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WHO'S A LEADER? STUDENTS' IMPLICIT THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

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ABSTRACT

Students enter undergraduate business curriculums with preconceived notions regarding key areas of management practice. Until concepts are formally introduced, and perhaps even afterwards, students will use their existent notions to color, filter and interpret the world and their studies. In this exploratory empirical study we attempt to identify students' preconceived notions or 'implicit theories' of leadership. We asked 270 students to list male and female leaders and indicate why they considered each person a leader. The leaders were then coded into several categories such as political, military, and entertainment. Analysis of the data revealed relationships between the categories and the reasons why a person is considered a leader. There were also gender effects, both on the part of the subjects (male vs. female subjects) and in their answers (male vs. female leaders). Several explanations for the resulting patterns of responses are proposed and suggestions are made for further research.

INTRODUCTION

When students enter a business curriculum they already have some knowledge in many of the key conceptual areas. In some areas the phenomenon is more pervasive than in others. For example, students are far more likely to be aware of advertising campaigns than financial statement analysis. Generally, management and marketing have more areas of study and concepts that students are already familiar with than accounting, finance and economics. The role and effects of preconceived notions in business education is an under-researched area. The expertise and experience of older students and those with a substantive work history is valued for what it brings to the classroom and how it bridges the gap between theory and practice. However even students without much work experience have ideas regarding many topics.

Organization researchers have often noted the effects of corporate or societal culture on effectiveness, efficiency, turnover, recruiting and many other organization issues (Shaw, 1990). The culture provides a lens through which events and situations are interpreted (Cantor & Mischel, 1979). Society also plants expectations and normative prescriptions as to how to interpret situations and how to behave.

IMPLICIT LEADERSHIP THEORIES

One area that has received some degree of attention in this regards is leadership. The basic premise is that individuals have an ‘implicit theory' as to what ideal leader characteristics and behaviors are (Philips & Lord, 1981). They use this implicit theory of leadership as perceptual filter to help them recognize and evaluate leaders and leadership (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987; Lord, Foti, & DeVadar, 1991). Our primary research question is, when students enter their first management course, who do they think is a leader and what is their rationale? Our follow-up question is, what is the source of students' leadership perceptions and opinions?

METHODS

A questionnaire was distributed to undergraduate and MBA students in class in one private college and one public university in the northeastern US. The students were in their first management course. Data was collected at two time points – year 1 and year 2. 195 students responded in year 1, and 75 in year 2. Out of those who indicated their gender in year 1, 53.6% (90) are men, and 46.4% (78) are women. In year 2, 52.9% (36) are men and 47.1% (32) are women. Difference between year 1 and year 2 in terms of gender compositions is not statistically significant (2(1) = 0.008). On average, students from the first group have statistically significantly fewer credits (F (1, 205) =8.054, p=0.005) than students from the second group (see Table 1), but the difference in full time work experience is not statistically significant. (F(1, 207)=1.844).

RESULTS

253 female leader names were named. Hillary Clinton tops the combined list, mentioned by 57% of respondents. She was followed by Oprah, Rosa Parks, Mother Theresa and Princess Diana.

Table 1
Female leaders mentioned by more than 5% of respondents.

Female Leader	Total	% of N=270
Hillary Clinton	154	57.0%
Oprah	85	31.5%
Rosa Parks	80	29.6%
Mother Theresa	66	24.4%
Princess Diana	52	19.3%
Condoleezza Rice	45	16.7%
Christine Whitman	43	15.9%

Female Leader	Total	% of N=270
Mother	42	15.6%
Harriet Tubman	35	13.0%
Madonna	22	8.1%
Martha Stewart	21	7.8%
Janet Reno	19	7.0%
Joan of Arc	18	6.7%
Queen Elizabeth	16	5.9%
Susan B. Anthony	16	5.9%
Maya Angelou	15	5.6%

327 male leader names have been suggested. The top mentioned leader was Bush with 41.9%, who was followed by MLK, Bill Clinton, Bill Gates and Rudy Giuliani.

Table 2
Male leaders mentioned by more than 5% of respondents

Male Leaders	Total	% of N=270
Bush	113	41.9%
MLK	94	34.8%
Bill Clinton	81	30.0%
Bill Gates	75	27.8%
Giuliani	62	23.0%
Washington	38	14.1%
Lincoln	32	11.9%
Michael Jordan	32	11.9%
Malcolm X	29	10.7%
Gandhi	22	8.1%
Hitler	21	7.8%
JFK	21	7.8%

Male Leaders	Total	% of N=270
Pope	20	7.4%
Collin Powell	18	6.7%
Jesus	18	6.7%
Father	17	6.3%
Donald Trump	16	5.9%
Colin Powell	15	5.6%

Leaders were coded into several categories based on the arena they were in.

Table 3 Types of Leaders		
Leader Type	Male Leaders	Female Leaders
Political	424	283
Social Causes	171	240
Business	120	44
Sports	91	21
Military	61	0
Family & Friends	61	95
Entertainer	56	190
Religious	56	84
Random Names	31	30
Authority Figures	14	6
Scientists	14	2
TV Personas	5	3
Grand Total	1104	998

The majority of both, female and male leaders are political leaders; however, women tend to cite social cause female leaders (but not male leaders) somewhat more often than political leaders.

Table 4
Type of Leaders vs. Reasons for Male Leaders

	Categories of reason for being leader					
Leader Type	Achievement	Behavior	Cause	Role	Trait	Total
Political	111	16	30	140	143	440
Social Causes	24	11	64	16	64	179
Business	61	2	4	23	41	131
Sports	39	2	4	20	33	98
Military	12	2	1	21	26	62
Family & Friends	3	8	1	21	28	61
Entertainer	28	2	11	9	19	69
Religious	12	3	15	15	10	55
Random Names	1		1	1	29	32
Authority Figures	5	3		4	2	14
Scientists	7			3	6	16
TV Personas	2	2		2	4	10
Total	305	51	131	275	405	1167

Table 5
Type of Leaders vs. Reasons for Female Leaders

	Categories of Reasons					
Leader Type	Achievement	Behavior	Cause	Role	Trait	Grand Total
Political	31	4	15	140	105	295
Social Causes	28	16	99	23	73	239
Entertainer	59	9	20	34	87	209
Family & Friends	5	16	3	21	58	103
Religious	4	1	36	3	42	86
Business	15	1	3	8	15	42

	Categories of Reasons					
Leader Type	Achievement	Behavior	Cause	Role	Trait	Grand Total
Random Names		1	1	4	22	28
Sports	7	1		11	3	22
Authority Figures		2	2		2	6
TV Personas	2			1		3
Scientists			1		1	2
Grand Total	151	51	180	245	408	1035

Some preliminary observations from comparing Table 4 and Table 5:

a) Political female leaders are primarily mentioned for the role they played, while traits were more often cited for male leaders, followed closely by the role and then by achievement

b) Cause is the primary reason why female social cause leaders are cited, but it is tied with trait for male leaders;

c) Male actors are named leaders for their achievements, while female actresses are most often cited for their traits

d) Achievement is the most important reason for male business leaders, while for female business leaders it is tied with trait.

e) Achievement is the most important reason for male sports figures, but traits for female leaders.

f) While overall, trait is the most important reason for both, men and women, the second most important reason varies: role for women, and achievement for men. The relative role of trait is even higher for female leaders cited by female students.

Table 6
Categories of reasons for male leaders, by student gender

	M	F	Total
Reason	%	%	%
Achievement	28.37%	22.04%	25.48%
Behavior	3.15%	5.61%	4.28%
Cause	9.11%	13.93%	11.31%
Role	27.15%	21.41%	24.52%
Trait	32.22%	37.01%	34.41%
Grand Total	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

Women stress trait more than men do in male leaders.

Table 7
Categories of reasons for female leaders, by student gender

Reason	M %	F %	Total %
Achievement	16.67%	11.63%	14.24%
Behavior	3.75%	6.49%	5.07%
Cause	14.79%	19.69%	17.15%
Role	27.50%	20.13%	23.95%
Traits	37.29%	41.83%	39.48%
Grand Total	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

DISCUSSION

From this descriptive exploratory study of students we can see that students identify leadership with politics and social causes. This held true for both male and female leaders, and male and female respondents. Business and sports leaders were the next most cited types of male leaders, however for female leaders respondents looked to entertainment and religion. This might be somewhat misleading because the top female leaders in these categories were Oprah Winfry and Mother Theresa, both of which are also associated with social causes.

The most cited reasons why leaders were chosen were because of their traits they possessed and the roles or positions that they held. Specific behaviors were rarely mentioned. This shows that students' implicit leadership theories hold to a ‘leaders are born' rather than a 'leaders are made' philosophy and that leadership is associated with the position rather than the person. Although these notions are important and have some validity, it is important to emphasize to students the role of behaviors and situations in leadership. If we wish to develop leaders, we need for students to understand that leadership skills and abilities can be developed to some extent and that leadership can manifest itself outside of formal leadership positions.

Further research can examine the specific traits, roles and other reasons that individuals were cited as leaders. Another unexplored area is the perception of how leaders came to be leaders. A third direction that can prove useful is to investigate who students consider to be leaders in their own lives. It would be very interesting to see if their perception of leaders and leadership changes when it is brought ‘close to home'. Insight into these areas can guide how we design programs to develop leaders. A greater knowledge of the underlying assumptions that the students have regarding leadership gives us a baseline.

We have assessment tests for individual students and generally have an idea of the level of proficiency and knowledge a student has when entering many course of study, such as math, foreign languages, physical education. In the social sciences we are lacking in understanding the baseline perspectives and knowledge that our students bring into the class. Studying the implicit theories that students hold in leadership, motivation, teamwork and other areas relevant to management can help us design our courses to fill in the gaps and build on the foundation that already exists.

(REFERENCES AVAILABLE ON REQUEST)

THE IMPACT OF EXECUTIVE COACHING ON EXECUTIVE PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

In his 2004 article on executive Coaching, Joo presented a conceptual framework for executive coaching. Because of its complexity and the data requirements testing the model in its entirety is virtually impossible. However, it is possible to address components of the model in isolation and test their validity. The purpose of this research was to examine one of Joo's propositions:

"Proposition 1b: The academic background of a coach will define the coaching approach (counseling or consulting), and thus affect coaching process and outcomes."

Twenty four coaches from the Eastern United States reported on 35 separate coaching interventions. Seventeen of the coaching interventions were done by certified coaches whose credentials were accredited by either the International Coach Federation, or one of the many University programs now being offered in executive coaching. The remaining 18 interventions were done by coaches who had not taken certification courses.

Joo suggests the type of educational background influences coaching approaches; that is, coaches with backgrounds in psychology or with work histories in a related field use a counseling approach to coaching, whereas coaches with backgrounds or training in management or human resource development use a consulting approach to coaching. The significance of this distinction lies in the type of client with which the coach is most likely to be effective.

Sixteen of the coaching interventions were performed by coaches who used a counseling approach; nineteen interventions reflected a consulting approach as defined by Joo. Nineteen clients were described by their superiors as high potential employees for whom they believed executive coaching would help, and sixteen were described as in danger of derailing their careers because of bad habits or other issues.

Following coaching interventions lasting between 6 and 17 months, executive performance was evaluated through a surrogate measure—the percentage of potential bonus earned by the executives. An analysis of variance was performed and revealed the following results:

* *Coaches which were certified had significantly better results with their clients ($p = 0.005$)*
* *The approach to coaching (consulting vs. counseling) alone had no significant impact on executive performance ($p = 0.517$)*
* *The counseling coaching method was significantly better with those clients in danger of derailing than the consulting approach, and the consulting method yielded significantly better results with high potential clients than the counseling approach ($p = 0.002$).*

Justification and details of the study will be presented.

STUDYING RELIGIOUS ENTREPRENEURS: CHRISTIAN ENTREPRENEURS AS OPPORTUNITY EXPLOITERS, SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS, AND PROSELYTIZERS

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ABSTRACT

Religion at work is a field of study with a short history. Religious entrepreneurs can be differentiated by two drivers: the extent that success of the organization is measured by monetary rewards, and the extent that the organization's operations are guided by the owner's religion.. Using these drivers, we characterized religious entrepreneurs as exploiters of marketing opportunities – they undertake focus strategies concentrating on religious market segments, social entrepreneurs, or proselytizers. We suggest that in its quest for legitimacy and relevance (Dean, Fornaciari, & McGee, 2003), religious entrepreneurship can benefit from established methods and models from the field of social entrepreneurship.

EMPIRICAL MODELS OF MANUFACTURING SAFETY DETERMINANTS

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ABSTRACT

In any organization and culture, a safe workplace environment can improve labor productivity, reduce insurance premiums and enhance the company's ability to compete in a global market. Organizations in the U.S. experienced a decrease in the total number of fatalities from 2005 to 2006. However, lower fatality statistics were not sufficient. This study examined manufacturing safety determinants. A national survey was conducted to explore factors affecting recordable incident rates and lost time injury rates.

A conflict occurred in the empirical models. The number of training hours was an insignificant factor. This finding is contradictory to a popular belief that the number of training hours is an important factor in reducing recordable incident and lost time injury rates. In addition, the number of safety audits was significant and varied positively with recordable incident and lost time injury rates in contrast to the expected negative relationship. Through further consideration, it was determined that the number of safety audits was not a linear function of recordable incident and lost time injury rates and the anticipated significant negative correlation was affirmed. The number of fatalities had a positive impact on recordable incidents while safety infraction disciplinary action showed a negative impact as anticipated. The lost time injury rate was also inversely affected by disciplinary action.

These findings should help companies' safety programs focus on appropriate factors in order to improve recordable incident and lost time injury rates. The firm which understands the importance of proactive versus reactive safety auditing and implements an aggressive discipline policy for safety infractions should realize substantial reductions in total recordable incidents in the workplace.

DO TAIWANESE MANAGERS TRUST THEIR UNITED KINGDOM (U.K.) BRITISH EMPLOYEES? A CONSIDERATION OF TAIWANESE MULTI-NATIONAL CORPORATIONS IN THE U.K.

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ABSTRACT

Trust has been well studied in Chinese management as an important factor in managing people in Chinese communities. This paper examines Westernization and the expansion of Chinese multi-national corporations (MNCs) into the United Kingdom (U.K.). Implications for the way third-world MNCs manage their international employees are also discussed. Response data from Taiwanese-owned companies are used to identify how the Chinese cultures of value and trust impact management style in the British context. This paper finds that Taiwanese managers do bring their culture values to Britain. It is concluded that national culture is still an important factor that influences the international human resources management practises.

INTRODUCTION

Within the Chinese community, society is seen with mistrust (Redding and Hsiao, 1995). Thus, people need certain strategies - such as the concepts of guanxi and renquing - to ease the insecurity and to build trust. In Taiwan, personal trust is the first principle and fundamental mechanism that makes personal relationships work. It seems to be unfeasible for an employer to hire a top manager with whom he is not familiar. This person must be either personally known by the boss or must be introduced by a person whom the boss trusts (Orre, et. al., 1997, P.2).

However, there is no guarantee that people will be automatically trusted. It depends whether they can demonstrate their achievements in order to gain trust. This type of trust is certainly particularistic, but it is not only based upon ascribed relationships alone, but rather on achieved relationships. Certainly, persons with ascribed relationships have certain advantages in obtaining ‘personal trust,' because they have more opportunities to develop a trusting relationship. In order to obtain trust persons have to demonstrate certain qualities such as good performance. These rules are not objectified, but are usually well recognized by the people involved. Thus, the successful business relationships are only those that are based on intimate and trustworthy guanxi. "Personal trust" is a fundamental mechanism, which makes personal relationships work (Kao, 1991). Guanxi can be seen as a means to get an opportunity to build personal connection, and trust is the most important factor to establish the relationship. For example, Hsu and Leat (2000) found that friends and relatives are commonly targeted in recruitment especially in the recruitment of entry-level employees in Taiwan.

METHODOLOGY

This research utilized a qualitative research method, and data were collected between February and December 2003. The research questions were considered by Taiwanese managers in the U.K. Taiwanese managers responded from 24 out of 102 Taiwanese companies in the U.K. A total of 16 responses were received from the IT sector. Eight responses were from the financial service sector in U.K.

Questions were designed to discover the influence of the unique Chinese value of trust. Other cultural questions, borrowed from cultural theorists (Hofstede, 1980; Laurent, 1983; Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 1997), were used to test whether Taiwanese values fitted their theories, because some researchers suggest that Taiwanese employers' values are changing toward a more Western style (Sparrow and Wu, 1998; Ng and Warner, 1999 and Hwang, 1987). The outcome of cultural questions contributes to clarify the debate of convergence or divergence in management in international organisations. Strauss and Corbin (1998) identify the salient characteristics of analysis in grounded theory into three stages: 1) Open coding, 2) Axial coding, and 3) Selective coding. Grounded analysis was adopted.

