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LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

Welcome to the second issue of the *Academy of Strategic and Organizational Leadership Journal*. The Academy of Strategic and Organizational Leadership is an affiliate of the Allied Academies, Inc., a non profit association of scholars whose purpose is to encourage and support the advancement and exchange of knowledge, understanding and teaching throughout the world. The *ASOLJ* is a principal vehicle for achieving the objectives of the organization. The editorial mission of this journal is to publish empirical and theoretical manuscripts which advance the discipline, and applied, educational and pedagogic papers of practical value to practitioners and educators. We look forward to a long and successful career in publishing articles which will be of value to many scholars around the world.

The articles contained in this volume have been double blind refereed. The acceptance rate for manuscripts in this issue, 25%, conforms to our editorial policies.

We intend to foster a supportive, mentoring effort on the part of the referees which will result in encouraging and supporting writers. We welcome different viewpoints because in differences we find learning; in differences we develop understanding; in differences we gain knowledge and in differences we develop the discipline into a more comprehensive, less esoteric, and dynamic metier.

The Editorial Policy, Editorial Board Members, background and history of the organization, and calls for conferences are published on our web site. In addition, we keep the web site updated with the latest activities of the organization. Please visit our site and know that we welcome hearing from you at any time.

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MANUSCRIPTS

MANAGERIAL COMMITMENT PROCESS IN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: FINDINGS FROM A CASE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

While the literature on managing organizational change abounds with descriptions and prescriptions of the crucial role of top management as a change agent, research on managerial commitment processes seems to be quite scarce. In the management literature, a position-bound commitment of management is an assumption which has not often been called into question. Systematic evidence is needed to increase the understanding of:

- * What role do different managerial levels play?*
- * Does management commit itself to change and how does commitment occur?*

This paper aims at answering these questions by presenting findings from an empirical case study of management commitment in the context of organizational quality improvement program. The study was conducted in a Finnish medium-sized company in the food industry. The findings suggest that managerial commitment is not based on managerial authority and position only. Commitment creation is a culture-related process. Organizational culture affects the tendency for change and commitment, in general. Managerial behavior has effect on the degree of achieved commitment on different managerial levels. The focus of commitment seems to differ between different managerial levels which implies that the division of managerial tasks has an influence on what managers commit themselves to and how commitment occurs.

INTRODUCTION

The research project on managerial commitment processes, which is partly presented in this paper, has its background in two main perceptions: 1) Commitment has become an element of the dynamics of business strategy (Ghewamat, 1991); 2) Managerial commitment processes are not well understood although management commitment is commonly stressed in the management and organizational change literature. In the field of quality management, in particular, commitment has

been prescribed as a crucial requirement for the successful implementation of quality improvement. The systematic evidence of the practices seems to be scarce and empirical research is, thus, well grounded for both academic and practical reasons. This paper sheds further light on how managers commit themselves to change by providing findings from a case study focused on the managerial commitment process. A qualitative case study approach was adopted in this study, due to scarce empirical work in this area. Concentration on one company made it possible to produce empirically-grounded results through rich descriptions, in-depth analyses and thorough interpretations. Methodologically, the study can be categorized as an inductive type of research meaning that the field work played an important role.

The findings from commitment process indicate that it is related to several management and organization behavioral factors which shape commitment creation. In this case, the lack of commitment at the senior management level was related to the perceived meaning and content of change, and the strategy of change. Deficiencies in the whole management system (vague philosophy and values, undeveloped planning and goal setting practices.) had effect on the slow progress of the change program. Dysfunctional organizational culture, featured by a kind of purposeless and the lack of vision, turned out to be the ultimate hindrance for achieving high commitment among management.

Position-bound commitment of management could not be found. It appears that managerial commitment to organizational change is generated through a gradual learning process involving the adoption of new ideas, talking about them, and transforming them into actions. As senior management played an invisible role, in this case, and did not show high commitment (but rather half-hearted), middle managers' commitment remained low, too. Middle managers expected an active and visible role of top and upper management and regarded it as the most critical factor for their commitment. The lack of commitment at the senior management level was related to the perceived meaning and content of change, and the strategy of change. Although the change program was organization-wide and top management was involved in launching the program, the change strategy, that focused on constructing a quality system, aroused scepticism as a bureaucratic tool for improving operational level processes. As a consequence, from the very beginning of the improvement process, there were doubts among the management about the successful integration of the new quality system with the company's management system.

