.

Studies have identified several main factors or barriers that hinder women's ascent to top positions and decision making levels in an organisation. Some of the main barriers are responsibilities that women have towards family, cultural barriers between religious and racial matters, negative stereotype and leadership styles, and organisational culture in the workplace among co-workers and colleagues (Blair-loy, 2009; Clark, 2000; Hoobler et al., 2011; Schein, 2001). All of these barriers that hinder women's career advancement can be best described as "glass ceiling".

According to Aminah (2012), there has been an increasing trend for graduate intake, enrollment and output in Malaysia. A significant increase was recorded annually starting from 2002. Access to the graduate studies was enhanced by flexible modes of study such as distance learning, modular approach, and research mode either full time or part time. Religion is one of the factors that can hinder women's intention to enter top management. The fact that

Malays are Muslim may have limited the rate of participation of Malays in the economy (Omar, 2004). In terms of family responsibilities, women may be disadvantageous beyond a certain level in the hierarchy where they are expected to give 100% commitment to the organisation (Mavin, 2001). Kelly and Marin (1998) found that most organisations will look less favorably to hire married women to hold top management positions compared to women who are single. According to Subramaniam et al. (2010), as women's participation in the labour force increases, alternative working arrangements have become a necessity to ensure that work and family life does not become incompatible.

According to Keene and Reynolds (2002), due to family and job responsibilities, women managers are at a disadvantage since family needs more attention. The participation of married women in the labour market is largely based on getting help from family members or doing it by themselves, rather than relying on policy schemes in Korea (Sung, 2003). Women are sometimes considered unsuitable for senior management positions due to the assumptions that they have different characteristics that affect their leadership. Achievement orientation, forcefulness, and strength in decision-making are the attributes that are regularly suited to males and these characteristics are considered essential in fulfilling the managerial roles (Gray, 2001).

Although women have moved forward, negative attitudes and stereotyping women managers still exist in many organisational cultures. A common stereotype is "think the manager, think male", which means success in a male characteristic (Schein, 1996). Organisational culture is one of the major challenges that have an important impact for women's career progression (Wohlbold & Chenier, 2011).

The main issue that will be discussed in this study is the lack of female representation at top management level. The discussion moves around the challenges due to the glass ceiling effect that may lead to under-utilisation of human resources in the labour market. Therefore, the focus of this study is to identify main challenges that may influence women's intention to enter top management and whether they are due to personal challenges or workplace challenges

METHODOLOGY

A total of 400 working women in the Klang Valley, the administrative and business hub of Malaysia, were selected using the purposive sampling technique. A self-administered questionnaire was given through the electronic system as well as face-to-face. However, only 300 usable questionnaires were collected within a time frame of six weeks. A pre-test was done to check questionnaire comprehension and to correct any ambiguity.

The questionnaire had five main sections. Section A had questions on personal and family background; Section B had question on reasons for career advancement and challenges that prevent women from career progression where respondents were required to tick against three main reasons; Section C had 4 items on organisational culture; Section D had 7 items on perception towards selection, promotion, recruitment and transfer, and Section E had one dichotomous question to answer the dependent variable, "Do you have any intention to enter top management positions as your career advancement?" Sections D and E used a Likert scale of 1-4, where 1 means strongly disagree and 4 means strongly agree.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 summarises the demographic profile of the respondents. Most of the respondents were young women below 30 years old, with more than a half of them (54%) in the age group

of 19 to 29 years old. Hence they probably have been in the workforce for less than 10 years. In terms of educational level, they were highly educated with more than a half of them (54%) having obtained a bachelor/postgraduate degree. These young and highly educated working women may not have intentions towards career progression. However, nearly 60 per cent of them were married, which could pose a problem in balancing between work and family. A majority of the women in this study were Malays (65%) while the balance were Chinese and Indians. A majority (75%) of the respondents were working in the private sector while the remaining were working in the public sector.

Most of the women (35%) were concentrated in the administrative and secretarial positions followed by retail and customer service (18%) and professional positions (17%). It was noted that less than 20 per cent of the respondents worked as managers or senior officers. This could be possibly due to the respondents' young age. Another notable point is that even though more than half of the respondents possess a minimum of one degree, only 5 per cent of them earned an income of above RM5000. In terms of household income, only 14 per cent of the respondents' household monthly income was less than RM2000. Whereas, nearly 60 per cent of them had a monthly household income of above RM2000 – RM5000 which was expected as most of them were highly educated and worked in the private sector.