DISCUSSION

Trust is the key factor to building good relationship with employees in the Taiwanese organization. It is related to issues of HRM such as job autonomy. Trust is also crucial in Sun-Tzu model of leadership, and it indicates a leader should be able to delegate power and to know how to tolerate unavoidable mistakes of his/her subordinates.

Chinese society is seen as mistrustful (Redding and Hsiao, 1995). Networking contributes to easing the insecurity and the building of trust. In Taiwan, personal trust was the first principle, and the fundamental mechanism, through which personal relationships are facilitated. It would seem to be unfeasible for an employer to hire a top manager whom he is unfamiliar. Managerial candidates must be either personally known by the boss or must be introduced by a person whom the boss trusts (Orre, et. al., 1997). Taiwanese managers intend to hire a trustworthy person and they also regard trust as an important factor in the organization. There is no guarantee that people will be automatically trusted. Such trust is dependent upon whether they can demonstrate their achievements in order to gain trust (Kao, 1991). The following excerpt demonstrates this concept:

> "I think managing people is not so difficult, just trusting them. Just trust each other. How do you let them trust you? You have to think whether you can manage it before promising your employees." (Wood co., interview with Managing director, 10th, June, 2003)

The outsider manager changes into the insider decision maker on the basis of personal trust as a significant, first principle. In order to obtain trust, persons have to demonstrate certain qualities (e.g., good performance). These rules are not objectified, but are usually well recognized by the people involved (Kao, 1991). The data authenticate that Taiwanese managers put their trust in their (British) human resources managers because they do not have enough knowledge about British industrial relations. British manager have to demonstrate their ability to gain the trust of their Taiwanese superior. The following excerpt demonstrates this concept:

> "We trust our HR professional. The work system was designed by our HR manager. Only they know their work systems so we have to trust their decision for the company's own good." (Water Co., interview with Managing director, 24, July 2003).

CONCLUSIONS

Taiwanese overseas branch managers operate on the basis of what they know (i.e., Chinese values), and are influenced by the local workforces. However, it does not cause conflict between Taiwanese and U.K. staff. Although the routes (practices) taken to get to the human resources goals are different, this lack of conflict may exist because the goals do share a degree of similarity. It is interesting to note the notion of trust is similar with job autonomy in the Western human resources management model. Therefore, the nationality effect is unlikely to cause conflict in the host country because of the resemblance of management practices.

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QUANTITATIVELY CONSIDERING STATE DEFENSE FORCE VOLUNTEERS: ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS OF COMMISSIONED OFFICERS VERSUS NON-COMMISSIONED PERSONNEL

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ABSTRACT

This research study considers the perceptions of commissioned officers versus the perceptions of non-commissioned personnel of a state defense force with respect to the volunteer organization. The use of ANOVA investigated perceptions associated with organizational visibility and recognition, military organization, response time to disasters, training programs, attrition and retention rates, recruiting, efficiency and effectiveness, and motivation and morale. The findings of the tested hypothesis statements show that two of the tested hypothesis statements (i.e., perceptions of efficiency and perceptions of visibility and recognition) demonstrated a statistically significant outcome. The remaining hypothesis tests did not demonstrate a statistically significant outcome.

INTRODUCTION

State defense forces are a supporting element of National Guard units across the United States. The volunteer members of these organizations may be called to state active duty by governors, and are paid only when called to active duty. Within the last few years, these state organizations have provided significant services during times of peril. Such organizations responded to the 1989 Alaska Recovery operations of the Exxon Valdez, and a response occurred with respect to the 1993 Tennessee tornadoes (Tulak, et. al., 2003). Tulak, et. al. Pons (1999) indicates that a response occurred with respect to the 1998 Puerto Rico Hurricane George. Belfiglio (1999) indicates that such organizations were deployed to support operations of 1998 Texas color guards, crowd control, and search and rescue. The 2001 World Trade Center attacks also necessitated a response using state defense forces (Tulak, et. al., 2003). During 2005, Hurricane Katrina also necessitated the use of a state defense force (Mississippi State, n.d.).

Numerous studies have been performed to analyze various aspects of volunteerism and volunteer organizations. Studies ranging from senior citizen and police volunteerism to behavioral studies and the motivation of volunteers exist, and are common among discussions within a myriad of disciplines (Grabowski and Penn, 2003; Finkelstein and Penner, 2004; Yeung, 2004). Relatively little information is present concerning volunteerism in the context of state guards or state defense forces. It is the purpose of this research to provide an analysis of perceptions related to the volunteer experience associated with such service through investigating a component of a state defense force volunteer service with respect to perceptions concerning the organizational entity.

METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted as a pilot study in conjunction with the personnel of a state defense force as its primary population and sample members. The data collection instrument consisted of Likert scale responses for hypothesis testing and a section for the collection of demographic data. All responses and respondents associated with this research were anonymous. The processing of data occurred through the use of ANOVA calculations. The stratification of recipient responses was accomplished through the classification of respondents into the categories of enlisted versus commissioned officer. The respondents were all active participants within the state defense force. A cumulative total of approximately 250 personnel composed the overall population. However, because this study was a pilot study, only 100 surveys were issued. A rate of approximately 38 percent was manifested with respect to the returning of the issued surveys. However, because of some complete non-responses within the returned survey instruments, a response rate of approximately 36 percent was manifested with respect to the returned surveys.

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

Because of the potential geographic and response biases and the complexity of the organizational settings, this research effort observed limitations. The area of interest for this study was confined to examining inquiries concerning the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force organization; the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member; and the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member regarding the community served. Therefore, it was outside the scope of this study to investigate any additional area(s) of application or any discrete topic. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. This research was conducted in conjunction with a state defense force located in the Southern United States. Therefore, this research may not be representative of the state defense forces of other states or regions. The host environment implemented an Army environment and setting, chain of command, and organizational structure. Therefore, this research might not be completely applicable for larger organizations that exhibit more complex infrastructures beyond the state level. Given the differences among state laws and regulations, this research may not be applicable to all state defense forces. Because the volunteer service was an Army organization, this research may not be applicable to different state defense force paradigms (e.g., Navy; Air Force; etc.).

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Each of the hypothesis statements were tested with respect to personnel perceptions regarding the organizational aspects of the state defense force. The primary areas of investigation considered perceptions of organizational recognition and visibility, military validity, response times, training, attrition, funding, coordination, retention, and recognition of individuals. The perceptions of the activities were considered via ANOVA analysis of the responses. The stratification of data involved classifying responses based on positions of commissioned officers versus non-commission personnel. The following table presents the outcomes of each of the tested hypothesis statements:

Table 1 - Hypothesis Testing Outcomes

HO	HA	F-Value	F-Critical	Significance
Organization has visibility and recognition within its state.	Organization does not have visibility and recognition within its state.	4.35	4.13	Yes
Organization is perceived as being a true military organization by its members.	Organization is not perceived as being a true military organization by its members.	0.04	4.13	No
Organization responds in a timely fashion to disasters.	Organization does not respond in a timely fashion to disasters.	0.6	4.13	No
Training programs are effective.	Training programs are not effective.	0.67	4.13	No
Attrition rate is high.	Attrition rate is not high.	0.42	4.13	No
Funding is satisfactory.	Funding is not satisfactory.	0	4.13	No
Coordination of organization is acceptable.	Coordination of organization is not acceptable.	0.03	4.13	No
Organizational retention rate is high.	Organizational retention rate is not high.	0	4.13	No
Organizational recruiting efforts are effective.	Organizational recruiting efforts are not effective.	0	4.13	No
Organization values the skills and abilities of personnel.	Organization does not value the skills and abilities of personnel.	1.01	4.13	No

Table 1 - Hypothesis Testing Outcomes				
HO	HA	F-Value	F-Critical	Significance
Organizational efficiency is acceptable.	Organizational efficiency is not acceptable.	4.14	4.13	Yes
Organizational motivation is high.	Organizational motivation is not	0	4.13	No
Organizational morale is high.	Organizational morale is not	0.14	4.13	No

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the tested hypothesis statements show that two of the tested hypothesis statements demonstrated a statistically significant outcome. The remaining hypothesis tests did not demonstrate a statistically significant outcome. The statistically significant outcomes were manifested with respect to the investigation of perceptions concerning organizational visibility and recognition within the state and with respect to the investigation of perceptions concerning acceptable organizational efficiency. Therefore, these findings suggest that personnel perceive the organization as not having visibility and recognition within its state, and that the personnel perceive the organization as having an unacceptable level of efficiency.

The remaining findings of the tested hypothesis statements did not manifest any statistically significant outcomes with respect to the ANOVA calculations. Based on the outcomes of the remaining hypothesis tests, several observations concerning personnel perceptions are noticeable. The outcomes of the hypothesis testing calculations show that personnel perceive the organization as being a true military entity, and that they perceive that the organization responds in a timely fashion to disasters. The remaining hypothesis tests also suggest that the personnel perceptions of the training programs are favored towards an acceptable level of organizational training effectiveness.

The outcomes of the hypothesis tests suggest that the organizational attrition rate is perceived as being high and that the organizational retention rate is also perceived as being high. Such notions between attrition and retention seem to be contradictory because a high attrition rate should not necessarily exist in conjunction with a high retention rate. It is the suspicion of this author that a high rate of retention may occur among a core group of committed personnel whereas a high rate of attrition may be manifested among members whose participation and tenure with the organization may exist only as short-term experiences.

The hypothesis testing outcomes suggest that personnel perceive the organization as valuing their skills and abilities. Further, the hypothesis testing outcomes suggest that personnel perceive that the levels organizational morale and organizational motivation are both high.

The outcomes of the hypothesis tests suggest that personnel perceive the organizational funding to be satisfactory. The outcomes of the hypothesis tests suggest that personnel perceive the organizational coordination as being acceptable.

An additional recommendation concerning this study is with respect to its scope and limitation as a pilot study. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. Therefore, it is recommended that a larger study be conducted to explore the outcomes associated with a larger sample size. This research was conducted in conjunction with a single state defense force located in the Southern United States. Therefore, this research may not be representative of the state defense forces of other states or regions given the myriad of differing state laws and types of disasters that necessitate the use of such defense forces. It is recommended that this study be repeated among the state guards and defense forces of different states to investigate additional hypothesis testing outcomes. A final recommendation for additional research concerns the basic hierarchical structure and nature of the state defense force. Because the volunteer service was an Army organization, this research may not be applicable to different state defense force paradigms (e.g., Navy; Air Force; etc.). Therefore, it is recommended that this study be repeated to investigate additional hypothesis outcomes that could be observed using Air Force and Naval hierarchies and organizational structures.

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VOLUNTEER SERVICE: QUANTITATIVELY EXAMINING THE ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS OF COMMISSIONED OFFICERS VERSUS NON-COMMISSIONED PERSONNEL OF A STATE DEFENSE FORCE

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ABSTRACT

This research study considers the perceptions of commissioned officers versus the perceptions of non-commissioned personnel of a state defense force with respect to the volunteer organization. The use of ANOVA investigated perceptions associated with positive community contribution, personnel burnout, expectations of the volunteer experience, rewards, promotion and advancement, obtaining time away from primary employment for emergency service and training, medical condition, family supportiveness, job satisfaction, compensation, and rank and grade. One of the hypothesis tests indicated a statistically significant outcome in that rank and grade were not perceived as being commensurate with professional skills. The remainder of the hypothesis statements did not demonstrate a statistically significant outcome.

INTRODUCTION

State defense forces are a supporting element of National Guard units across the United States. The volunteer members of these organizations may be called to state active duty by governors, and are paid only when called to active duty. Within the last few years, these state organizations have provided significant services during times of peril. Such organizations responded to the 1989 Alaska Recovery operations of the Exxon Valdez, and a response occurred with respect to the 1993 Tennessee tornadoes (Tulak, et. al., 2003). Tulak, et. al. Pons (1999) indicates that a response occurred with respect to the 1998 Puerto Rico Hurricane George. Belfiglio (1999) indicates that such organizations were deployed to support operations of 1998 Texas color guards, crowd control, and search and rescue. The 2001 World Trade Center attacks also necessitated a response using state defense forces (Tulak, et. al., 2003). During 2005, Hurricane Katrina also necessitated the use of a state defense force (Mississippi State, n.d.).

Numerous studies have been performed to analyze various aspects of volunteerism and volunteer organizations. Studies ranging from senior citizen and police volunteerism to behavioral studies and the motivation of volunteers exist, and are common among discussions within a myriad of disciplines (Grabowski and Penn, 2003; Finkelstein and Penner, 2004; Yeung, 2004). Relatively little information is present concerning volunteerism in the context of state guards or state defense forces. It is the purpose of this research to provide an analysis of perceptions related to the volunteer experience associated with such service through investigating a component of a state defense force volunteer service with respect to perceptions concerning the organizational entity.

METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted as a pilot study in conjunction with the personnel of a state defense force as its primary population and sample members. The data collection instrument consisted of Likert scale responses for hypothesis testing and a section for the collection of demographic data. All responses and respondents associated with this research were anonymous. The processing of data occurred through the use of ANOVA calculations. The stratification of recipient responses was accomplished through the classification of respondents into the categories of enlisted versus commissioned officer. The respondents were all active participants within the state defense force. A cumulative total of approximately 250 personnel composed the overall population. However, because this study was a pilot study, only 100 surveys were issued. A rate of approximately 38 percent was manifested with respect to the returning of the issued surveys. However, because of some complete non-responses within the returned survey instruments, a response rate of approximately 36 percent was manifested with respect to the returned surveys.

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

Because of the potential geographic and response biases and the complexity of the organizational settings, this research effort observed limitations. The area of interest for this study was confined to examining inquiries concerning the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force organization; the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member; and the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member regarding the community served. Therefore, it was outside the scope of this study to investigate any additional area(s) of application or any discrete topic. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. This research was conducted in conjunction with a state defense force located in the Southern United States. Therefore, this research may not be representative of the state defense forces of other states or regions. The host environment implemented an Army environment and setting, chain of command, and organizational structure. Therefore, this research might not be completely applicable for larger organizations that exhibit more complex infrastructures beyond the state level. Given the differences among state laws and regulations, this research may not be applicable to all state defense forces. Because the volunteer service was an Army organization, this research may not be applicable to different state defense force paradigms (e.g., Navy; Air Force; etc.).

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Each of the hypothesis statements were tested with respect to personnel perceptions regarding the organizational aspects of the state defense force. The primary areas of investigation considered perceptions of positive community contribution, personnel burnout, expectations of the volunteer experience, rewards, promotion and advancement, obtaining time away from primary employment for emergency service and training, medical condition, family supportiveness, job satisfaction, compensation, and rank and grade. The perceptions of the activities were considered via ANOVA analysis of the responses. The stratification of data involved classifying responses based on positions of commissioned officers versus non-commission personnel. The following table presents the outcomes of each of the tested hypothesis statements:

Table 1 - Hypothesis Testing Outcomes

HO	HA	F-Value	F-Critical	Significance
Positive community contribution is perceived	Positive community contribution is not perceived	0.91	4.13	No
Personnel perceives burnout with respect to tasks.	Personnel perceives no burnout with Respect to tasks.	3.21	4.13	No
Position is similar to expectation.	Position is not similar to expectation.	3.45	4.13	No
Volunteer position takes too much time.	Volunteer position does not take too much time.	0.14	4.13	No
Successes and achievements are rewarded.	Successes and achievements are not rewarded.	1.01	4.13	No
Satisfactory opportunity for promotion and advancement does exist.	Satisfactory opportunity for promotion and advancement does not exist.	0.76	4.13	No
Time away from work is not difficult to obtain during emergencies.	Time away from work is difficult to obtain during emergencies.	0.92	4.13	No

Table 1 - Hypothesis Testing Outcomes

HO	HA	F-Value	F-Critical	Significance
Time away from work is not difficult to obtain for training.	Time away from work is difficult to obtain for training.	0.46	4.13	No
Medical condition exists that would prohibit military service in National Guard, reserves, or active duty	Medical condition does not exist that would prohibit military service in National Guard reserves, or active duty.	0.09	4.13	No
Family is supportive of this activity of this activity.	Family is not supportive	0.47	4.13	No
Member is satisfied with volunteer job.	Member is not satisfied with volunteer job.	0.01	4.13	No
Payment for duty is just and timely timely.	Payment for duty is not just and	0.15	4.13	No
Rank and grade are commensurate with educational level.	Rank and grade are not commensurate with educational level.	2.57	4.13	No
Rank and grade are commensurate with professional skills.	Rank and grade are not commensurate with professional skills.	4.79	4.13	Yes

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the tested hypothesis statements show that one of the tested hypothesis statements demonstrated a statistically significant outcome. The remaining hypothesis tests did not demonstrate a statistically significant outcome. The statistically significant outcome was manifested with respect to the investigation of perceptions concerning whether rank and grade were commensurate with professional skills.

Based on the outcomes of the remaining hypothesis tests, several observations concerning personnel perceptions are noticeable. The outcomes of the hypothesis testing calculations show that personnel perceive a positive community contribution and that personnel perceive burnout with respect to tasks. The remaining hypothesis tests also suggest that the personnel perceptions of the volunteer experience are similar to their perceived expectations of the experience. Further, the remaining hypothesis tests also suggest that the personnel perceive the volunteer position as consuming too much time.