MANAGEMENT COMMITMENT IN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

In managing organizational change the understanding of commitment creation and related factors is important (Locke et.al, 1988). Commitment is closely related to changes in organizational life because change requires commitment (Noe & Schmitt, 1986) In the literature on managing change, management's role as a change agent is considered significant (Beer et.al, 1990, Mezias & Glynn, 1993, Tushman & Romanelli, 1985). That is why focusing on commitment creation on the managerial level is well grounded.

As quality management has been discussed from organization theoretical perspective in prior literature and studies, it is generally characterized as organizational change or transformation (see e.g. Olian & Rynes, 1991, Spencer, 1994, Savolainen, 1994). It has also been defined as a multifaceted, strategic change process linked with the overall development of a business enterprise (Lascelles, 1988). This change process aims at the improvement of the efficiency and flexibility of the entire business. The quality improvement approach involves the renewal of attitudes and skills and the embedding of new quality philosophy in an organization signifies organization cultural change (Crosby, 1979, Oakland, 1993, Olian & Rynes, 1991, Spencer, 1994).

The development of quality-oriented management system is an organization-wide change process, which requires management commitment (Lascelles & Dale, 1990). In the quality management literature, management commitment is depicted as preeminent, indispensable or crucial for successful quality improvement (Crosby, 1979, Deming, 1989, Garvin, 1988, Juran, 1988). Commitment is the first step in the implementation models. The quality literature lists managerial responsibilities as follows: shaping organizational culture, advancing quality awareness and values, strategic quality management, the development and communication of quality policy, setting quality goals, measuring quality costs, and directing quality management systems development. In the quality management literature, however, management commitment seems to be an assumption or a self-evident prescription which has rarely been called into question.

In managing organizational change, managerial commitment draws on one of the core concepts of leadership, interpersonal influence (Yukl, 1989), and on the important role that management plays as a change agent and catalyst. Managerial influence in commitment process becomes visible in catalyzing and effecting change through different actions. On the other hand, a managerial actor is in the process of committing him/herself, too. Any type of change requires managerial support (Mezias & Glynn, 1993), in essence, a powerful actor for leading and accomplishing change efforts. As Beer et al. (1990) contend: "corporate renewal is not an impersonal process unfolding of its own accord. It is possible only when individual managers at the unit and corporate level have sufficient commitment and skills." In the quality management literature, the managerial actor view is highlighted as an antecedent in carrying through quality improvement processes (Crosby, 1979, Deming 1985, Feigenbaum, 1983, Garvin, 1988, Juran, 1988). According to Juran's famous cliché: "management commitment is pertinent to every successful quality revolution, no exceptions are known!"

The actor perspective thus proposes that management is a "natural", active part of the dynamics of the organizational change process by which developmental actions are realized. Collaborative/participative management style seems to be essential for the process of implanting new ideas and systems. As Hoffherr et al. (1994) put it: "the new ideology must frequently be a championed cause, introduced and sustained by one strong leader"

Commitment research has been done in the field of psychology and, as for the organizations, in the field of organizational psychology, more specifically. Commitment has been studied as

organizational and work commitment. The research has mainly focused on the workforce (Locke et.al, 1988). In these studies, the individual commitment has been defined as organizational or goal commitment. Goal commitment is closely related to goal acceptance: by definition it refers to the individual's attachment to a goal or determination to reaching a goal (Locke et.al, 1988). Organizational commitment can be defined as the relative strength of the identification of an individual with and involvement in a particular organization (Modway et.al, 1979). Based on these definitions, commitment is an active relationship with an organization, not just a passive membership.

Two main approaches to studying commitment have been applied in commitment research: first, the behavioral approach, which focuses on commitment-related behaviors (overt manifestations, actions); and second, the attitudinal approach, which refers to the individual's identification with an organization and its goals (manifested in opinions and beliefs (Modway et.al, 1979). In this paper, both approaches are combined, and managerial commitment is explored by gathering data on managers' perceptions of their beliefs and actions concerning commitment.