		Frequency	Percent (%)	p-values
Age	Below 30 years	163	54	0.251
	30-40 years	115	38	
	Above 40 years	22	7	
Ethnicity	Malays	196	65	0.585
	Chinese	56	19	
	Indian	48	16	
Marital status	Married	175	58	0.969
	Single	125	42	
Educational Achievement	Below SPM	2	1	***0.001
	SPM	46	15	
	STPM/Diploma	90	30	
	Degree/Postgraduate	162	54	
Working sector	Private sector	225	75	*0.128
	Government sector	75	25	
Job category	Manager or senior officer	47	16	***0.001
	Professional	52	17	
	Associate Professional & Technical	27	9	
	Administrative & Secretarial	104	35	
	Skilled trades	3	1	
	Personal services	12	4	
	Retail & Customer service	55	18	
Total household income	Below RM2,000 (Low income)	42	14	0.649
	RM2,001-RM5,000 (Middle income)	177	59	
	Above RM5,000 (High income)	80	27	

Total personal income	Below RM2,000 (Low income)	112	38	*0.088
	RM2,001-RM5,000 (Middle income)	171	57	
	Above RM5,000 (High income)	16	5	

*significant at 10%;

** significant at 5%;

*** significant at 1%

1USD is equivalent to RM4.03

A simple question was posed to the respondents to gauge their interest whether they were interested to enter top management as their career progression. And the results were very encouraging as shown in Table 2, where nearly 80 per cent of the respondents answered positively.

A further cross tabulation showed that the respondents who were higher educated, earned a middle range of income (RM2000-RM5000) and worked in the private sector were more interested to enter top management as their career progression.

Table 2
Intentions to Enter Top Management as Career Progression

Intentions To Enter Top Management	Percentage (%)
No	22
Yes	78
Total	100

In response to the reasons why women wanted career advancement, nearly 75 per cent of the respondents cited economic independence as their main reason. Table 3 below shows ambition and sense of achievement were only secondary reasons.

Table 3
Reasons For Women’s Career Advancement

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage (%)
To have economic independence	221	74
To support family	56	19
To have a sense of achievement	16	5
Ambitious person	7	2
Total	300	100

Next, this paper seeks to identify the challenges women face in career progression to top management. This section posed several questions on family and workplace challenges women faced in their daily lives which may be a threat to their career progression. Table 4 shows that a majority of the respondents (42%) identified childcare/family responsibilities as the main reason that prevented them from career progression (42%), followed by gender discrimination (24%) and lack of support from husband (11%). This shows that family challenges supersede workplace challenges faced by the respondents in their career progression. Carnes & Radojevich (2011) found that working mothers fail to provide

themselves with the opportunity to break out the glass ceiling phenomenon due to the reason of opting out to meet their family responsibilities. This findings is also supported by another study which highlighted that spousal support is one of the biggest influencers for a working woman's career opportunity (vannoy-Hiller&Philiper,1991).

As women are sometimes unable to juggle many roles and responsibilities as a mother, daughter and wife they may tend to choose to remain in the same position without any progression in the workplace. In addition, the organisations also require their managers to be flexible to the needs of business. As a result, ambitious women need to make a choice between family and work to avoid conflict between the same. Studies have shown that women managers are sometimes at a disadvantage since family needs more attention (Kang and Reynolds, 2002). Structural barriers make it difficult to combine work and family and hence constrains women's promotional opportunities.

The second main reason cited was gender discrimination at the workplace. Gender discrimination might arise in many ways such as wage discrimination, promotion discrimination or treatment among co-workers in the organisations.

Table 4
Family and Workplace Challenges that Prevent Women From Career Progression

Challenges	Percentage (%)
Having childcare/ Family responsibilities	42
Gender discrimination at workplace	24
Lack of support from husband	11
Fixed working hours	8
Lack of support from family	6
Low salary	5
Unavailability of Flexible Working Arrangement (FWA)	3
Others	1
Total	100

Women's perception towards organisational culture was based on 4 items measured using a 4-point Likert scale to determine whether organisational culture affects the respondents' intentions to enter top management. Table 5 shows that most of the factors have a mean score above 3.00. This indicates that most of the respondents felt that organisational culture affects their career progression as they felt better when they are accepted and treated well in the organisation. Respondents who feel secured and accepted in the organization will have more confidence to move on to top management and become a leader in the organisation. This findings is supported by Wohlbold & Chenier (2011) who found that organisational culture is one of the major challenges that have an important impact on women's career progression.