The outcomes of the hypothesis tests suggest that personnel perceive their successes and achievements as being rewarded. The outcomes of the hypothesis tests suggest that the personnel perceive that satisfactory opportunities for promotion and advancement do exist within the organization. The analytical outcomes also manifested some interesting results with respect to the perceptions gleaned from the hypothesis testing calculations associated with the statements of emergency service time and training time. The hypothesis testing outcomes suggest that personnel perceive difficulty with obtaining time away from work during emergencies and for training time.

The outcomes of the hypothesis tests suggest that personnel perceive the existence of a medical condition that would prohibit military service with U.S. active forces, National Guard, or reserve duties. The outcomes of the hypothesis tests suggest that personnel perceive that family supportiveness of their volunteer activity exists. Finally, the outcomes of the hypothesis tests suggest that personnel perceive the existence of satisfaction with the volunteer job.

A final recommendation concerning this study is with respect to its scope and limitation as a pilot study. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. Therefore, it is recommended that a larger study be conducted to explore the outcomes associated with a larger sample size.

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CYCLING BOOMERS A NEW RETIREMENT IDEAL

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ABSTRACT

Several large surveys have found that the vast majority of baby boomers expect to work into the traditional age of retirement. The most desired retirement structure is not a customary full-time or part-time job, as employers would desire. Instead, boomers want to cycle between periods of all work and periods of all leisure. This article will contrast traditional approaches to retirement with the new "retirement" that baby boomers desire: longer periods that cycle between work and leisure. The costs associated with sticking with the traditional approach to retirement will be discussed, and adjustments that managers can make will be outlined, including what companies can do to meet their own staffing and retention needs in this new retirement-age landscape.

INTRODUCTION

"In retirement, I look for days off from my days off." (Mason Cooley)

Jim worked for General Motors for 39 years. He describes his last five years with GM as the most exciting time of his life. With nearly two decades of experience in quality assurance, he has the kind of management skill set that can help American business stay globally competitive. Still, at age 57 GM offered him a retirement deal that was too sweet to refuse, probably to make room for younger management talent. Jim retired and moved from snowy Michigan to sunny California with the full intention of remaining retired. He played golf and helped his wife run a hobby business she had started. But after several years of retirement, Jim succumbed to pressure from his brother-in-law to run the small West Coast arm of a company that manufactures and installs custom countertops for big-box retailers. He is again having a good time at work, and thinks he might work until he's about 70 if his health remains good. He is amazed at how much need there is in small businesses for management expertise.

Jim is not unique. In fact, he is doing exactly what the largest group of baby boomers says they would like to do in retirement: cycle between periods of work and periods of leisure (The Merrill Lynch new retirement, 2005). This article will contrast traditional approaches to retirement with the new "retirement" that baby boomers desire: longer periods that cycle between work and leisure. The costs associated with sticking with the traditional approach to retirement will be discussed, and adjustments that managers can make will be outlined, including what companies can do to meet their own staffing and retention needs in this new retirement-age landscape.

TRADITIONAL APPROACH TO RETIREMENT

> "Retirement may be looked upon either as a prolonged holiday or as a rejection, a being thrown on to the scrap-heap." Simone de Beauvoir

In pre-industrial agrarian societies, retirement was (and still is) a family affair. As older family members became less capable, they continued to live on the farm, but they gradually handed their responsibilities to relatives who were younger and more fit. With the advent of industrialization, retirement became "a lot less graceful." Work was less varied and more demanding, so retirement became more appealing. People planned and saved for it, rolling their savings into ventures such as shopkeeping that were less profitable but also less severe (Morris, 1996). Gradually, the military and then other industries began to offer pensions. These were usually conservative. For example, Bismark's first state pensions in the 1880's started at age 70, which was about two decades beyond the average life expectancy at the time (Leaders: How to manage, 2006).

The retirement of recent decades where people do not work into old age is essentially a circumstantial accident. Early twentieth century social mechanisms such as pensions and Social Security encouraged retirement, and these mechanisms were expanded in scope and depth in the economic boom that followed World War II. Pensions, in particular, were considered to be a reward for "organization men" who had toiled 30 or 40 years for a single company. In the late 1800's, about 75% of American men 65 and over were still participating in the labor force. By 2000, that rate had steadily fallen to 17.5% (Short, 2002). Retirement had evolved into a "clean break" from work, where workers left and never returned.

In addition to pensions and Social Security, many of those who retired near the end of the last century benefited financially from other events: a phenomenal real estate boom, a large increase in real incomes, and an explosion in the stock market (Morris, 1996). These are not the financial situation of most retiring boomers. "The fact that our parents have basically been able to take the last chapter of their lives off, paid, is a freak occurrence, a confluence of benefits that we're not likely to see again" (Morris, 1996).

Typically, retirement is positively anticipated in the years leading up to it; workers "dream" of it. Actual retirement usually begins as an exciting and enjoyable period, but the honeymoon only lasts about a year. Feelings of loneliness, boredom, and loss of identity often follow (The new retirement mindscape, 2006). Additionally, money may be a bigger issue than the retiree initially realized. These forces are evolving retirement in a new direction. It is hard to call this period "retirement" anymore, because it is likely to include work.

THE NEW CYCLING "RETIREMENT"

> "A perpetual holiday is a good working definition of hell." George Bernard Shaw

> "Perhaps the senior boomers' biggest impact will be on eliminating the word retirement and inventing a new stage of life—one with community service at the core. They could unite with giving circles, social entrepreneurs, corporate volunteers, and full-time AmericCorps members to restore the spirit and ethic of community.

…That could indeed change America and possibly the world." Rosabeth Moss Kanter

Boomers have been clear in expressing that they want a different retirement than their parents, a retirement that includes work. In fact, studies report that about 80% of boomers include working as part of their ideal retirement. Only 17% say they never want to work for pay again. Most employers have been uncreative in their approach to retaining boomers. They think that most boomers will want to scale back by working part time. But the largest group of boomers (about 40%, or half of those who expect to work) would much rather cycle between periods of work and periods of leisure than work part time (only about 17%) (The Merrill Lynch new retirement survey,2005; The Merrill Lynch new retirement survey, 2006; Boomers envisioning retirement, 2004). Developers of retirement communities have caught the trend and are building retirement communities near urban centers rather than in removed, Sun-Belt locations. This allows residents to move in before retirement and to live within commuting distance as they transition between full employment and full retirement (Gunn, 2007).

Why do boomers want to keep working? Some will need the money. Experts disagree on the level of financial preparedness of boomers for retirement, but about a third of boomers will be hard pressed to make ends meet financially and will probably feel compelled to work. Boomers are carrying a larger debt load into retirement than any previous generation. Still, boomers do not cite money as a main motivator in the desire to work in their retirement. In Merrill Lynch's New Retirement Survey (2005), the three top reasons boomers gave for working in "retirement" were for mental activity, for physical activity, and for social connectedness. Many boomers state specifically that they want their work experience to be something new and different. Boomers are still vital, and they know they need stimulation.

In addition, medical technologies such as penicillin and other factors have given the baby boom generation a significant life expectancy bonus. The average American's life expectancy when the Social Security Act of 1935 was passed was 63 years. Today, life expectancy is averages about 77 years, and is close to 83 years for those who live to the standard retirement age of 65 (Pension protection act, 2006). Boomers are physically younger than previous generations were at the same age. Articles about boomers are titled "Forever Young" and "Why 70 Is the New 50" (Harris, 2007; Goldsmith, 2007). And boomers feel younger. In fact, boomers believe that old age begins three years after the average American age of death (Blumenstock, 2006). This relative youth is a strong factor in boomers desire for continued periods of work that are highly stimulating.

The cycling that boomers do between work and leisure will be multifaceted. During their periods of leisure, boomers will engage in traditional retirement pursuits such as traveling for pleasure, but they will also engage in education (either to retool or for the enjoyment of learning). Programs such as Elderhostel give seniors combined travel and educational experiences. Universities are beginning to see retirees as an opportunity and are creating special residential and educational programs for them (Schriener, 2007). Many boomers desire some form of civic engagement after their careers end. Since boomers are already the most actively volunteering generation in history, nonprofits are preparing for a windfall of boomer talent, time, and money. With vested pensions and Social Security, when boomers do choose to work they will be earning "mad money" or retirement insurance, and they will be able to choose what they want to do to earn that money. If companies want boomers to remain with them, they will need to change working conditions to appeal more to key boomer talent. Remember that by 2012 almost one in three workers will be over age 50 (Cadrain, 2007), so the motivation should be strong to pay attention to the desires of talented, retirement-age employees.

COSTS TO COMPANIES

"We can no longer afford to scrap-pile people." Maggie Kuhn

About 78 million boomers were born between 1946 and 1964. The next generation, Gen X, has only about 45 million members. Not only is the Gen X cohort smaller, but its members are also less loyal to employers, easily shifting between jobs. Their pensions are more centered in private retirement accounts, facilitating this mobility. When the boomers retire in large numbers there will be large holes in the workforce.

Executives are concerned. One survey of senior executives from the nation's largest companies found that baby boomer retirements were considered to be the trend that would "most significantly alter the workforce in the next decade" (Baby boomers stand alone, 2008). At 47%, "baby boomer retirements" was considered to be much more significant than "global business interactions" at 31%, "outsourcing" at 11%, or "remote work arrangements" at 5%.

Several strategies can theoretically reduce the demand for labor: increased productivity, immigration, designing products and services for more self-service, and automation (Bernhart, 2006; Special report: Turning boomers, 2006). The strategy of work intensification is a major concern for human resource professionals. With companies poised to lose a significant portion of their workforce as boomers begin retiring, they will be tempted to turn up the heat on remaining employees. Such pressures, however, may backfire by driving employees away, making job retention even more difficult. Lost boomer labor could be partially replaced by immigration, but immigration into the US is difficult, especially for highly skilled labor. While retailers push to free themselves of brick-and-mortar outlets, it is hard to believe we could re-engineer the distribution of products and services toward self-service enough to offset the loss of boomer labor. Increasing the investment in machinery and automation can also reduce the need for labor, but mostly in the manufacturing sector. As the economy continues to evolve toward services, automation is less of an alternative. Automation also will do little to reduce the loss of human capital, knowledge/wisdom, and networks that boomers have worked decades to accumulate. "When the baby-boomer generation retires, many companies will find out too late that a career's worth of experience has walked out the door, leaving insufficient talent to fill the void" (Special report: Turning boomers, 2006).

Segments of the American workforce will be hit differently by the skills shortages that exiting boomers create. Skills shortages currently exist in health-related professions, teaching, and in public administration (Cadrain, 2007). Nearly 400,000 federal employees are currently eligible for retirement (McAdams, 2006), and with incentives to retire early and defined-benefit pensions the public sector will be especially hard hit (Hollon, 2007). Shortages are around the corner in professions such as science and engineering and among manufacturing employees (Cadrain, 2007). Boomers make up an especially large percentage of professionals in aerospace and in the energy sector. A talent drain in energy could harm the economy in general since so many segments of the nation's economy are highly energy dependent (Lerner, 2007).

WHAT COMPANIES CAN DO

"…short retirement urges sweet return." John Milton

After surviving (or falling victim to) cycles of downsizing and retooling into new careers over their working life and living in a culture that honors youth, boomers, like the Gen Xer's that follow them, may feel little need for loyalty. Once their pensions are vested, they will become free birds, returning only to the most attractive nests.

Charlie teaches anthropology at a West Coast university. When he officially retired a few years ago, he enrolled in the university's Faculty Early Retirement Program that allows professors to teach one semester per year for the first five years after retirement. This supplements retirement income and keeps faculty engaged. They teach four months a year, and engage in other activities during the rest of the year. About the time Charlie "retired", he was approached by a cruise line seeking an anthropologist to lecture on cruises. He found lecturing on cruises to be immensely enjoyable. "There are no papers or exams to grade and the cruise customers applaud when I finish a lecture." Charlie says he will continue to work with the cruise line as long as he can. His wife, who travels with him, asks him to limit cruising to 60 days per year, which is just fine with him. Charlie's situation illustrates two alternatives for accommodating Boomers' desire for a retirement that oscillates between work and leisure: both his university and his cruise teaching are on-again/off-again in their structure.

What can companies do to retain their existing boomers or to attract others cut loose by less progressive companies? They will pay attention to two important boomer desires. First is the ideal retirement of cycling between work and leisure. Companies need to invent new ways for this to happen. Secondly, companies need to remember why boomers will return to work. A minority of boomers will work strictly for the money, but most want to be mentally, physically, and socially stimulated (The Merrill Lynch new retirement survey,2005; The Merrill Lynch new retirement survey,2006). And with pensions already in their pockets, they have entered a buyers' market for meeting those desires. Many are starting new businesses or working in other industries because that is where they can find the stimulation they crave. Managers who rely on heavy-handed motivational techniques will lose boomers quickly to retirement. If managers want to keep the boomer "technical expertise, product knowledge, contacts, mentorship capabilities, and loyalties they have grown to count on" (Elassiouti, 2003), they will have to create positive, stimulating work conditions. It will require shedding the stick and relying almost totally on carrots.

Here are some actions companies can take:

- Talk with talented boomers as they approach retirement age. Ask them to help identify how work could be more stimulating and enjoyable for them. Then enlist them in creating equitable work structures to create those stimulating conditions.
- Incorporate traditional approaches such as flextime and part-time work for those boomers who desire such arrangements, but know that this will only attract a minority of talent.

- Create part-time work that is full-time on, then full-time off like Charlie has found with both his university and his cruise line.
- Create consultation/contract employee opportunities for retirees. These should be structured so that they can have large gaps for leisure time.
- Develop mentoring and training programs that use boomers' career-deep skills. Such programs have the attractive benefit of helping to capture and retain boomers' "deep smarts" by turning knowledgeable retirement-age employees into mentors, trainers, or coaches.
- A related measure is to encourage cultural shifts where wisdom is honored in your organization and within society.
- Engage in an organized program of knowledge capture. Eric Less of IBM says that "most companies don't have a sense for where they are at risk in terms of critical knowledge going out the door" (Harris, 2007). Knowledge capture may be easier in larger companies because knowledge/wisdom is more broadly shared within the human network. Small companies, however, are likely to lose critical organizational wisdom with the loss of a single employee.
- Use boomers for project-based work. For instance, IBM recruits for particular projects through their alumni networks (Special report: Turning boomers, 2006).
- Create doorways for re-entry into the workforce that reduce the hassles of re-employment. Streamline processes for rehiring so that red tape is eliminated.
- Work with government on retirement-related issues. One is to make poorly performing older workers less difficult to fire (Leaders: How to manage, 2006). Another is to reduce the tax burden on pensioned retirees who continue to work (Phillips, Pomerantz, & Gully, 2007).
- Companies can also work with government to relax immigration policies so that there will be more available workers to replace retiring boomers (Special report: Turning boomers, 2006).

CONCLUSION

"I need to retire from retirement." Sandra Day O'Connor

Jim says that all of the managers he worked with at GM are currently engaged in some kind of work. Some retired for a while, like he did. He estimates that 10% were rehired by GM as contract employees, sometimes immediately following retirement. A few others are now CEO's of companies that are suppliers to GM. But others, like Jim, have left the industry completely and are enjoying new challenges. Many are managing; some have gone in other directions, for example, doing paid religious work.

Jim and his cohort are typical of the future of "retirement" for those with skills that are still sharp. He is relatively healthy and is genuinely enjoying his new avocation…he took only 3 vacation days in his first year at his new job. The skills that GM bid goodbye to are treasured in his new setting. Jim has already installed a quality system that has been adopted by his East Coast parent company. When he does retire again, he will play his collection of guitars, walk in the park with his dogs, and continue to rebuild his classic Chevy Camaro. He probably is hoping for grandchildren, too. But for now, that's a ways off. It's 6 AM, and he's opening up the workshop, eager for another day.

If companies do not create the kind of retirement that their baby boomers desire, it is clear that they will leave for other opportunities to fulfill their retirement needs and wishes. Many have already begun this exodus. Some boomers will go back to school, others will volunteer, some will rest, but most will eventually seek the mental, physical, and social stimulation of some form of work, probably periodically if they have their way. This will redistribute talent, and that redistribution can mean loss for companies not willing to rock and roll with boomers as they cycle back and forth between work and leisure. For those organizations that are ready to dance with "retiring" boomers, there is still a wealth of experienced talent to be tapped into. The first wave of boomers has just reached "retirement" age. Let the adventures begin.