EMPIRICAL CASE STUDY SETTING

The case study was conducted in a medium-sized, family-owned but professionally managed Finnish company. The company was in the mature stage of its life-cycle and the organizational culture was preserving, and at least, partly dysfunctional. The competitive environment of the company underwent major changes; the struggle for market shares and price competition had substantially tightened in the late 80's and early 90's. This company employed 270 workers including a few subsidiaries and the net annual sales was about 24 million US dollars.

A qualitative case study approach was adopted in this study, due to scarce empirical work in this area. Concentration on one company made a rich description possible, as well as the in depth analysis and interpretation of the data. Methodologically, the study can be categorized as an inductive type of research. In this case, the field work played an important role and the role of the theoretical work was to provide a pre-understanding for the field work.

The study was based on the Aristotelian or hermeneutical research tradition which was manifested in the adopted research strategy. As the objective was to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon (cf. von Wright, 1971), an interpretive method was applied to working with data of managers' perceptions. This method is also called an "action research type" strategy (Mäkinen, 1980) which means understanding human intentions and behavior including action in their broader and historical context. The study is a dynamic, processual description focusing on the early stages of organizational change process; i.e. on decision-making, planning and the beginning of implementation. In the case company, organizational change through quality improvement meant the development of a management system. In this process, the role of management was assumed significant in initiating and launching a new system.

The selection of the case company was first based on the criteria to get an access to a firm which had only recently started organizational change process, and, more importantly, in which the development process would be organization-wide and significant enough to draw top management's attention. The company's size and structure suit the purpose well because hierarchical levels of management and divisions of labor were found.

As regards to change needs, the company's status formed a fertile basis for the study. No systematic attempts of quality improvement were previously made. The idea of the development of a quality management system had been germinating as long as three years before the board of directors made the final decision about the project. According to managing director, the most significant pressures for change were external, more specifically, European integration and increasing competition. The rest of the top management and the middle management level, on the other hand, perceived internal change needs as the most prominent. Inside the organization, the pressure for organization-wide development was due to many emerging operational problems in different functions.

The intensive collection of mainly qualitative data was made by open-ended and semi-structured in-depth interviews with the whole top and middle management, with the project manager. In addition, a few supervisors and workers were interviewed, 16 interviewees in all. Complementary written documents were used, too, including the minutes of meetings, annual reports, in-house journals and announcements and documents of the quality system project. Temporally, the data included both past and present observations covering the period of about four years, 1990-94. All interviews were recorded and transcribed. For the analyses and interpretation, transcriptions were sorted out by themes and by managerial levels.

The following research questions were addressed to explore managers' perceptions of their role and commitment:

1. *What role does the management play?*

** How do managers perceive their role, responsibilities and duties in the change process.*

2. *Does the management commit itself to change and how?*

** How do managers perceive and experience commitment and how is it created.*

** What kind of measures do managers take as a manifestation of their commitment.*

RESULTS

At both top and middle management levels, perceptions of taking quality responsibility were general in nature (rhetorical). Management recognized the well-known TQM principal of "everybody-is-responsible-for-quality" but it rather seemed to be an ideal goal (depicted as espoused theory by Argyris & Schön, 1978). As a whole, managers' perceptions of quality responsibility mainly focused on how the responsibility should be shared, not how it is actually shared. Top management perceived the responsibility to be equal on every organizational level, in principal. Other managers perceived that implanting a new quality management system would assume greater responsibility to workers. - Many expectations regarding a new and better management system were expressed, such as planning and goal setting, and the clarification of organizational quality philosophy.

Concerning the management's commitment-related actions, the intensity and way of the participation varied. As a whole, a personal presence and contribution seemed to be lacking. Education and quality awareness did not seem to advance managers' commitment. Systematic training for the management was not organized at the beginning of the program and no quality advocate rose among management to propagating quality values consciously and visibly. The priority was given to constructing the quality system and quality values and philosophy was not discussed in the first place. Likewise, communication was not a managerial means for getting subordinates involved. In the involvement of subordinates, managerial actions varied from active personal participation (communication and exemplar) to nearly total passivity among both top and middle management levels.