However, Table 5 shows that even though the respondents were treated equally and had a positive relationship with the co-workers in the workplace, they still did not get enough respect from their co-workers. This conforms to a past study done by Omar (2004) where it was found that although women are readily accepted at top management as a leader in the workplace, they still experience prejudices to climb the managerial hierarchy.

Table 5
Respondents' Perception On Organisational Culture At The Workplace

Perception On Organisational Culture	Mean	Standard Deviation
I have positive relationship with my co-workers.	3.31	0.555
I feel more secure.	3.05	0.534
The cultural and emotional climate of the organisation is generally positive and supportive.	3.02	0.513
My co-workers treat me with respect.	1.96	0.188

(Items were measured using a 4 point Liker scale. 1 refers to strongly disagree and 4 refers to strongly agree)

Table 6 shows the mean value for respondents' perception towards selection, promotion, recruitment, transfer and training offered in their organisations. These items determine whether discrimination and barriers occur at the workplace. The mean value shows that most of the factors have a low mean of below 2. It indicates that there may be an issue of glass ceiling with regards to promotion, training, opportunities and benefits at the workplace which may hinder their career progression.

While Table 5 shows that women had a good relationship with their co-workers and supervisors at the workplace, Table 6 shows an entirely conflicting scenario when it comes to promotion and training opportunities. This conforms to previous studies which show that women in middle management in Malaysia still face the "glass ceiling" phenomenon, and their work environment inhibits promotion to top management and entails several barriers such as lack of organizational support that includes networking, mentoring and family friendly initiatives (Dimovski et al., 2010).

Table 6
Female Perception Towards Selection, Promotion, Recruitment And Training Opportunities at the Workplace

Female perception towards selection, promotion, recruitment, transfer and training	Mean	Std. Deviation
Opportunities are provided for women to gain experience at higher levels.	1.88	.326
Women are given equal access to transfer opportunities.	1.86	.345
Women are encouraged to undertake management/supervisory training.	1.86	.345
All interview panels include at least one woman.	1.79	.407
Where women's representation is low, advertising has been targeted to attract female applicants.	1.78	.416
Employees on maternity leave/paternal leave and other leave are kept informed of vacancies or other opportunities within the institution.	1.76	.427
Promotion and transfer opportunities are available for all employment categories including part time and fixed term employment.	1.72	.449

(Items were measured using a 4 point Liker scale. 1 refers to strongly disagree and 4 refers to strongly agree)

Thus, the descriptive analysis shows that demographic factors, family and workplace challenges, and promotion and training opportunities play an important role in women's career progression. The results in this study assert that women generally received encouragement from their superior and relationship between the co-workers were good. As women continue to make strides in the workforce, it is important that they are equipped to

succeed and have equal opportunities for advancement. When thinking about establishing a career path, it is important for individuals and organisations to establish relationships with one another. However, the findings show the lack of the equal opportunities.

CONCLUSION

Based on this exploratory study, the main conclusions which can be drawn are: firstly, most women are interested to enter top management as their career path; secondly, women want to move up the career ladder for economic reasons more than ambitious reasons; thirdly, there is a positive link between educational attainment, personal income and, work sector and career progression: fourthly, personal challenge in the form of family responsibilities pose as a challenge for women's career progression; finally and most importantly, there still exists pervasive forms of gender bias at the workplace in terms of promotion and training opportunities. The findings conclude that both personal challenges and work challenges among the respondents exists.

The most pertinent implication of this study is that decision makers both at the corporate level and government level should design policies which are gender neutral for promotional and training opportunities. Management should change their mindset and prejudices and not be gender bias in their promotional activities. To overcome the family challenge of juggling home and work, organisations should facilitate flexible working arrangements and other family friendly policies. A more urgent mindset change which is pertinent is to stop stigmatising men who share household responsibilities

While the government has achieved its target to have at least 30 per cent women in decision making positions by 2015 with an achievement of 37 per cent, this target falls short in the corporate sector. For instance, in the public listed companies it has only reached 15.6 per cent. Malaysians still face a greater challenge of altering societal attitudes towards working women.

Future research should study a bigger sample and focus on women in the 30 to 40 years age group to identify the barriers the women face to enter top management.

As Malaysia moves towards achieving an industrialised nation status and female students constituting more than 70 per cent of students in the universities, it is critical that a more strategic approach be taken by the corporate sector to encourage more women in their career progression. By leveraging on women's acquired human capital investment and talent, the employees, the organisation and the nation stand to win. If the "glass ceiling" effect is not critically handled, it may lead to under-utilisation of human resources in the labour market.

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