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QUANTITATIVELY EXAMINING THE COMMUNITY SERVICE, BURNOUT, AND DUTY PERCEPTIONS OF COMMISSIONED OFFICERS VERSUS NON-COMMISSIONED PERSONNEL OF A SOUTHERN STATE DEFENSE FORCE

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ABSTRACT

Given the lack of volunteerism literature dedicated to state defense forces, this research investigates various perceptions related to state defense force service. This research study considers the perceptions of commissioned officers versus the perceptions of non-commissioned personnel of a state defense force with respect to the volunteer organization. The use of ANOVA investigated questions associated with community perception, perceptions of personnel burnout, perceptions of job duties, and perceptions of volunteer time requirements. These hypothesis statements did not demonstrate a statistically significant outcome.

INTRODUCTION

Volunteerism is an activity that occurs across a myriad of disciplines and organizations (Fisher and Ackerman, 1998). When considering volunteerism, images of hospitals, retirement homes, or youth programs are recognized as opportunities for volunteers of all ages. Examples of service organizations include the Freedom Corps; Civil Air Patrol (United States Air Force Auxiliary); United States Coast Guard Auxiliary; state defense forces; community hospitals; and a host of other entities ranging from local to international entities.

Simpson and Strang (2004) indicate that homeland security is of paramount importance after the attacks of September 11, 2001, and is advocated via the "first responder level" as a "locally based initiative." Within many states, a volunteer opportunity associated with homeland security involves membership within state sponsored defense forces known as state guards. These entities are generated by state governments, and are a source of volunteers that act as a disaster response entity to provide emergency relief personnel and services (Tulak, et. al., 2003).

Such state forces are a supporting element of National Guard units across the United States. Because of the implementation of the 1983 Total Force Concept, the state control of National Guard entities has significantly reduced (Blevins, 1999). Blevins (1999) further indicates that the existence of state militias serves the purposes of "public service and constabulary functions withdrawn by the constant drain" of human resources for "federal duty."

The volunteer members of these organizations may be called to state active duty by governors, and are paid only when called to active duty. Within the last few years, these state organizations have provided significant services during times of peril. Such organizations responded to the 1989 Alaska Recovery operations of the Exxon Valdez, and a response occurred with respect to the 1993 Tennessee tornadoes (Tulak, et. al., 2003). Tulak, et. al. Responses also occurred with respect to the 1996 New York TWA Flight 800 disaster and the 1996 winter storms in New York, Virginia, Maryland, and Oregon (Tulak, et. al., 2003). Pons (1999) indicates that a response occurred with respect to the 1998 Puerto Rico Hurricane George. Belfiglio (1999) indicates that such organizations were deployed to support operations of 1998 Texas color guards, crowd control, and search and rescue. The 2001 World Trade Center attacks also necessitated a response using state defense forces (Tulak, et. al., 2003). During 2005, Hurricane Katrina also necessitated the use of a state defense force (Mississippi State, n.d.).

Numerous studies have been performed to analyze various aspects of volunteerism and volunteer organizations. Studies ranging from senior citizen and police volunteerism to behavioral studies and the motivation of volunteers exist, and are common among discussions within a myriad of disciplines (Grabowski and Penn, 2003; Finkelstein and Penner, 2004; Yeung, 2004). However, despite the various views and materials, relatively little information is present concerning volunteerism in the context of state guards or state defense forces. Therefore, it is the purpose of this research to provide an analysis of perceptions related to the volunteer experience associated with such service. This research seeks to investigate a component of state defense force volunteer service with respect to perceptions concerning the volunteers of the organization.

METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted as a pilot study in conjunction with the personnel of a state defense force as its primary population and sample members. The data collection instrument consisted of Likert scale responses for hypothesis testing and a section for the collection of demographic data. All responses and respondents associated with this research were anonymous. The processing of data occurred through the use of ANOVA calculations. The stratification of recipient responses was accomplished through the classification of respondents into the categories of enlisted versus commissioned officer. The respondents were all active participants within the state defense force. A cumulative total of approximately 250 personnel composed the overall population. However, because this study was a pilot study, only 100 surveys were issued. A rate of approximately 38 percent was manifested with respect to the returning of the issued surveys. However, because of some complete non-responses within the returned survey instruments, a response rate of approximately 36 percent was manifested with respect to the returned surveys.

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

Because of the potential geographic and response biases and the complexity of the organizational settings, this research effort observed limitations. The area of interest for this study was confined to examining inquiries concerning the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force organization; the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member; and the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member regarding the community served. Therefore, it was outside the scope of this study to investigate any additional area(s) of application or any discrete topic. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. This research was conducted in conjunction with a state defense force located in the Southern United States. Therefore, this research may not be representative of the state defense forces of other states or regions. The host environment implemented an Army environment and setting, chain of command, and organizational structure. Therefore, this research might not be completely applicable for larger organizations that exhibit more complex infrastructures beyond the state level. Given the differences among state laws and regulations, this research may not be applicable to all state defense forces. Because the volunteer service was an Army organization, this research may not be applicable to different state defense force paradigms (e.g., Navy; Air Force; etc.).

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Each of the hypothesis statements were tested with respect to personnel perceptions regarding the organizational aspects of the state defense force. The primary areas of investigation considered perceptions of positive community contribution, personnel burnout, expectations of the volunteer experience, and time requirements for volunteer service. The perceptions of the activities were considered via ANOVA analysis of the responses. The stratification of data involved classifying responses based on positions of commissioned officers versus non-commission personnel. The following table presents the outcomes of each of the tested hypothesis statements:

Table 1 - Hypothesis Testing Outcomes

HO	HA	F-Value	F-Critical	Significance
Positive community contribution is perceived	Positive community contribution is not perceived	0.91	4.13	No
Personnel perceive burnout with respect to tasks.	Personnel perceive no burnout with Respect to tasks.	3.21	4.13	No
Position is similar to expectation.	Position is not similar to expectation.	3.45	4.13	No
Volunteer position takes too much time.	Volunteer position does not take too much time.	0.14	4.13	No

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the tested hypothesis statements show that none of the tested hypothesis statements demonstrated a statistically significant outcome. Based on the outcomes of the remaining hypothesis tests, several observations concerning personnel perceptions are noticeable. The outcomes of the hypothesis testing calculations show that personnel perceive a positive community contribution and that personnel perceive burnout with respect to tasks. The remaining hypothesis tests also suggest that the personnel perceptions of the volunteer experience are similar to their perceived expectations of the experience. Further, the remaining hypothesis tests also suggest that the personnel perceive the volunteer position as consuming too much time.

A recommendation concerning this study is with respect to its scope and limitation as a pilot study. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. Therefore, it is recommended that a larger study be conducted to explore the outcomes associated with a larger sample size.

This research was conducted in conjunction with a single state defense force located in the Southern United States. Therefore, this research may not be representative of the state defense forces of other states or regions given the myriad of differing state laws and types of disasters that necessitate the use of such defense forces. It is recommended that this study be repeated among the state guards and defense forces of different states to investigate additional hypothesis testing outcomes.

A final recommendation for additional research concerns the basic hierarchical structure and nature of the state defense force. Because the volunteer service was an Army organization, this research may not be applicable to different state defense force paradigms (e.g., Navy; Air Force; etc.). Therefore, it is recommended that this study be repeated to investigate additional hypothesis outcomes that could be observed using Air Force and Naval hierarchies and organizational structures.

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EXAMINING THE PERCEPTIONS OF COMMISSIONED OFFICERS VERSUS NON-COMMISSIONED PERSONNEL OF A STATE DEFENSE FORCE: MEDICAL CONDITIONS, FAMILY SUPPORTIVENESS, AND JOB SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

Given the lack of volunteerism literature dedicated to state defense forces, this research investigates various perceptions related to state defense force service. This research study considers the perceptions of commissioned officers versus the perceptions of non-commissioned personnel of a state defense force with respect to the volunteer organization. The use of ANOVA investigated perceptions associated with medical conditions, family supportiveness, and volunteer job satisfaction. These hypothesis statements did not demonstrate a statistically significant outcome.

INTRODUCTION

Volunteerism is an activity that occurs across a myriad of disciplines and organizations (Fisher and Ackerman, 1998). When considering volunteerism, images of hospitals, retirement homes, or youth programs are recognized as opportunities for volunteers of all ages. Examples of service organizations include the Freedom Corps; Civil Air Patrol (United States Air Force Auxiliary); United States Coast Guard Auxiliary; state defense forces; community hospitals; and a host of other entities ranging from local to international entities.

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Such state forces are a supporting element of National Guard units across the United States. Because of the implementation of the 1983 Total Force Concept, the state control of National Guard entities has significantly reduced (Blevins, 1999). Blevins (1999) further indicates that the existence of state militias serves the purposes of "public service and constabulary functions withdrawn by the constant drain" of human resources for "federal duty."

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Numerous studies have been performed to analyze various aspects of volunteerism and volunteer organizations. Studies ranging from senior citizen and police volunteerism to behavioral studies and the motivation of volunteers exist, and are common among discussions within a myriad of disciplines (Grabowski and Penn, 2003; Finkelstein and Penner, 2004; Yeung, 2004). However, despite the various views and materials, relatively little information is present concerning volunteerism in the context of state guards or state defense forces. Therefore, it is the purpose of this research to provide an analysis of perceptions related to the volunteer experience associated with such service. This research seeks to investigate a component of state defense force volunteer service with respect to perceptions concerning the volunteers of the organization.

METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted as a pilot study in conjunction with the personnel of a state defense force as its primary population and sample members. The data collection instrument consisted of Likert scale responses for hypothesis testing and a section for the collection of demographic data. All responses and respondents associated with this research were anonymous. The processing of data occurred through the use of ANOVA calculations. The stratification of recipient responses was accomplished through the classification of respondents into the categories of enlisted versus commissioned officer. The respondents were all active participants within the state defense force. A cumulative total of approximately 250 personnel composed the overall population. However, because this study was a pilot study, only 100 surveys were issued. A rate of approximately 38 percent was manifested with respect to the returning of the issued surveys. However, because of some non-responses within the returned survey instruments, a response rate of approximately 36 percent was manifested with respect to the returned surveys.

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

Because of the potential geographic and response biases and the complexity of the organizational settings, this research effort observed limitations. The area of interest for this study was confined to examining inquiries concerning the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force organization; the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member; and the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member regarding the community served. Therefore, it was outside the scope of this study to investigate any additional area(s) of application or any discrete topic. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. This research was conducted in conjunction with a state defense force located in the Southern United States. Therefore, this research may not be representative of the state defense forces of other states or regions. The host environment implemented an Army environment and setting, chain of command, and organizational structure. Therefore, this research might not be completely applicable for larger organizations that exhibit more complex infrastructures beyond the state level. Given the differences among state laws and regulations, this research may not be applicable to all state defense forces. Because the volunteer service was an Army organization, this research may not be applicable to different state defense force paradigms (e.g., Navy; Air Force; etc.).

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Each of the hypothesis statements were tested with respect to personnel perceptions regarding the organizational aspects of the state defense force. The primary areas of investigation considered perceptions of positive community contribution, personnel burnout, expectations of the volunteer experience, rewards, promotion and advancement, obtaining time away from primary employment for emergency service and training, medical condition, family supportiveness, job satisfaction, compensation, and rank and grade. The perceptions of the activities were considered via ANOVA analysis of the responses. The stratification of data involved classifying responses based on positions of commissioned officers versus non-commission personnel. The following table presents the outcomes of each of the tested hypothesis statements:

Table 1 - Hypothesis Testing Outcomes

HO	HA	F-Value	F-Critical	Significance
Medical condition exists that would prohibit military service in National Guard, reserves, or active duty	Medical condition does not exist that would prohibit military service in National Guard reserves, or active duty.	0.09	4.13	No
Family is supportive of this activity of this activity.	Family is not supportive	0.47	4.13	No
Member is satisfied with volunteer job.	Member is not satisfied with volunteer job.	0.01	4.13	No

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the tested hypothesis statements show that none of the tested hypothesis statements demonstrated a statistically significant outcome. The perceptions associated with the categories of medical condition, family supportiveness, and job satisfaction were considered within the analysis. The outcomes of the hypothesis tests suggest that personnel perceive the existence of a medical condition that would prohibit military service with U.S. active forces, National Guard, or reserve duties. The outcomes of the hypothesis tests suggest that personnel perceive that family supportiveness of their volunteer activity exists. Finally, the outcomes of the hypothesis tests suggest that personnel perceive the existence of satisfaction with the volunteer job.

A recommendation concerning this study is with respect to its scope and limitation as a pilot study. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. Therefore, it is recommended that a larger study be conducted to explore the outcomes associated with a larger sample size.

This research was conducted in conjunction with a single state defense force located in the Southern United States. Therefore, this research may not be representative of the state defense forces of other states or regions given the myriad of differing state laws and types of disasters that necessitate the use of such defense forces. It is recommended that this study be repeated among the state guards and defense forces of different states to investigate additional hypothesis testing outcomes.

A final recommendation for additional research concerns the basic hierarchical structure and nature of the state defense force. Because the volunteer service was an Army organization, this research may not be applicable to different state defense force paradigms (e.g., Navy; Air Force; etc.). Therefore, it is recommended that this study be repeated to investigate additional hypothesis outcomes that could be observed using Air Force and Naval hierarchies and organizational structures.

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THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG GOAL SETTING, OPTIMISM, AND ENGAGEMENT: THE IMPACT ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

The concepts of goal-setting, optimism, and employee engagement as mechanisms to improving employee performance have all been discussed fairly extensively in the management literature. Goal setting has been explored in terms of both motivational impact toward improving performance and as being integral parts of management systems or processes designed to improve performance. Though fewer studies exist concerning optimism in the workplace, evidence certainly exists linking the concept to improvement in worker performance. Significantly more has been written, particularly in this decade, concerning employee engagement. Since the Gallup Organization's development of the Q12 (a survey instrument to measure employee engagement) almost a decade ago, articles in the area of employee engagement--ranging from the benefits of increased employee engagement to ways to improve the level of engagement--has increased and intensified dramatically. Though relatively few empirical studies exist, the evidence appears clear that high levels of employee engagement are associated with improved individual employee performance.

This paper examines the relationship between goal-setting, optimism, and engagement and the impact on individual employee performance. Results indicate that organizations that feature formal, structured goal-setting processes leads to higher levels of employee engagement. Higher levels of employee engagement lead to increased employee optimism. Strong workplace optimism in turn leads to improved employee performance.

INTRODUCTION

The concepts of goal-setting, optimism, and employee engagement as mechanisms to improving employee performance have all been discussed fairly extensively in the management literature. Goal setting has been explored in terms of both motivational impact toward improving performance and as being integral parts of management systems or processes designed to improve performance. Though fewer studies exist concerning optimism in the workplace, evidence certainly exists linking the concept to improvement in worker performance. Significantly more has been written, particularly in this decade, concerning employee engagement. Since the Gallup Organization's development of the Q12 (a survey instrument to measure employee engagement) almost a decade ago, articles in the area of employee engagement--ranging from the benefits of increased employee engagement to ways to improve the level of engagement--has increased and intensified dramatically. Though relatively few empirical studies exist, the evidence appears clear that high levels of employee engagement are associated with improved individual employee performance.

GOAL SETTING AND ENGAGEMENT

Numerous studies (Locke, 1968; Latham and Yukl, 1975; Matsui, et al, 1987; Tubbs, 1986, 1993; Knight et al, 2001; Dweck et al., 1993; Sujan et al., 1994) have pointed to effective goal setting's impact on employee performance. Many management systems or processes (MBO, TQM, and continuous improvement initiatives for example) all feature goal setting as a critical element in improving performance. Gallup's Q12 survey instrument features 12 questions that are used to measure the level of engagement of an employee. Of these twelve drivers of employee engagement, four are related to the idea of goal-goal setting. This leads to our first hypothesis:

> H1. Organizational goal setting is a significant, positive predictor of employee engagement.

ENGAGEMENT AND OPTIMISM

Definitions of engagement have primarily been offered by consulting houses or in practitioner publications. Perhaps the most extensively used definition of an engaged worker was offered by thee Gallup organization. They define an engaged employee as a worker who is fully involved in and enthusiastic about his or her work (Tritch, 2003). HR Magazine's February cover story (Bates, 2004) focused on employee engagement and its role in the workplace. Engagement was essentially defined as "an innate human desire to contribute something of value in workplace." Crawford (2006) defined engagement as a measure of the energy and passion workers have for their organization. The article stressed clearly that diminished individual performance was a consequence of lack of employee engagement. Gubman (2004) defined engagement as a heightened personal attachment to the organization. Harley, Lee, and Robinson (2005), while not specifically defining the term, did identify a profile of an "engaged work" and also listed various aspects of engagement that have been used within organizations the measure engagement. Konrad (2006), while not providing a definition, discussed engagement as having a cognitive, an emotional, and a behavioral aspect. Seijts and Crim (2006) defined an engaged worker as one who is "fully involved in, and enthusiastic about, his or her work."

Generally speaking, optimism is the tendency for an individual to believe in the best possible outcomes in the face of uncertainty (Peale, 1956). Furnham (1997) states that optimists emphasize favorable aspects of situations, actions, and events while believing in the best possible outcomes in the future. Optimism is closely related to the concept of self-efficacy—a belief in how successful one can be in terms of task accomplishment (Gist and Mitchell, 1992).