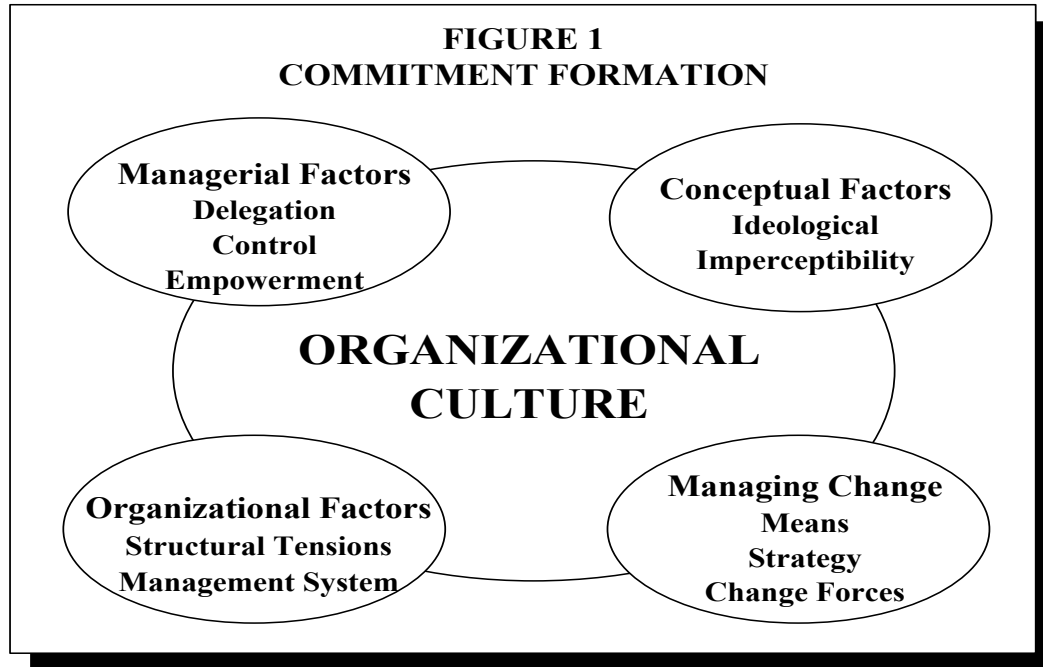
Management's collective commitment, which was especially expected in middle management, could not be found. Part of the middle management regarded their participation as duty-bound. This group was concerned about the sufficiency of time and they mainly seemed to concentrate on daily routines. But managers spontaneously associated management commitment with quality improvement and regarded it as very significant. As a manifestation of commitment, top management declared quality policy but was not actually visible otherwise. Middle management perceived the declared policy as the "framed picture of commandments" hanging on the wall, which was not realized in daily practices. Anyway, it was a signal to the organization that top management was taking note of quality issues. The process of quality goal setting turned out to be difficult because of an elusive quality concept and management philosophy. Quality goals were discussed among managers but the development of measurement tools was perceived as difficult. For example, managers could not even estimate the amount or the class of size of quality costs. In this case, it was apparent that in implanting a new quality management system emphasis would be on the improvement of the whole management system (on the strategic and operational planning and goal-setting, in particular).

Top management played quite an invisible role but middle managers regarded its role as significant. They expected an active and visible role and considered top management commitment the most critical factor for their commitment. In addition, the support of the colleagues on the same organization level proved to be important for middle managers. The meeting practices of the management quality board illustrated the "faceless" role of the top management, as meetings were canceled repeatedly. This did not change in the course of a process. Due to this, the middle management expressed frustration and disappointment in the phase of transforming from the planning phase of the quality system to its implementation. The fact that some of the middle managers were more deeply involved in the project afforded them only a minor opportunity to compensate the lack of senior management's commitment, "ex officio".