The various definitions/explanations as well as all of the 12 questions on Gallup's Q12 survey are related to optimism. This leads to our second hypothesis:

H2. Employee engagement is a significant, positive predictor of employee optimism.

OPTIMISM AND PERFORMANCE

Intuitively, it is easy to accept a link between optimism and employee performance. In practice, this relationship has rarely been examined. Certainly studies exist that indicate that performance outside of the workplace (athletically, academically, etc.) is positively associated with optimism (Lee, et al., 1993; Windschitl, et al., 2003; Norem and Chang, 2002; Wilson, et al., 2002; Siddique, et al., 2006; Norlander and Archer, 2002). Studies that have focused on the optimism-performance have primarily been in the sales literature (Seligman and Schulman, 1986; Rich, 1999; Schulman, 1999; Scheier, et al., 1994; Sujan, 1999; Dixon and Schertzer, 2005; Strutton and Lumpkin, 1993). Each reports that positive performance outcomes are associated with salespeople who are optimists. Green, Medlin, and Whitten (2004) examined the relationship between optimism and performance in manufacturing settings. Results indicated that there is a "very positive link" between employee optimism and level of performance.

This leads to our third hypothesis:

H3. Individual optimism is a significant, positive predictor of employee performance.

METHODOLOGY

Data related to goal setting, employee engagement, organizational optimism, and individual performance were collected from a convenience sample of 428 full and part-time employees in central and southwestern Arkansas. The data were analyzed using a structural equation modeling methodology.

MODEL AND RESULTS

Table 1 displays descriptive statistics and the correlation matrix. All correlation coefficients are positive and statistically significant indicating support for the three study hypotheses. Figure 1 illustrates the structural model with structural coefficients and accompanying t-values. All coefficients are positive and statistically significant indicating support for the study hypotheses. The model fits the data relatively well with fit indices either approaching (GFI) or exceeding (NFI, CFI) the desired .90 level.

Table 1 - Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix (N = 428)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	GS	EE	WO	IP
Goal Setting (GS)	4.3908	1.95817	1			
Employee Engagement (EE)	5.1626	1.52388	.493(**)	1		

Table 1 - Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix (N = 428)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	GS	EE	WO	IP
Workplace Optimism (WO)	5.0244	1.71802	.467(**)	.793(**)	1	
Individual Performance (IP)	5.7012	1.16523	.291(**)	.457(**)	.424(**)	1

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

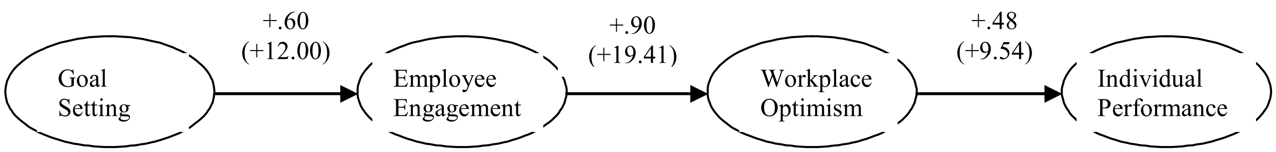

Figure 1 – Structural model with coefficients and (t-values)
GFI = .88, NFI = .96, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .10

The results of this study support the study hypotheses that 1) goal setting positively predicts employee engagement, 2) employee engagement positively predicts workplace optimism, and 3) workplace optimism positively predicts individual performance.

CONCLUSIONS

Improving individual performance of workers is a critical challenge for all managers. Research indicates that high levels of optimism can lead to improved employee performance. Hiring optimists and creating optimistic subcultures (Green, et al., 2004) are two mechanisms to do this. This study identifies engagement as another means to enhance worker optimism. In addition, it identifies structured, formal goal setting processes as an additional mechanism for managers to improve the level of engagement of their employees.

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FROM WORK-FAMILY CONFLICTS TO PSYCHOLOGICAL STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION AND TO LIFE SATISFACTION: A PROPOSED INTEGRATIVE MODEL

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ABSTRACT

The interest on work-family conflicts is escalating organizational behavior (OB) research. Extant literature suggests that work-family conflicts play a significant role in an individual's work and life. The present paper offers a conceptual model which suggests that relationships between work and family can have strong impact on job satisfaction and life satisfaction and organizational support programs have a vital role in this process. The directions for future research and the implications for human resource managers are discussed.

EXPANDING MANAGERIAL CONSCIOUSNESS:LEADERSHIP ADVICE FROM THE BHAGAVAD GITA

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ABSTRACT

Believed by some to be over 5,000 years old, the Bhagavad Gita is one of the world's oldest known texts. The manuscript, believed by Hindus to have been inspired by God provides unique perceptions and prescriptions for modern day leaders. The Gita offers advice on humanistic and inclusive leadership, and tells managers to seek a higher level of consciousness when seeking to influence others. The manuscript is useful for Hindus, and non-Hindus alike, and represents an early form of the Western theory of servant leadership.

> *Thou look at thy duty. Nothing can be more welcome to a soldier than a righteous war. Therefore to waver in this resolve is unworthy, O Arjuna. - Bhagavad Gita (2:3)*

As its economy continues to grow, there is increased interest in India and its culture. India's economy has grown by an average of 8.6% over the past four years, and the expected growth for the coming decade is forecast to exceed nine percent. The Indian stock market is at a record high and is expected to outperform its other emerging market competitors (Knight Ridder 2007). With a population of over one billion, and a growing economy, the world's largest democracy has captured the attention of the world. Not only is there increased interest in India's economic growth and market potential, but there also is an increased interest in Indian culture. As Westerners attempt to better understand Indian culture, they might find that India's ancient scriptures offer some insight into cultural norms and values, and perhaps meaningful lessons for the modern day practice of management. It has been reported that many of the top business schools in the United States have introduced "self-mastery classes" (Engardio and McGregor 2006) using Indian philosophy to help students improve their leadership skills. One of the more popular and useful of the ancient texts is the Bhagavad Gita. Using contextual analysis, this paper explores the leadership implications found in this classic text.

BHAGAVAD GITA

The Bhagavad Gita, or Song of God, is one of the most revered of Hindu manuscripts. While many believers date the text to over 5,000 years ago, some debate exists concerning its actual age.

Originally written in Sanskrit, the earliest English translation was written in 1785, with the oral version of the manuscript believed by some to have been composed around 3100 B.C.E. (Hee 2007). The Western view is that the manuscript is much newer; nevertheless, it is considered by all to be an ancient text, and one with a powerful influence on Hindus and others. The Bhagavad Gita is part of a larger text, the Mahabharta, but is the most popular component of that larger text. Essentially the book provides an account of a discussion between a prince named Arjuna and his charioteer, Lord Krishna, who is the Hindu God Vishnu, taking human form. The battle which is imminent has been caused by a dispute among two related kingdoms, the Pandav's and the Kaurava's. Prince Arjuna is a member of the Pandava kingdom and must fight to regain land stolen by the Kauravas years earlier. Arjuna asks Lord Krishna to raise him up above the battlefield so that he can see the forces on both sides. When he sees relatives, teachers, and friends on the opposing side and reflects on the death of these people, he is hesitant to engage in battle, even though he knows he will win the battle since he has Lord Krishna on his side. Arjuna questions Lord Krishna on the value of war, even when the outcome is known to be victorious, when the death of relatives will result. Lord Krishna explains to Prince Arjuna why he must fight and how his actions must be considered in the larger context of his role.

The Bhagavad Gita, or simply, the Gita, contains eighteen chapters which can be divided up into three parts: karma yoga or selfless action, jnana yoga or self-knowledge, and bhakti yoga or ways of loving (Hee 2007). The Bhagavad Gita represents the many struggles, or battles, modern day leaders face and their responsibilities to multiple stakeholders. Some have even proposed that the Bhagavad Gita is useful for a better understanding of specific managerial issues such as quality management (Sharma and Talwar 2004); however, this paper explores the value of the Gita in a larger managerial context, focusing on issues facing organizational leaders.

Hindu belief is sometimes seen as a polytheistic religion in that Hindus are seen worshiping many gods. Hinduism involves many deities and other manifestations of God, and in general is viewed as a more holistic and complex approach to understanding individuals, organizations, the universe, and the interconnections (Ashok and Thimmappa 2006). In reality, Hinduism believes in one God with three parts, similar to the Christian belief of the Holy Trinity. In a simplified view of Hindu belief, God consists of three manifestations, Brahma, Vishnu, and Shiva. Brahma is the God of creation, Vishnu is the God of preservation, and Shiva is the God of destruction. Vishnu can manifest Himself in many forms and return to earth when needed to maintain order. In some ways he acts as a manager, leader, or consultant in providing advice and direction in order to maintaining operation of the worldly system. In the Bhagavad Gita, Krishna is the manifestation of Vishnu, and provides moral guidance and systemic understanding to Prince Arjuna.

LEADERSHIP LESSONS

While much of the Bhagavad Gita is filled with references to God and other spiritual matters, strong moral advice and leadership lessons can be drawn from the text. Hee (2007) proposes that the Gita's advice can be useful in five areas of modern business. He suggests that the Gita provides advice on mission and core values, the development of new capabilities, the importance of developing business connections and communication, and the duty of managers to maintain a purpose-centric perspective. This paper explores the leadership applications found in the manuscript.

All the passages used in this paper from the Bhagavad Gita come from the translation by Shri Purohit Swami (Purohit 1935). The passages are referenced by chapter and verse. The Gita provides leadership advice in a number of general areas including the importance of maintaining one's proper role and duties, being proactive and acting with wisdom, working for the greater good, and engaging in self-sacrifice.

Maintaining Proper Role

When Arjuna questions his actions as a soldier, Krishna explains to him that each position, including soldier, has a role to play in the cosmos. Leaders must be aware of that role and be prepared to respond to the responsibilities imposed by their position. As stated in the Gita, Perfection is attained when each attends diligently to his duty (18:45). Leaders have a duty to effectively influence others, and this duty can manifest itself in a number of different approaches, however, the leader must maintain his/her values and not waver from those duties and values. The wise man who has conquered his mind and is absorbed in the Self is a lamp which does not flicker, since it stands sheltered from every will (6:19). Being true to oneself and one's values is an essentially aspect of leadership according to the Gita. Equally important is acting in a manner that one wishes to have emulated throughout the organization. For whatever a great man does, others imitate. People conform to the standard which he has set (3:21). The leader must be a good role model and express the values of the organization through his/her behavior. Leaders who profess one set of values and act according to another set of values are not acting in accordance with the Bhagavad Gita.

Being Proactive and With Wisdom

One of the major lessons from the Gita is that reactionary behavior is inferior to proactive behavior. No man can attain freedom from activity by refraining from action; nor can he reach perfection by merely refusing to act. (3:4). Arjuna was faced with a disturbing task before him, one not of his making. Lord Krishna insisted that he fulfill his responsibilities by taking aggressive action. Inaction was not an option that would lead to good results. Being proactive requires a degree of wisdom, otherwise the action will lead to failure. Only the unenlightened speak of wisdom and right action as separate, not the wise (5:4). Lord Krishna advises Arjuna to combine his inner wisdom with the right action. Wisdom, combined with right action is essential for good leadership according to the Gita. To lack either one produces poor results. If a leader is unwise, and acts, harmful events may occur. If the leader is wise but fails to act, harmful events may occur. The Gita tells leaders that they will be forced from time to time to make difficult decisions, and that they must use their inner wisdom to guide them in making the correct decision. The Gita also implies that wisdom is a necessary precondition for the selection of good leaders. While training and development are important to organizational success, leadership qualities are viewed as being more innate and developed through introspection and meditation.

Self-Sacrifice and the Greater Good

The advice given in the Gita makes several references to the importance of self-sacrifice and working for the benefit of the greater good. All creatures are the product of food, food is the product of rain, rain comes by sacrifice, and sacrifice is the noblest form of action (3:14). In many cases leaders must sacrifice their own interests in order to promote the well-being of the group they are leading. In the Bhagavad Gita, leaders act in the role of servant, not inconsistent with the servant leadership model (Greenleaf 2002) popular in the West. Speaking on the qualities of a superior person, we find in the Gita that a good leader is one … who is incapable of hatred towards any human being, who is kind and compassionate, free from selfishness, without pride, equable in pleasure and in pain, and is forgiving (12:13). The leader in the Gita tradition is a humanistic leader, a person who acts without self-gain, and who has great personal concerns for followers. Likewise in the Gita we find … harmlessness, forgiveness, fortitude, purity, freedom from hate and vanity; these are his who possesses the Godly qualities. Hypocrisy, pride, insolence, cruelty, ignorance belong to him who is born of the godless qualities (16:2). The leader should act in a manner which at all times benefits the followers. The Gita also warns against the pursuit of material gain and greed. When a man dwells on the objects of sense, he creates an attraction for them; attraction develops into desire, and desire breeds anger. Anger induces delusion; delusion, loss of memory; through loss of memory, reason is shattered; and loss of reason leads to destruction (2:62-63). Krishna warns Arjuna not to focus on the outcomes of his actions but to be mindful of the actions themselves. To dwell on material gain in a leadership role is not mindful behavior and does not lead to a greater sense of consciousness. Likewise we find in the Gita, The gates of hell are three; lust, wrath, and avarice (greed). They destroy the Self. Avoid them (16:21). Leaders must be aware of their motives and mindful of the effects of harmful motives on themselves and their followers. The purpose of the leader is to serve his/her followers in helping them to attain a higher level of performance. Certain qualities are needed in order to be effective in achieving this purpose.

LEADERSHIP QUALITIES FOUND IN THE BHAGAVAD GITA
MAINTAINING PROPER ROLE
BEING TRUE TO ONE'S VALUES
BEING A GOOD ROLE MODEL
SELF-SACRIFICE
BEING KIND AND COMPASSIONATE
ACTING WITHOUT PRIDE
FORGIVING
ACTING WITH PURITY
ACTING IN THE COMMON GOOD

CONCLUSION

The Bhagavad Gita, the ancient spiritual text contains recommendations for the modern practice of management. While a casual reading of the manuscript would leave one feeling that the book is about the personal struggles involved in engaging in warfare, the Gita represents much more. The Gita represents the struggles encountered by all humans in everyday activities Harvey (2007), including the struggles of leadership. The Bhagavad Gita provides advice to modern day leaders and suggests important leadership qualities. The basic qualities of a good leader found in the Gita are summarized in the figure seen above. While many Westerners are familiar with some Chinese classics such as the Tao te Ching, Art of War, or the Analects, few have been exposed to the Indian classics and Indian philosophy on consciousness. The Gita can be a starting point for greater understanding. In the Gita we have seen the importance of proper role and being proactive and the need for self-sacrifice and concern for the greater good. Those interested in furthering their understanding of good leadership are advised to look to the past for answers to the future.

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JUST WISHING AND HOPING? WHAT THE MILLENNIAL COHORT ABSOLUTELY, POSITIVELY MUST HAVE AT WORK

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ABSTRACT

A new cohort group has been identified by a number of researchers. Those born in 1982 and after appear to have a different set of values and expectations from either the Baby Boomers or the Generation Xers who preceded them. Increasingly referred to as the Millennials, members of this group are now joining the workforce or attending college. This paper seeks to add to our understanding of this cohort.

Using an idea proposed by career-development consultant Marty Nemko, university seniors in business administration courses were asked what they absolutely, positively had to have or not have in order to accept a job—their career non-negotiables. This paper reports the findings based on 356 respondents.

INTRODUCTION

Starting at about the turn of the 21st century, faculty began noticing that their students -- and employers began noticing that their new employees -- were "different" from the previous cohort. They didn't appear to be interested in the same things or motivated by the same rewards as previous young adults. These observations have stimulated a growing number of research studies focused on identifying the essential characteristics of the cohort now generally referred to as the Millennials.

This paper seeks to add to our understanding of the Millennials and what they look for in employment.

BACKGROUND

Marty Nemko has been a career counselor for over 20 years, helping job seekers at every level find suitable and satisfying jobs. In 2001, he wrote an article published in the San Francisco Chronicle titled "The seven steps to a better job" (Nemko, 2001). Step 2 is: Identify your career non-negotiables. What are the things a job seeker absolutely, positively has to have in a job? Nemko says that answering this question is a fast way to help someone identify a realistic career that fits.

METHODOLOGY

Junior- and senior-level students enrolled in Fall 2006 and Spring 2007 courses required of Business Administration and Construction Management majors at California State University, Chico were asked to respond to the question: "When thinking about your first job after your graduation, what are your career non-negotiables? What must you absolutely, positively have to have in order to accept a position, or alternatively, what must you absolutely, positively not have in order to accept a job?"

RESULTS

A total of 382 students in 12 different course sections were surveyed. Of those, 356 surveys, or 93 percent, were usable. Fifty-nine percent of the respondents were male, which tracks the overall percentage of males to females in the College of Business.