Management perceived the commitment process individually. Some of them thought it was the easiest part, while others considered it the most difficult. This process consisted of adopting new ideas and values, taking part in discussing goals, setting and approving and embracing them. Furthermore, managers perceived the focus of commitment differently. Perceptions varied according to the management level. Middle management described commitment as a process in which the priority was the achievement of the concrete outcome, a quality system manual, and gave secondary importance to their involvement in the implementation and maintenance of the quality system. Moreover, they associated their involvement with the doing, in other words, to the progress of the construction of the quality system. Senior management, on the other hand, seemed to focus on thinking and talking, this is to say, on more philosophical discussion and understanding of the principals of quality management. Senior management willingly approved quality and regarded it as the important survival means for the company but was skeptical toward the functionality of the quality system at the same time because of bureaucracy and laborious sustenance and maintainability.

DISCUSSION

Managerial perceptions of their role and commitment reflect *conceptual and ideological imperceptibility, structural tensions and cultural and management behavior-related aspects* in the managerial commitment process (see Figure 1). Each of these will be briefly discussed in turn.



First, the vague quality concept and the expressed need to clarify organizational quality philosophy seemed to hinder efforts to introduce new thinking. This had effect on managerial commitment creation on middle management level, in particular.

Second, structural tensions appeared in the process; They were embedded in the deep-rooted hierarchies and management culture manifesting themselves in unclear responsibilities, - cross-organizational/inter-process problems, attitudes toward defects and mistakes, and willingness and maturity to take responsibility. Company culture and managerial behavior had an impact on structural tensions; The undeveloped management systems (e.g., the lack of goal setting) seemed to hinder delegation and division of tasks, which a new quality management system required. Historically seen, it was not necessary or even possible to take responsibility voluntarily, because the authoritarian management culture did not assume that. When mistakes were made they were hidden, due to fear and corrections were not even attempted. Carrying out organizational change was, thus, clearly in conflict with existing structures which formed a barrier to commitment formation.

Third, shortcomings in delegation and empowerment emerged in managerial process, in dealing with defects/mistakes, in particular. Responsibility was not an opportunity because of the lack of trust and non-delegative/non-participative management style. A tight managerial control was apt to arising feelings of threat and leading to concealing and defending behavior. This formed a vicious cycle, which even strengthened itself. These defensive routines formed a real source of change resistance (cf. Argyris, 1985).

Responsibility discussion in management reveals that the “unfreezing” phase (Lewin, 1947) of a change process may be longer due to immaturity of the organization; this is to say, incapability or unwillingness to take responsibility. Due to this, commitment formation progresses slowly. Managerial support, empowerment, and goal-setting would have been the essential elements in the advantageous implanting of the new system. Moreover, differing managerial interpretations on the effective change forces showed that a more powerful change catalyst would have been needed on the top management level. According to Schein (1985), “coercion” may be needed to bring about the change in the mature state of the organization. Finally, a question arouse: does the principle of “everybody-is-responsible-for-quality” mean that nobody is responsible for quality? If the answer is no, there was a place for major cultural change in the case organization.

Managerial perceptions discerned factors related to commitment formation on different managerial levels. Senior management commitment connected to how they perceived the meaning, significance and strategy of change (focus and procedures) as well as the magnitude of change pressure. Despite the fact that senior management supported the change program and was involved in its launching, it perceived the program as a technical-oriented and bureaucratic and doubted the implementation and functionality of the completed system. Due to this, commitment remained low. As for the change pressure, the main reason for senior management for initiating a change program was external (European integration). This kind of factor has been identified as too weak to push quality improvement initiatives effectively ahead in reality (Järvelin et.al, 1992). Middle managers commitment was related to the degree of commitment on senior and top management levels. The fact that middle managers considered top management commitment the most critical factor for their commitment highlights this point. Figure 1 summarizes the key factors related to commitment formation.

The findings support prior notions on the important role top management plays in organizational change. The findings are consistent with previous findings from the relationship between the degree of top management commitment and middle managers willingness to commit themselves. (See, for example Olian & Rynes, 1991 who found that top management commitment is crucial for the involvement of middle management).

In the commitment process, organizational culture, managerial behavior, more specifically, different management styles and the strategy of managing change emerged as factors that shaped the process. They affected willingness of managers to commit themselves and the degree of actual commitment. Organizational culture represented, in this case, the ultimate hindrance for commitment, originating in the fundamental features of culture: the sense of purposeless and lack of vision. These prominent features of the company culture were largely based on the values created by the aged owner of the company. Cultural values seemed to form a hindrance for any development initiatives in the company.