Of the 356, only six respondents (5 males and 1 female) replied that everything was negotiable because everything was a trade-off.

Salary

The percent of respondents stating that some base level of salary constituted a non-negotiable was 73.4 percent. Of those stating a specific dollar figure (55 females and 75 males), the median was $50,000, and the overall average was $50,569. The range was from a low of $21,000 to a high of $90,000. However the average for the females was $46,345 while the average for the males was $53,667, statistically different at the .01 level.

The average non-negotiable salary figure was 6.8 percent higher than the actual average starting salary for all business majors in Fall 2007 as reported by the National Association of Colleges and Employers -- $47,345 – which may indicate a problem for either the job applicants or the potential employers.

Of the 356 respondents, 14 said they sought work on commission and an additional 21 stated that they would only take jobs which offered bonuses, performance pay, or profit sharing. In other words, fewer than 10 percent saw performance-based rewards as essential in accepting a job.

Benefits

According to Michelle Conlin (2008), 19 to 29-year-olds make up the fastest-growing group of uninsureds in the U.S. As a result, it is not surprising that 57 percent of the respondents in this survey stated that medical insurance benefits were a non-negotiable for them. In addition to medical (202), dental (55), vision (20), and life-insurance (6) benefits, other benefits specifically addressed by respondents included childcare (4), maternity/paternity leave (6), paid vacation days (66) and paid sick days (18).

This finding is supported by other surveys. According to a poll of CFOs by Robert Half International, 37 percent said compensation is the most effective incentive for attracting accounting professionals. That figure is down from 46 percent five years ago. Instead, 33 percent of respondents cited benefits as the top influence on candidates' choices in 2008, up from just 2 percent five years ago (Jobs in the Money, 2008).

Retirement Benefits

Anne Fisher, in her 2004 Fortune article, said that just 22 percent of Baby Boomers contribute to a 401K, while 29 percent of Millennials do. This survey supports the finding that Millennials are interested in saving for retirement – 34 percent said that not having a retirement plan would be a deal-breaker for them.

Work Hours

Are these Millennial students willing to work long and hard in exchange for their salary and benefit expectations? Some are and some are not. Thirty percent of respondents said they required some version of the following: 8-5 jobs/40-hour weeks/no night work/weekends off/little overtime/no "on-call" work. On the other hand, 21 percent said they were willing to work 50 or more hours per week, some stating that only working over 70 hours per week would become a non-negotiable.

Commute Length and Geographic Location

According to Lisa Belkin (2007), young job seekers put their emphasis on where they live rather than what they do. "Sixty-five percent of 1000 respondents age 24-35 said they preferred 'to look for a job in the place where I would like to live rather than look for the best job I can find wherever it is located' (Belkin, p. E2) ." In this study, only 33 percent mentioned anything about geographical location, and those included such issues as "being close to family," "living in a large metropolitan area" or "living only in a small town" as well as mentioning some specific location, like the Bay Area, New York City, or Colorado.

Respondents appeared to have realistic expectations for commute lengths. Only one student mentioned working from home, and only 20 said that a commute of over 15 minutes would be a non-negotiable. The median commute length, mentioned by 68 respondents, was 30 minutes, with 59 respondents stating a time of 60 minutes or longer.

The Job and the Company

Based on his Center for Generational Studies' research, Robert Wendover (2004) says the Millennial cohort's culture has a number of shared values. Those that have some relevance to this survey are discussed here:

"Work should be on my terms." According to Wendover, this often expresses itself as a need for flexible work hours and sick days which can be used as personal leave days. In this study, 11 percent or 39 respondents mentioned flexible work hours as a non-negotiable. As mentioned previously, 18 respondents required paid sick days.

"I earn to spend." According to Wendover, work and the job itself do not excite many of the members of this cohort. They work so they can pay their debts and buy things. In this survey group, respondents' focus on salary and benefits supports that value. Just under 10 percent of respondents mentioned that they were looking for work which "keeps me busy (9)," "challenges me (6)", "allows me to take personal responsibility (3)," "allows me to be productive (9)," and "has a tangible outcome (7)."

"Work is only a part of what I do on the job." This group genuinely believes that they should be able to multi-task--staying connected to their personal lives while working. Although no student mentioned ability to make personal calls or use the Internet for non-work purposes, behavior Wendover observed in this cohort, 16 percent mentioned that they wanted to have fun at work. In this survey, 19 respondents mentioned that a friendly, fun work culture was important to them, 5 mentioned they were looking for exciting work, another 25 mentioned upbeat, friendly or laid back management, and 8 mentioned they were looking for fun, welcoming co-workers.

"Hey dude, this work is like…work!" Because they expect fun on the job, Millennials are surprised when they are expected to start at the bottom and work their way up. They want to make important decisions right away. In this survey, 7 respondents mentioned that they wanted work which allows them to manage others and 41 mentioned the need for automony. An additional 30 mentioned wanting a job they like doing, and another 36 said they would not accept a job where they were at a desk all day. In other words, they believe that getting a college degree offers enough preparation for them to immediately take on managerial responsibility.

"This is only a job." So many members of this cohort seem to be detached from the world and what is going on right around them. That is an observation made by many faculty and employers. The reasons may include repetitive duties, absence of stimulation, uncertainty about their role, impatience, and an overwhelming daily schedule. They often try to "work the system" rather than fulfilling their responsibilities in the best way possible. Given this observation by Wendover and others, it is interesting that the most frequently-mentioned non-negotiable related to the job was "opportunity for growth/training" (125) followed by desire to "work directly with people on a daily basis (102)," "promotion opportunities (82)," "variety in my job (32)," and "teamwork (24)." These factors all seem to indicate quite a lot of interest in the work as well as in the people who do it. There was nothing in the survey responses that supported the observation that the Millennials are detached from their environment.

These data may give support to findings reported by Rachel Azaroff (2006). She says this generation thinks differently about job advancement. She says, "They often prefer to move laterally and cross-train to gain new skills (p. 56)." It seems that for younger workers, new skills are even more important than upward mobility, and this study appears to support that finding, with over 1 ½ times as many respondents mentioning "opportunity for growth/training" as "promotion opportunities."

"I want to make a difference." The Millennials have observed that things (government; the roads; disaster relief; health care; etc.) are broken, and they want to be involved in finding solutions. Azaroff (2006) reports "They tend to be less focused on money-making ventures and more on making a difference in the world. (p. 56)." In this study, a corporate culture which "is socially responsible," "has a positive impact," "is environmentally sensitive," "is ethical," "has values which align with mine," and "has a company culture I can be proud of" were mentioned 76 times or by 21.3 percent of respondents.

CONCLUSION

Asking college juniors and seniors what they consider their career non-negotiables, their bottom-line, when it comes to making career choices is one way to identify what is important to the 81 million young people born since 1982. As the Baby Boomers reach retirement age, businesses will need to attract the best and brightest of these Millennials to replace the Boomers. Based on this survey, in spite of increasing costs and a contracting economy, businesses will need to find some way to provide health and retirement benefits in addition to starting salaries of approximately $50,000. They will want to provide many opportunities for learning and promotion. And they will want to promote their ethical standards, focusing on how the Millennials can make a difference in the world by doing their jobs thoughtfully and well.

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SERVICE PERCEPTIONS OF COMMISSIONED OFFICERS VERSUS NON-COMMISSIONED PERSONNEL OF A STATE DEFENSE FORCE CONCERNING ACHIEVEMENTS, PROMOTIONS, AND DUTY TIME

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ABSTRACT

Given the lack of volunteerism literature dedicated to state defense forces, this research investigates various perceptions related to state defense force service. This research study considers the perceptions of commissioned officers versus the perceptions of non-commissioned personnel of a state defense force with respect to the volunteer organization. The use of ANOVA investigated perceptions associated with successes and achievements, perceptions regarding promotion opportunities, perceptions regarding work absences arising from emergencies and training duties. These hypothesis statements did not demonstrate any statistically significant outcomes.

INTRODUCTION

State defense forces and state guard units are supporting elements of National Guard units across the United States. Because of the implementation of the 1983 Total Force Concept, the state control of National Guard entities has significantly reduced (Blevins, 1999). Blevins (1999) further indicates that the existence of state militias serves the purposes of "public service and constabulary functions withdrawn by the constant drain" of human resources for "federal duty."

The volunteer members of these organizations may be called to state active duty by governors, and are paid only when called to active duty. Within the last few years, these state organizations have provided significant services during times of peril. Such organizations responded to the 1989 Alaska Recovery operations of the Exxon Valdez, and a response occurred with respect to the 1993 Tennessee tornadoes (Tulak, et. al., 2003). Tulak, et. al. Responses also occurred with respect to the 1996 New York TWA Flight 800 disaster and the 1996 winter storms in New York, Virginia, Maryland, and Oregon (Tulak, et. al., 2003). Pons (1999) indicates that a response occurred with respect to the 1998 Puerto Rico Hurricane George. Belfiglio (1999) indicates that such organizations were deployed to support operations of 1998 Texas color guards, crowd control, and search and rescue. The 2001 World Trade Center attacks also necessitated a response using state defense forces (Tulak, et. al., 2003). During 2005, Hurricane Katrina also necessitated the use of a state defense force (Mississippi State, n.d.).

Volunteerism is an activity that occurs across a myriad of disciplines and organizations (Fisher and Ackerman, 1998). When considering volunteerism, images of hospitals, retirement homes, or youth programs are recognized as opportunities for volunteers of all ages. Examples of service organizations include the Freedom Corps; Civil Air Patrol (United States Air Force Auxiliary); United States Coast Guard Auxiliary; state defense forces; community hospitals; and a host of other entities ranging from local to international entities.

Simpson and Strang (2004) indicate that homeland security is of paramount importance after the attacks of September 11, 2001, and is advocated via the "first responder level" as a "locally based initiative." Within many states, a volunteer opportunity associated with homeland security involves membership within state sponsored defense forces known as state guards. These entities are generated by state governments, and are a source of volunteers that act as a disaster response entity to provide emergency relief personnel and services (Tulak, et. al., 2003).

Numerous studies have been performed to analyze various aspects of volunteerism and volunteer organizations. Studies ranging from senior citizen and police volunteerism to behavioral studies and the motivation of volunteers exist, and are common among discussions within a myriad of disciplines (Grabowski and Penn, 2003; Finkelstein and Penner, 2004; Yeung, 2004). However, despite the various views and materials, relatively little information is present concerning volunteerism in the context of state guards or state defense forces. Therefore, it is the purpose of this research to provide an analysis of perceptions related to the volunteer experience associated with such service. This research seeks to investigate a component of state defense force volunteer service with respect to perceptions concerning the volunteers of the organization.

METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted as a pilot study in conjunction with the personnel of a state defense force as its primary population and sample members. The data collection instrument consisted of Likert scale responses for hypothesis testing and a section for the collection of demographic data. All responses and respondents associated with this research were anonymous. The processing of data occurred through the use of ANOVA calculations. The stratification of recipient responses was accomplished through the classification of respondents into the categories of enlisted versus commissioned officer. The respondents were all active participants within the state defense force. A cumulative total of approximately 250 personnel composed the overall population. However, because this study was a pilot study, only 100 surveys were issued. A rate of approximately 38 percent was manifested with respect to the returning of the issued surveys. However, because of some complete non-responses within the returned survey instruments, a response rate of approximately 36 percent was manifested with respect to the returned surveys.

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

Because of the potential geographic and response biases and the complexity of the organizational settings, this research effort observed limitations. The area of interest for this study was confined to examining inquiries concerning the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force organization; the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member; and the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member regarding the community served. Therefore, it was outside the scope of this study to investigate any additional area(s) of application or any discrete topic. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. This research was conducted in conjunction with a state defense force located in the Southern United States. Therefore, this research may not be representative of the state defense forces of other states or regions. The host environment implemented an Army environment and setting, chain of command, and organizational structure. Therefore, this research might not be completely applicable for larger organizations that exhibit more complex infrastructures beyond the state level. Given the differences among state laws and regulations, this research may not be applicable to all state defense forces. Because the volunteer service was an Army organization, this research may not be applicable to different state defense force paradigms (e.g., Navy; Air Force; etc.).

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Each of the hypothesis statements were tested with respect to personnel perceptions regarding the organizational aspects of the state defense force. The primary areas of investigation considered perceptions of successes and achievements, perceptions regarding promotion opportunities, perceptions regarding work absences arising from emergencies and training duties. The perceptions of the activities were considered via ANOVA analysis of the responses. The stratification of data involved classifying responses based on positions of commissioned officers versus non-commission personnel. The following table presents the outcomes of each of the tested hypothesis statements:

Table 1 - Hypothesis Testing Outcomes

HO	HA	F-Value	F-Critical	Significance
Successes and achievements are rewarded.	Successes and achievements are not rewarded.	1.01	4.13	No
Satisfactory opportunity for promotion and advancement does exist.	Satisfactory advancement does not exist.	0.76	4.13	No

Table 1 - Hypothesis Testing Outcomes				
HO	HA	F-Value	F-Critical	Significance
Time away from work is not difficult to obtain during emergencies.	Time away from work is difficult to obtain during emergencies.	0.92	4.13	No
Time away from work is not difficult to obtain for training.	Time away from work is difficult to obtain for training.	0.46	4.13	No

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the tested hypothesis statements show that none of the tested hypothesis statements demonstrated a statistically significant outcome. The outcomes of the hypothesis testing calculations show that personnel perceive that successes and achievements are rewarded. The hypothesis tests also suggest that the personnel perceive that opportunities for promotion and advancement are present. Further, the remaining hypothesis tests also suggest that the personnel perceive that time away from their civilian jobs, for the purposes of emergency duty or training functions, is not difficult to obtain.

A recommendation concerning this study is with respect to its scope and limitation as a pilot study. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. Therefore, it is recommended that a larger study be conducted to explore the outcomes associated with a larger sample size.

This research was conducted in conjunction with a single state defense force located in the Southern United States. Therefore, this research may not be representative of the state defense forces of other states or regions given the myriad of differing state laws and types of disasters that necessitate the use of such defense forces. It is recommended that this study be repeated among the state guards and defense forces of different states to investigate additional hypothesis testing outcomes.

A final recommendation for additional research concerns the basic hierarchical structure and nature of the state defense force. Because the volunteer service was an Army organization, this research may not be applicable to different state defense force paradigms (e.g., Navy; Air Force; etc.). Therefore, it is recommended that this study be repeated to investigate additional hypothesis outcomes that could be observed using Air Force and Naval hierarchies and organizational structures.

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RANK, GRADE, AND PAY: EXAMINING THE BASIC SERVICE PERCEPTIONS OF COMMISSIONED OFFICERS VERSUS NON-COMMISSIONED PERSONNEL OF A SOUTHERN STATE DEFENSE FORCE

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ABSTRACT

Given the lack of volunteerism literature dedicated to state defense forces, this research investigates various perceptions related to state defense force service. This research study considers the perceptions of commissioned officers versus the perceptions of non-commissioned personnel of a state defense force with respect to the volunteer organization. The use of ANOVA investigated perceptions associated with rank, grade, and payment for emergency duties. These hypothesis statements did not demonstrate a statistically significant outcome with respect to the perceptions of emergency duty pay or rank and grade being commensurate with the level of education attained. However, a statistically significant outcome was observed with respect to rank and grade being commensurate with the professional skills of volunteers.

INTRODUCTION

The volunteer members of state defense forces and state guard organizations may be called to state active duty by governors, and are paid only when called to active duty. Within the last few years, these state organizations have provided significant services during times of peril. Such organizations responded to the 1989 Alaska Recovery operations of the Exxon Valdez, and a response occurred with respect to the 1993 Tennessee tornadoes (Tulak, et. al., 2003). Tulak, et. al. Responses also occurred with respect to the 1996 New York TWA Flight 800 disaster and the 1996 winter storms in New York, Virginia, Maryland, and Oregon (Tulak, et. al., 2003). Pons (1999) indicates that a response occurred with respect to the 1998 Puerto Rico Hurricane George. Belfiglio (1999) indicates that such organizations were deployed to support operations of 1998 Texas color guards, crowd control, and search and rescue. The 2001 World Trade Center attacks also necessitated a response using state defense forces (Tulak, et. al., 2003). During 2005, Hurricane Katrina also necessitated the use of a state defense force (Mississippi State, n.d.).

Such state entities are a supporting element of National Guard units across the United States. Because of the implementation of the 1983 Total Force Concept, the state control of National Guard entities has significantly reduced (Blevins, 1999). Blevins (1999) further indicates that the existence of state militias serves the purposes of "public service and constabulary functions withdrawn by the constant drain" of human resources for "federal duty."

Volunteerism is an activity that occurs across a myriad of disciplines and organizations (Fisher and Ackerman, 1998). When considering volunteerism, images of hospitals, retirement homes, or youth programs are recognized as opportunities for volunteers of all ages. Examples of service organizations include the Freedom Corps; Civil Air Patrol (United States Air Force Auxiliary); United States Coast Guard Auxiliary; state defense forces; community hospitals; and a host of other entities ranging from local to international entities.