Differences in management styles at the top management level seemed to affect middle management commitment. The transactional leadership compared to a more transforming one apparently

caused conflicts in change management which embarrassed middle managers; for example, unsystematic meeting practices and differing views on how to proceed with the change project. Further, the management of the change program connected to commitment formation. The program manager had adopted a quite active role or had no other alternatives, and was directing the improvement program very independently and by a highly participative strategy. This reflected the senior management's traditional view on quality management, in other words, invisibility and low commitment of top management and the insight that quality improvement was perceived as an activity which can be assumed (delegated) to quality professionals (cf. Lascelles & Dale, 1990).

Finally, the study revealed a few interesting notions on the concept of commitment and the nature of commitment process. Commitment as a psychological concept turned out to refer to the way of taking an attitude, in general. Commitment process proved to be an incremental, individual learning process in which a new way of thinking and attitude changes developed gradually. Management commitment occurred differently on different managerial levels. The focus and way of commitment diverged with the levels: involvement in quality in general, on senior management level and the constructing of a quality system, on the middle management level were proceeding separately. This emerged most distinctly, on senior management level, which stressed quality in general but was doubtful about the quality system. Middle management level, on the other hand, committed it self by doing, in other words, making the quality system. This shows that middle management and senior management commitments had different foci and that they proceeded on their own tracks and at their own rates. It is perceivable that senior management's "track" manifests organizational commitment, while middle managers' "track" rather shows an attachment to a specific goal/task. Different managerial tasks directed commitment to different foci.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper has presented and discussed the main findings of the empirical case study focused on managerial commitment process on senior and middle management levels in the organizational change process. A few conclusions and implications will yet to be made. The empirical findings open several viewpoints on managerial commitment processes and reveal forces that affect the process. First, the findings suggest that these processes are complex and that several factors shape the commitment process. Organizational, managerial factors (e.g. management style), and conceptual factors affect the process in a complex and interconnected ways (cf. Benson et.al, 1991). Managerial behavior have influence on the formation and the actual degree of commitment but this is related to organizational culture, structure and values which, in turn, are interconnected. This study discerned the dynamics insufficiently and further research is needed.

Second, the identification and interpretation of external and internal change forces in the commitment process proved to be important for managerial commitment creation. This implies that change needs and forces should be mutually discussed on different managerial levels in the early

phase of the change process, in order to find the most powerful factors to facilitating managerial involvement in the whole process.

Third, conceptual skills (perceptibility) and the role of the implantation of new ideology in the development of management systems should be taken into consideration more carefully. Results suggest that implanting a new management system in the company requires stronger contribution by management to advocate ideas, concepts and values in order to create commitment and to avoid undue change resistance. Senior management's visible actions "top-down" show the significance of the change and create organizational involvement. Senior management acts as a catalyst for change which implies that, in the very beginning of the change process, it should take responsibility for propagating new philosophy organization-wide. This generates the grounds for reinforcing total involvement - and real changes in the development process. It is not a managerial talk only but sharing the ideas with the organization. To conclude briefly, the final aim is to integrate the ideological, "soft", side with the technical, "hard", side through committed leadership.

Finally, the study gives support for the prior findings of top managerial leadership as an indispensable requirement for successful change management. On the other hand, this study indicates that there is inconsistency between ideals of managerial commitment prescribed in the literature and actual commitment processes. It is a challenge for further research to close the gap between "espoused theory" and "theory-in-use" (Argyris & Schön, 1978). The initial findings presented in this paper are encouraging. Proposing that the organizational reality of commitment is more complex in nature than prescribed, this paper calls for commitment of both academics and practitioners to further investigations and practical applications.