Simpson and Strang (2004) indicate that homeland security is of paramount importance after the attacks of September 11, 2001, and is advocated via the "first responder level" as a "locally based initiative." Within many states, a volunteer opportunity associated with homeland security involves membership within state sponsored defense forces known as state guards. These entities are generated by state governments, and are a source of volunteers that act as a disaster response entity to provide emergency relief personnel and services (Tulak, et. al., 2003).

Numerous studies have been performed to analyze various aspects of volunteerism and volunteer organizations. Studies ranging from senior citizen and police volunteerism to behavioral studies and the motivation of volunteers exist, and are common among discussions within a myriad of disciplines (Grabowski and Penn, 2003; Finkelstein and Penner, 2004; Yeung, 2004). However, despite the various views and materials, relatively little information is present concerning volunteerism in the context of state guards or state defense forces. Therefore, it is the purpose of this research to provide an analysis of perceptions related to the volunteer experience associated with such service. This research seeks to investigate a component of state defense force volunteer service with respect to perceptions concerning the volunteers of the organization.

METHODOLOGY

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SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

Because of the potential geographic and response biases and the complexity of the organizational settings, this research effort observed limitations. The area of interest for this study was confined to examining inquiries concerning the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force organization; the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member; and the perceptions of the volunteer state defense force member regarding the community served. Therefore, it was outside the scope of this study to investigate any additional area(s) of application or any discrete topic. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. This research was conducted in conjunction with a state defense force located in the Southern United States. Therefore, this research may not be representative of the state defense forces of other states or regions. The host environment implemented an Army environment and setting, chain of command, and organizational structure. Therefore, this research might not be completely applicable for larger organizations that exhibit more complex infrastructures beyond the state level. Given the differences among state laws and regulations, this research may not be applicable to all state defense forces. Because the volunteer service was an Army organization, this research may not be applicable to different state defense force paradigms (e.g., Navy; Air Force; etc.).

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Each of the hypothesis statements were tested with respect to personnel perceptions regarding the organizational aspects of the state defense force. The primary areas of investigation considered perceptions of duty payment being just and timely, rank and grade being commensurate with the level of education attained by the volunteer, and rank and grade being commensurate with the professional skills of the volunteer. The perceptions of the activities were considered via ANOVA analysis of the responses. The stratification of data involved classifying responses based on positions of commissioned officers versus non-commission personnel. The following table presents the outcomes of each of the tested hypothesis statements:

Table 1 - Hypothesis Testing Outcomes

HO	HA	F-Value	F-Critical	Significance
Payment for duty is just and timely timely.	Payment for duty is not just and	0.15	4.13	No
Rank and grade are commensurate with educational level.	Rank and grade are not commensurate with educational level.	2.57	4.13	No

Table 1 - Hypothesis Testing Outcomes				
HO	HA	F-Value	F-Critical	Significance
Rank and grade are commensurate with professional skills.	Rank and grade are not commensurate with professional skills.	4.79	4.13	Yes

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the tested hypothesis statements show that one of the tested hypothesis statements demonstrated a statistically significant outcome. The remaining hypothesis tests did not demonstrate a statistically significant outcome. The statistically significant outcome was manifested with respect to the investigation of perceptions concerning whether rank and grade were commensurate with professional skills. These findings suggest that personnel perceive that rank and grade were not commensurate with professional skills. Therefore, it is recommended that such personnel consider transferring to different positions or pursuing additional training opportunities to better suit professional skills with volunteer job functions. Further, it is recommended that the organization allocate human resources to better match professional skills with its available positions of rank and grade.

A recommendation concerning this study is with respect to its scope and limitation as a pilot study. Because this research was conducted as a pilot study, the outcomes may not necessarily be indicative of the outcomes that might be observed through the pursuit of a more extensive research effort. Therefore, it is recommended that a larger study be conducted to explore the outcomes associated with a larger sample size.

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GOLDRATT'S THINKING PROCESS APPLIED TO THE PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH THE GLASS CEILING EFFECT

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INTRODUCTION

The term "glass ceiling" was first coined in the United States. As women entered the workforce in increasing numbers, it became apparent that they could only rise "so far" in most organizations. Despite labor participation rates being among the highest in the world, American women are not proportionately represented in top management. While women make up more than 50% of the US corporate workforce, they hold only 11% of the Fortune 500 senior management positions, and only 2% of corporate board seats (Schneider, 2000).

According to the Federal Glass Ceiling Commission (1995), the concept 'glass ceiling' refers to "artificial barriers to the advancement of women and minorities." These barriers reflect "discrimination … a deep line of demarcation between those who prosper and those left behind." The glass ceiling is the "unseen, yet unbreachable barrier that keeps minorities and women from rising to the upper rungs of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualifications or achievements" (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995).

One undesirable effect stemming from this problem is that traditional business characteristics are opposite traditional feminine characteristics. The business world is run according to a masculine way of communicating, which includes being assertive, independent and individualistic. Feminine communication patterns involve team building, being sensitive to others needs and being people oriented. This perception involving the differences in women and men can have devastating effects on the woman's ability to get promoted. Another negative effect stemming from the glass ceiling effect is that women are often forced to adopt 'masculine qualities' in order to succeed in their chosen profession. Closely related to this is the fact that women are forced to suppress 'feminine qualities' in the business world because they have developed a negative connotation that helps to prevent women from advancing in there careers. Feminine communication and leadership styles are not respected in a business setting the way masculine traits are respected.

For example, there can be a bias present in the performance evaluation process. Women are often evaluated more negatively than their actual performance warrants (Greenhaus, et al., 1990; Igbaria and Wormley, 1992). "The attributions that supervisors invoke to explain their subordinates' performance influences their opinions regarding the subordinates' likelihood of future advancement (Igbaria & Baroudi, 1995). While supervisors attribute a male's good performance to ability and talent, they are more likely to attribute a woman's good performance to good luck, ease of task, or extraordinary effort (Ilgen & Youtz, 1986). However, when explaining a male's poor performance, they are more likely to say it was bad luck, and when explaining a female's poor performance, they were more likely to say it is low ability. This suggests that while men are credited for success and excused for failure, women are seen as personally accountable for their failures, and their successes are not given due credit (O'Leary, 1977). Sex-role stereotypes are the culprit in this instance. When women succeed in male-type tasks it is seen as a violation of sex-role expectations (Nieva and Gutek, 1980).

Another problem associated with the glass ceiling effect is that women do not belong in "the good ole' boys" club. An example of the "good ole' boys" club can be business lunches or deals made out on the golf course. One reason this is a negative factor in getting promotions is that when a supervisor belongs to the same group as his subordinates, i.e. the in-group, he may feel psychologically closer to them, and attribute their success to ability and skill (Green & Mitchell, 1979). Women are usually considered to be part of the out-group, and this may explain why supervisors are less likely to attribute their success to ability (Kanter, 1979). Another UDE relating to the glass ceiling effect is that women who have made it to the top pull the ladder up behind them. They do not help other women reach the top as well.

The fact that homemaking and childcare responsibilities are still considered a feminine realm adds another problem to the list. Also, many women choose to leave their jobs to raise a family in their 20's and 30's because these years are the peak years for childbearing. Unfortunately, just as for men, they are also the peak years for getting a promotion at work.

As more and more people get college degrees, women cannot depend on their technical skills as the only source of their expertise. Several decades ago, a woman with a college degree was closer to equal with the men who did not have degrees. But as both more men and women get a bachelor's degree; this degree has lost some of its pull as a source of expertise. Rather, the bachelor's degree has become so common, it is like having a high school diploma was years ago. It is more important than ever for women to refine communication skills and build social networks within companies in order to get recognized and promoted. It is hard for women to gain this special recognition, because many women are not as comfortable as their male counterparts at drawing attention to their accomplishments.

Trying to change traditions that have been engrained since the beginning of the human race is unrealistic. Even archetypal images show man as the hunter, the warrior, the provider. Woman is the mother, the homemaker and representation of all that is just and true. These images are engrained so distinctly in the human race as a whole, and particularly into our American culture, the most feasible route to breaking the glass ceiling lies with the women themselves. This is not an easy challenge. Women will need to observe the business world as a whole, quit saying that it is not fair that they do not belong right now, and step up to the challenge. They must make themselves belong.

Melanie Lee, the research director of Celltech in Britain, was awarded the title of Britain's best-paid businesswoman in 2001. She is a good example of the changes women will have to make in order to break the glass ceiling. Colleagues describe her as "no pushover," and say she has gained a reputation for uncompromising decisions (Clark, 2001). These descriptors are both masculine images. She has mastered the art of using masculine communication styles, and it has obviously paid off.

FURTHER ANAYLSIS

The three questions, (1) What to change? (2) What to change to? and (3) How to cause the change?, have now been addressed. A core problem has been found, and solutions suggested for change. It should be apparent by now that Goldratt's Thinking Process does work for any policy change, although it will require some unconventional ideas and approaches.

The analysis of this problem could continue by implementing the last two trees in the Thinking Process. These trees are beyond the scope of this paper, but can be useful tools for the last question: How to cause the change? The Prerequisite Tree identifies all of the implementation obstacles, and how to overcome them in a sequential order. The Transition Tree is the step-by-step implementation plan that embodies all of the actions necessary to put the solution into effect (Taylor, 2005).

AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The ideas examined in this paper are only a small part of the overarching problem known as the Glass Ceiling Effect. Further areas of study could include expanding this paper to encompass minorities and their plights with promotions into upper management positions. This study only addresses the Glass Ceiling Effect in the United States. It could be expanded to address worldwide issues relating to the glass ceiling. While the phrase "glass ceiling" was coined in the U.S., every industrialized country has a glass ceiling of some kind.

Also, many people are now using the term "double-paned" to go hand-in-hand with the glass ceiling, because even when women do breach the glass ceiling and reach top management positions, they still receive a much smaller paycheck than their male peers. Full-time female managers earned less than their male counter-parts in ten industries (these industries employ 73% of female managers in the United States), and in seven of the ten fields studied the earnings gap grew from 1995 to 2000. (Associated Press, 2002) Perhaps Goldratt's Thinking Process could be applied to this dilemma as well, and an answer could be found as to why this phenomenon is happening.

IMPLICATIONS

The glass ceiling is a reality in corporate America. Title II of the Civil Rights Act of 1991 created a 21 member, bipartisan team to make up the Federal Glass Ceiling Commission. The Commission's directive was to study the barriers to the advancement of women and minorities in the business sector and to then issue a report on the findings and conclusions, with recommendations on ways to break apart the glass ceiling. The Glass Ceiling Commission concluded, "successful companies will be those that seize the opportunity presented by increased diversity, to create a world in which inclusion is elicited and not coerced, and work to increase both the diversity of their workforces and the opportunities available to all members if their workforce" (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995).

Until this statement is a reality, women will have to be the ones that are willing to initiate a change. They will need to find a way to fit into the business sector, a "man's world," by any means necessary. They will have to work long hours, sacrifice time with their families, and find a way to network themselves into the social groups that are so important to getting the next promotion. Women must adapt their communication styles to mimic a more masculine tone, which will make them more assertive, individual and decisive; traits coveted in the business sector. Women in top management positions will need to help other women reach the top, so that slowly the reality of a more equal workplace is finally established.

The time to start the change is now. According to the Census Bureau, women are making their way into managerial positions. "There were more than 7.1 million women in full-time executive, administrative or managerial positions in 1998 – a 29 percent jump from 1993. Approximately 9.4 million men held the same kinds of positions, but that represented only a 19 percent increase" (Associated Press, 2002). As more and more women break the barriers to top managerial positions, the glass ceiling will fade away and will eventually be something taught in the history books, similar to the Civil Rights movement and the Women's Movement of earlier centuries. Until then, women everywhere must do their part to level the playing field.

SUMMARY

This procedure, although somewhat different from the normal methods of analysis, is so practical, that it can be applied to any problem anywhere at anytime. According to Goldratt [1992-b], you start with an effect in reality. Then hypothesize a plausible cause for the existence of that effect. Since the aim is to reveal the underlying causes that govern the entire subject, try to validate the hypothesis by predicting what else this hypothesis must cause. Once such predictions are found, concentrate efforts to verify whether or not each prediction holds water by asking questions. If it turns out that one of the predictions doesn't hold up, find another hypothesis. If all of them hold up, continue until the entire subject is understood through the bonds of cause and effect.

Bob Fox [1989], President of the Goldratt Institute, states: I do not believe any longer that the challenge is the technology of what to do. That has been well developed - maybe not disseminated very well yet, but developed. The issue is the resistance to change once we know what to do, and I believe there is a solution to that. This method of problem solving requires ability that everyone has and stems from the systematic methods and thinking processes. It provides you with the framework necessary to direct these efforts and to verbalize your intuition to gain a better understanding of managements "intestinal sensations."

Everyone has self-doubt. This self-doubt makes it very difficult to use the scientific method of analysis. Goldratt [1992-c] reveals, the scientific method involves reaching into the unknown; speculating a cause and determining predicted effects probably requires an awkward personality that thrives on the unknown. But we are dealing with the known, with current reality. There must be an equivalent method, a thinking process that facilitates building a current reality tree within the known, and we can effectively use it on any subject that we have intuition for and care about.

This cause and effect approach is used in many areas of science and math. The demonstrated thinking process is what managers need the most. To carry out a successful process of ongoing improvement there is nothing more important than the ability to answer: What to change, What to change to, and How to cause the change. The results are well worth the required investments.

THE EFFECTS OF DISTANCE AND PROXIMITY ON COLLABORATION SOFTWARE EVALUATION

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the varying effects of geographic distance and close proximity on the members of work groups and their beliefs about information systems. We measured beliefs concerning the participants' intention to continue system use, satisfaction, perceived system usefulness, and confirmation of system expectations associated with the use of collaboration systems for completing group projects. We were particularly interested how access to information systems and proximity between team members affected participants' beliefs about the systems.

INTRODUCTION

The traditional ways of accomplishing work by teams located in the same room or even the same facility are quickly giving way to radically different team formation models. Business organizations are evolving into collections of collaborative teams whose members may be located in various parts of the state, the country, or even the world. Team members frequently belong to different departments or different organizations. Successful accomplishment of the task relies heavily on how the team members interact using the collaboration software provided to the team. Research literature in this area is in its infancy. In fairness, there have been collaboration system studies(Bradner & Mark, 2002) involving proximity with teams completing very short tasks (about an hour); findings show participants initially cooperate less, deceive more, and are persuaded less by distant team members. To date, researchers have not considered whether distance between collaborating team members working on realistic (not contrived) tasks is related to indicators associated with continued usage of the collaborative communication information systems.

We expected that team members working in close proximity would be less satisfied with the technology than those who were geographically separated. One explanation for differences in satisfaction levels is that greater geographic distance requires greater dependence on the software for communication. Results of the study expand our knowledge concerning the appropriate use of communication software, given the geographic distance between team members.

INFORMATION SYSTEM CONTINUANCE

The success of a collaborative team is highly dependent on the members' initial acceptance and continuing use of the information system. The continuance behavior allows the team members to share data and accomplish their tasks. Bhattacherjee (2001) developed a theory of information systems continuance, which incorporates elements from the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991); theories of consumer satisfaction and post-purchase or post acceptance behaviors (Rogers, 1995); the technology acceptance model (TAM) (Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1989), and expectation-confirmation theory (ECT) (Oliver, 1980). According to Bhattacherjee's framework, individuals form expectations of a particular technology prior to using the software. As they begin using the technology, individuals form perceptions about its performance levels. Initial acceptance does not assure continued use of the technology. Bhattacherjee developed measures of satisfaction, performance levels, degree to which expectations were confirmed, and intentions to use similar technology in the future. In testing his framework, Bhattacherjee found that satisfaction with use of the system was the strongest predictor of continuance followed by perceived usefulness and confirmation of system expectations.

PROXIMITY IN TEAMS

Bhattacherjee's (2001) study involved the use of online banking systems, and he found that satisfaction, confirmation, and perceived usefulness all affect an individual's intention to continue using the information system. We suggest that these four variables could, in turn, be affected by the proximity of team members when the information system in question is a collaboration system. Members in close proximity should view the system as unnecessary and less useful. Distance among group members should increase the necessity of using the system, thereby increasing its usefulness and their intentions to continue using the system.

ACCESS TO TECHNOLOGY

Performance is a function of ability, effort, and opportunity. Individuals bring their abilities and personal motivation to the team. Opportunity to employ those abilities is provided by organizations in the form of tools, time, direction, and other materials and technology. Collaborating teams will need a reliable collaboration system and access to both computers and the system in order to accomplish their tasks. When the organization can make these tools available on a consistent basis, performance should be higher. We expect that teams with more access to computers and the collaboration system on a regular basis will be better satisfied and express more intentions to continue using the collaboration system.