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POLITICS AND POLITICIANS

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ABSTRACT

While some recent research (Spitzer, 1995) might suggest that politics serves as a major factor in demotivating employees, there is little doubt that there will be a "political side" to every organization. This study explores the relationship between Jungian psychological type, perceptions of workplace politics, and demographics to individuals' perceptions of themselves as organizational politicians. The results indicated psychological type and various perceptions of workplace politics were correlated with reported use of alliance building tactics in such a way as to suggest role congruence and cognitive consistency. The results also indicated sex and perceptions of workplace politicization were correlated with the reported use of aggressing tactics. Implications for further research are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

One way to view organizations is as political arenas (Mintzberg, 1985). In contrast to the rational view portrayed by the bureaucratic perspective (Brass & Burkhardt, 1993; Ibarra, 1993; and, Lenway & Rehbein, 1991), this view highlights the more dynamic facets of organizational life: the conflicts, power struggles, and ethical questions which arise (Morgan, 1986). Assumptions about human behavior also are dynamic. Through activities not formally sanctioned by organizational design (Vredenburg & Maurer, 1984), individuals attempt to create new social realities (Feldman, 1988), particularly those realities concerned with the distribution of advantages and disadvantages (Farrell & Peterson, 1982). The political arena thus is one in which individual factors may play an important role.

But, who are the organizational politicians and what is their experience in this role? A number of studies have investigated perceptions of organizational politics (Gandz & Murray, 1980; Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980; Welsh & Slusher, 1986) and at least two studies (Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick & Mayes, 1979; Zahra, 1984) examined managers' perceptions of the characteristics of effective political actors. Less frequently examined are individuals' perceptions of themselves as organizational politicians (Gandz & Murray, 1980).

As should be obvious from the above comments, the closer the "individual" is associated with the political activity, the less amount of research there is. A possible explanation for the diminishing attention might rest with the perceived instrumentality/acceptability of politics in general. It is much easier to view an external organization as a political arena than one's self as a political actor. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to explore individuals' perceptions of themselves as politicians in their work settings and the relationship of individual factors to these perceptions.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

A number of models have been proposed which address the question "Who is the organizational politician?" (Klein, 1988; Porter, Allen, & Angle, 1981; Vredenburg & Maurer, 1984; Zahra, 1989). And, though these models differ in specific features, each emphasizes three things. First, the organizational politician is an individual who decides to engage in political activity. Second, the individual's position in the organizational hierarchy provides a "stage" upon which the individual chooses to enact the role of political actor. Third, the individual's personality, needs, and perceptions about organizational politics will affect the individual's decision to take on the role of political actor.

This study focuses on the individual characteristics proposed to predispose individuals to take on the role of political actor. This study thus does not examine any one specific model but explores hypotheses which are common to a number of models in the literature. In particular, this study examines the extent to which personality and perceptions about organizational politics are related to individuals' perceptions of themselves as political actors. Variables related to one's position in the organization also are included for control purposes.

PERSONALITY AND POLITICS

Most models of organizational politics propose that an individual's personality will be related in some way to political activity at work. Indeed, personality has been described as the "core of the bureaucratic politics mix" (Allison, 1969: 70) and a variety of personality factors (mostly in isolation) have been proposed to characterize the organizational politician, such as machiavellianism (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992) or even childhood experiences (Forsberg, 1993). For this study, Jung's (1971) theory of psychological types was selected to study the personality of political actors.

Three considerations influenced the choice to use Jung's typological theory. First, Jung's theory provides a fairly comprehensive way of describing conscious psychological functioning (Kleiner, 1983). The various psychological attitudes and functions correspond to different ways of perceiving, deciding about, and interacting with one's work setting (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Second, prior research by Kilman and Thomas (1975) has demonstrated relationships between psychological type and conflict handling (a topic closely related to organizational politics). Finally, Jung's theory, as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) increasingly is being used in management training and development programs (Moore, 1987). The results of this study thus may be usefully applied in those settings where an understanding of the relationship between one's psychological type and political behavior at work is of interest.

Jung (1971) originally proposed eight psychological types. These eight types result from a combination of an attitude (extraversion or introversion) with a function of perception (sensing or intuition) or a function of judgment (thinking or feeling).

Myers (1980) refined Jung's formulation by explicating another attitude (judgment or perception). The potential relationship of each attitude and function to political activity is discussed in the following sections.