METHOD

The research design for this study draws on Bhattacherjee's (2001) study of collaborating work teams. This study involved multiple rounds of data collection from participants (30 female, 66 male) at two different universities in the southeastern United States. The research design involved two proximity (close and distant) conditions and two access (good and poor) conditions. The distant proximity condition linked groups of International Management students at University A with information systems students at University B while the close proximity condition involved students working with others at their respective institution. Working in teams, the students collaborated throughout the semester on a joint research project, using WebCT as their communication technology. Access to computers in the classroom varied at each institution. Participants at University B met in an electronic classroom with access to computers and the collaboration system during every class period. Participants at University A met in a classroom that did not contain computers, and these teams only had access to computers and the collaboration system during rare lab days scheduled throughout the semester. The project assigned to the students was geared to today's global economy. Students collected and shared data related to the general business environment and technological capabilities of specific countries in various regions of the world. The goal was determining which countries and/or regions are best suited for global expansion by multinational corporations. The collaborative nature of the experiential project was particularly germane for business students who are likely to work collaboratively in similar ways in their future careers.

In the close proximity condition, participants shared data with their local team members on the same campus. In the distant proximity condition, they shared data with both local team members and with a corresponding team located at the other university. Shared information included complex tasks that required analysis of the shared data and preparation of charts to be used by their corresponding teams. Thus, the participants were completing tasks over a three-month period that were quite similar to work accomplished in today's business environment. Within their local team at their own university, members could use WebCT and well as face-to-face meetings for completing their assignments. However, all correspondence with the corresponding teams at the other university was accomplished via WebCT.

Surveys were completed at the end of each semester. Participant responses were collected via electronic online surveys. Bhattacherjee's 14-instrument was used to measure satisfaction, perceived usefulness, degree to which expectations were confirmed, and intentions to use similar technology in the future.

RESULTS

A 2x2 between-subjects multivariate analysis of covariance was used to analyze the data. The four dependent variables were intention to continue system use, satisfaction, confirmation and perceived usefulness. The independent variables were access to computers in the classroom (good and poor) and proximity (close and distant) to indicate whether the teams were communicating with their own members on the same campus or, in the distant condition, with members on the same campus and with members of a correspondent team located on the other campus.

The test of overall differences among groups, using Hotelling's Trace and an alpha level of .05, showed that combined DVs were significantly related to proximity (close or distant) $F(4,89)=3.01$ $p=.02$, access $F(4,89)=4.89$ $p=.001$, and the interaction of access and proximity $F(4,89)=6.21$, $p<.001$.

Univariate effects for proximity were significant for intention to continue system use $F(1,92)=10.24$ $p=.002$, satisfaction $F(1,92)=8.14$ $p=.005$, and confirmation $F(1,92)=5.84$ $p=.018$, but not for perceived usefulness $F(1,92)=3.48$ $p=.080$. Univariate effects for access were significant for intention to continue system use $F(1,92)=11.81$ $p=.001$, satisfaction $F(1,92)=4.13$ $p=.045$, confirmation $F(1,92)=12.60$ $p=.001$ and perceived usefulness $F(1,92)=16.29$ $p<.001$. Similarly, univariate effects for the interaction of access and proximity were significant for intention to continue system use $F(1,92)=19.52$ $p<.001$, satisfaction $F(1,92)=11.08$ $p=.001$, confirmation $F(1,92)=10.76$ $p=.001$ and perceived usefulness $F(1,92)=20.38$ $p<.001$.

Teams with good access to computers and the collaboration system rated the system higher when communicating with their members on the same campus than when they were communicating with their correspondent team from the other university. Teams with poor access to computers and the collaboration system rated the system lower for communicating with their members on the same campus, but they rated the system higher for communicating with the corresponding team from the other university.

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Results of this study are highly relevant to today's business environment. One reason that participants working in close proximity viewed the information system less favorably, especially when access to computers was poor, is that they were still meeting face-to-face. Previous research shows that collocated teams allow team members to share nuanced information, provide rapid feedback, and share a local context (Olson & Olson, 2003), all without the aid of a computer information system. These positive characteristics of collocated teams were also present when team members communicated in the close proximity condition with good access to computers. So why did these participants rate the system more favorably than similar participants in the distant proximity condition? We suggest that participants in the distant proximity condition could not count on these collocated team characteristics when communicating with participants at a distant university and, therefore, rated the system less favorably.

Collaborating with team members across the globe is fast becoming a norm in today's business environment. Studies such as this test the parameters than make these collaborations successful and productive for organizations. Further research is encouraged using realistic tasks and considering additional variables.

This study should be of interest to other researchers in the fields of management, team dynamics, information technology, and job design. The results may benefit designers of collaboration software and technology, educators using collaboration software in the classroom, and business leaders who assign and manage group projects in the workplace.

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INVESTIGATING THE EFFECTS OF STANDARDIZATION ON LOCAL IT MANAGEMENT: A CASE STUDY OF GLOBAL CORPORATION

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ABSTRACT

As the globalization phenomenon evolves, it is critical for firms to adopt viable strategies to survive such new competition and prepare for opportunities. The main purpose of this paper is to investigate how standardized operation strategy affects the role of IT managers in a cross cultural environment. Specifically, the study focuses on the issue of conflict management through a real life business case to pinpoint lessons learned and successful practices. Based on a critical review over existing literature, the authors first synthesize established conceptual developments and then make theoretical inferences of the following aspects: strategy standardization among global divisions, process approach, and conflict models. A major deliverable of such effort is the research model explaining conflicts management under global strategy. Since the strengths of case study approach lie in analyzing social phenomenon that is embodied by actors (e.g. IT managers) and their behavior, the major findings are generated through participant observation and unstructured interviews. The authors found that local IT manager is strongly influenced by operational strategy stipulated by headquarter. Although such high level of agreement ensures the execution of standardized policy, it gives marginal space to local personnel in terms of creativity and localization.

Keywords: Globalization, Conflict Management, IT Manager, Cross Cultural Study, Information and Communication Technology

INTRODUCTION

Globalization has had an enormous effect on management disciplines (Ford, Connelly, and Meister, 2003). As the geographical dispersion of company's activities is growing, the work process has not been confined to specific local and the projects have employed the multinational, interdisciplinary, and multi-organizational partnership to overcome the inefficiency due to the dispersion (Horwitz, Bravington, and Silvis, 2006; Chinowsky and Rojas, 2003). Global strategy, on the other hand, attempts to develop the resources of one subunit or subsidiary to create competitive advantage of other subunits or subsidiaries (Ohmae, 1990; Edstr and Galbraith, 1977). The strategy emphasizes similarities cross countries in terms of technology, political and economic environment, and consumer behaviors such as needs, tastes, and preferences (Ohmae, 1990).

The implementation of information technology (IT) is strongly affected by the strategy because information systems have become critical functional enablers of business process (Banker and Kauffman, 2004). However, global information systems have not been given much attention in IS research. The role of IT manager has become increasingly important as IT has been extensively adopted in all different levels of business function and become essential in organization (Banker and Kauffman, 2004). Workforces of an organization get supports from their IT manager or staff because of lack of knowledge on IT artifacts or systems. It is noticed that IT managers in foreign branch of multinational operation are unique in the sense that they face dual conflicts: one is between local IT manager and headquarters caused by cultural difference existing between headquarters and subsidiaries, and the other is between the IT manager and local workforces. Due to lack of knowledge on IT artifacts or systems, end users in foreign branch are hard to claim their problem to headquarters directly. The primary goal of the study, therefore, is to identify how firm global strategy affects local IT management and investigate how the strategy influences local IT manager and conflicts occurring between headquarter and local IT manager as well as conflict between local IT manager and local end users.

Theoretical Development and Research model

Constructive conflict approach provides concrete basement to understand the conflict resolution process to attain goal. To provide comprehensive view on role of local IT manager in IT management, however, we have to consider characteristics of the local IT manager, which is different from those of IT managers in national firms. Thus we develop the conflict model to identify factors affecting conflicts in IT management.

Participation, in our model, refers to the extent to which local IT manager of foreign branch have authority to independently engage in activities to the achievement of goals. As participation of local IT managers, they can respond promptly and properly on local IT requirements and satisfy local IT end users. However, such independence would increase conflict with headquarters because lack of time to discuss with headquarters. On the other hands, low participation of local IT managers would fail to respond local requirements fast although it has an advantage of decreasing conflict with headquarters. We, thus, argue that active participation of local IT managers increases conflict with headquarters and, on the other hand, decreases conflict with local workforces.

Under the standardized control, however, headquarters employ same IT strategy to all foreign branches without considering cultural difference or local requirements. The participation of local IT manager in foreign branch is restricted because such strategy allows very limited autonomy to the local IT manager. Such standard strategy often raises troubles because unique environment or requirement of local branch it ignored and the respondent on such requirements is late under the strategy.

Conflict is defined as the disagreement on IT management. Local IT manager has dual conflicts with headquarters and with local workforces in IT management. The high conflict is expected to deter the successful implementation of IT strategy. Conflict with headquarters would be increased by high cultural difference, high participation, and multi-domestic strategy. On the other hands, conflict with local workforces would be increased by low participation, poor media communication, and global strategy.

Culture is unique dimension of source of conflict in multinational enterprise. It is defined as "a complex representational system constituting identities and symbols and also as a feature, which binds individuals or groups of individuals to a certain set of values, beliefs, understandings and ways of sense-making" (Scheytt et al, 2003, p. 519). In other words, culture is a point of reference in establishing identity, value, and norm of individual (Scheytt, Soin, and Metz, 2003). Different cultures have different value, norm, and identity and these differences cause to make it hard to understand the way that people in other culture conduct. Cultural conflict represents disagreement caused by cultural difference between headquarters and subsidiary. Cultural difference, however, can be diminished by communication. Rich media can transmit complex information including non-verbal cues as well as multimedia data such as video, audio, and text data. It is pointed that silent behavior such as body orientation, facial expression, and eye movement are critical factors in effective and interactive communication (Ucok, 2006). The research model is presented in figure 2.

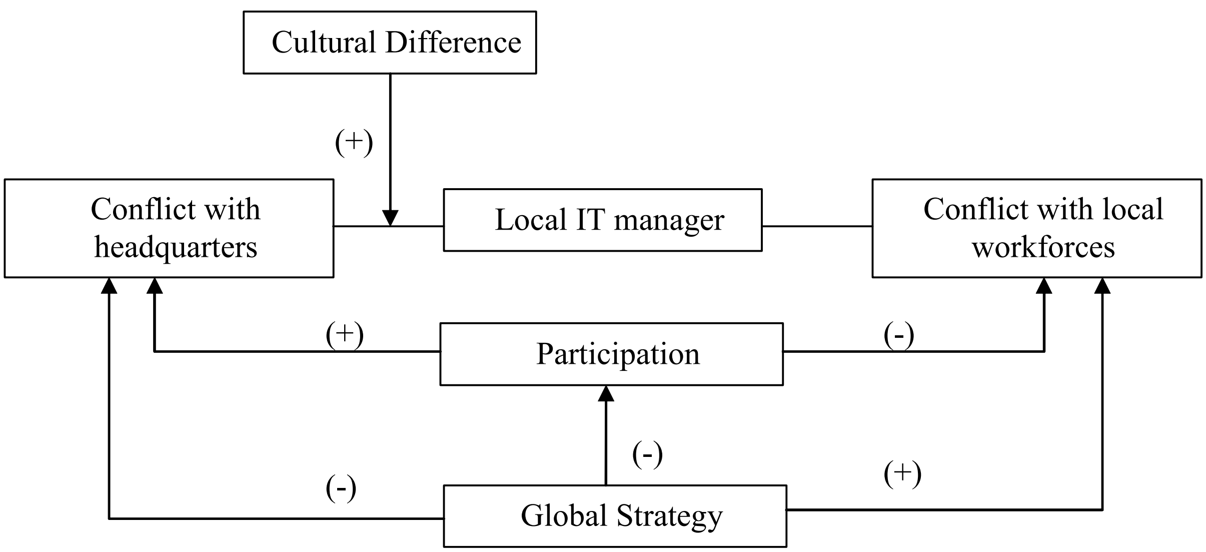

Figure 2 Research Model

METHODOLOGY AND FINDINGS

Case study methodology is used because it can reach meaningful insights when a phenomenon is little known, or research for the phenomenon is early stage (Hovav and Schuff, 2005). Case studies adopt interpretivism, assuming that knowledge is the product of social construction by human actors and social phenomenon should be studied from the perspective of the actors in the context in which the phenomenon occurs (Shoib and Nandhakumar, 2003). Such an approach provides in-depth understanding of decision making in IS adoption and implementation in organizations in different contexts (Shoib and Nandhakumar, 2003; Walsham, 1993). We carefully decided conditions for choosing object of case studies. First, IT manager in foreign branch should have heterogeneous cultural background with staffs or IT manager in headquarters. Second, IT should be employed and used extensively in foreign branch. Third, the company should be multinational enterprise, which has subsidiaries in several countries. Fourth the subsidiary which is the object of case studies should be strategically meaningful to the company. The study on Company X was carried out in the subsidiary of a United Kingdom based multinational corporation in South Korea. The case study is very extensive given that it is conducted in non-Western country context (Shoib and Nandhakumar, 2003). Since the two countries have totally different cultural background, the case will present clear and concrete base to identify the effect of cultural difference on IT management. Company X is an organization that works to enhance safety and to approve assets and systems at sea, on land and in the air. The key area of the company is to inspect shipbuilding. The business principally involves classification of ships, which sets standards of quality and reliability during their design, construction and operation. The headquarter of the company locates on UK and subsidiaries of the company are spread across Asian countries such as Hong Kong, Japan, China, South Korea, Singapore, Malaysia, and India.

We employed qualitative data gathering methods such as participant observation and unstructured interviews over period of time. The study at Company X involved one of the authors as a participant observer. During 2 years (2006-2007), the author visited main office in South Korea occasionally to observe and interview IT manager. The focus has been put on the role of IT manager and the interaction with headquarters related to IT management. From the interview and observation, we found that participation of local IT manager is strongly affected by headquarters' strategy. Local IT manager of the company X has very marginal authority to determine in IT management. All resources and functions are centered on headquarters that local IT manager has a little resource or authority to affect decisions made by headquarter. As we expected, the standardized strategy shrinks participation of local IT manager in problem solving process. It increases conflicts with local end users because remedy from headquarters often is not available on right time. Furthermore, there is no guarantee that the remedy works at first try. Thus it is common thing that end users ask a help to local IT manager directly instead of making an official ‘call' to headquarter because such way is more efficient and faster.

Such requests, however, are social influence to IT manager because of his/her private and social relationship with end users. When local IT manager are forced to accept the requests, the conflict with end-user decreases because end users can get prompt remedy and save a lot of time and effort followed making a ‘call.' But the conflict with headquarter increases because ‘calls' are not officially created and local IT manager has no records to work. On the other hand, the conflict with end users increases when local IT manager do not accept their requests and attempts to make a ‘call' whereas the conflict with headquarter decreases because his work history is left in the main server. The conflict between headquarters and local managers is low because local IT manager is asked to convey decisions made by headquarters and consult all things with staffs of headquarters in all IT management process. Cultural difference combining with headquarters' strategy affects level of adoption of the strategy. For example, Three Eastern-Asian countries, Japan, South Korea, and China shows difference in terms of adoption level of the strategy even though they have similar cultural background compare to western countries. Japan is early adopter. In most cases, end users report problems to headquarters directly even though such way is to wait much time to be given remedy. A little conflict occurs between headquarter and local office. On the other hands, China is late majority, which means that most end users prefer to approach local IT manager directly, instead of taking official way to get assistance. Specially, end users of China often attempt to visit main office or make a call to IT manager to solve their problem. It expands conflicts between headquarters and local IT manager as well as local end users. Workers in South Korea locate between Japan and China. The conflict between headquarters and local office is, however, lower than that of China but higher than that of Japan. We, thus, argue that the level of adoption of standardized strategy is affected by cultural difference.

Discussion and Conclusion

The role of local IT manager is increasingly important as activities of firms are expanding geographically. The local IT manager is unique in that the manager has to handle two different conflicts: one with headquarter, and the other with local end users. In the context, it is very important to understand the characteristics of conflicts and identify factors affect the conflict to obtain practical implication.

Under the standardized strategy, active participation of local IT manager would increase the conflict with headquarter whereas it decreases the conflicts with local end users. Cultural difference increases the conflict with headquarter and affect the level of adoption of the strategy. However, media richness has restrictive effect on decreasing conflict with headquarter and cultural difference.

The major limitations of this study stems from sample. We only adapt one case and it is very limited in providing in-depth understanding on a phenomenon. The findings cannot be applied into other companies and be generalized because each company has different or unique environment affecting conflicts. Also the findings do not provide comprehensive view on research topic because IT staffs or managers in headquarters and local end users are not surveyed. Thus, the result can be biased because it relies on local IT manager's perspective only.

In future study, it needs to include diverse samples and include the perspectives of headquarter and local end users to provide comprehensive view about conflicts that local IT manager is facing.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE UPON REQUEST