Extraversion (E) and introversion (I) represent the flow of psychic energy (attention, interest, etc.) for an individual. Extraversion is an orientation to the objective world of people, activities, and things. Introversion is an orientation to the subjective world of concepts and ideas. At work, extroverts are likely to prefer activities that impact the objective world whereas introverts are more likely to prefer solitary pursuits involving the subjective world (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

The nature of political activity in organizations seems inherently extraverted. Behaviors perceived as political (developing coalitions, managing impressions; Allen et al., 1979; Frost, 1987) correspond closely with the extravert's preferred

work behavior. Moreover, effective political actors are perceived as extraverted (Allen et al., 1979). In contrast, introverts appear to avoid the political arena. To the extent that "the management of conflict may be intensely political" (Hardy, 1987), and given that introverts avoid conflict (e.g., Kilmann & Thomas, 1975), then introverts may be expected to avoid political activity. This rationale leads to the hypothesis (HO1) that a preference for extraversion will be positively related to reported frequency of political activity.

Sensing (S) and intuition (N) represent perceptual preferences. Sensing types prefer to use their senses to determine the concrete facts of the immediate situation. In contrast, intuitive types prefer to perceive in more holistic ways and use their intuition to establish the abstract meanings and possibilities of a situation. At work, sensing types are expected to prefer the status quo whereas intuitive types are suggested to be the change agents (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Research suggests political actors are likely to have preferences for intuition. Evered's (1976) study of MBA students, for example, demonstrated a positive relationship between a preference for intuition and degree of organizational activism defined as "the expenditure of time and energy on activities (within the organizational system) that are not prescribed or explicitly required by the system" (p. 270). Defining activism as informal behavior corresponds with various definitions of organizational politics as informal behavior (e.g., Vredenburg & Mauer, 1984; Frost, 1987). Thus, to the extent that organizational activism actually is political behavior, we hypothesize (HO2) that a preference for intuition will be related positively to reported political activity.

Thinking (T) and feeling (F) are alternate ways of judging. Thinking types prefer to use impersonal and logical analysis. Feeling types, on the other hand, prefer to use personal and subjective values. At work, thinking types are proposed to be unemotional, analytical, and capable of making tough decisions about people, whereas feeling types are more people oriented, encouraging harmony in personal relationships (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

Research suggests thinking types, more than feeling types, are likely to be political actors. For example, a preference for thinking has been found to be related to a dominating or forcing style of handling conflict (Chanin & Schneer, 1984; Kilmann & Thomas, 1975). This conflict-handling style, which involves the use of power to resolve conflicts to one's advantage (Rahim, 1983), corresponds closely to definitions of political activity which characterize such activity as a process of influence management which often takes place in conflict situations (e.g., Pfeffer, 1981). Characterizing political activity as impersonal, calculated, and used to create impressions of rationality and logic (Allen et al., 1979; Mayes & Allen, 1977) also corresponds with characterizing thinking types as impersonal, analytical and logical (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Thus it was hypothesized (HO3) that a preference for thinking will be positively related to reported frequency of political activity.

The judging (J) and perceptive (P) attitudes represent alternate preferences for dealing with the outer world. At work, judging types show a preference for managing and ordering the environment, whereas perceptive types show a preference for adapting to changing situations.

The relationship of the J and P attitudes to political activity is not as clear as for the other attitudes and functions. First, there are few, if any, empirical results which suggest any relationship. Second, relationships at the conceptual level are mixed. The judging type's preference for controlling the environment may correspond with political activity to the extent this activity represents management of the environment. On the other hand, the perceptive type's preference for adapting to changing situations may make the perceptive type an appropriate candidate for the uncertainty inherent in the political arena. Given these mixed considerations, a fourth (null) hypothesis (HO4) is that there will be no significant relationship between judging-perceptive preferences and reported frequency of political activity.

Jung's theory is a typological theory (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). As such, it also proposes interactions among attitudes and functions. Specifically, Jung proposed that an attitude (E or I) will combine with a function (S, N, T, or F) to form a psychological type. Thus, for example, a preference for extraversion may combine with a preference for intuition to produce the extraverted intuitive (EN) type.

Available theory suggests two hypotheses involving interaction effects. First, preferences for extraversion and intuition were hypothesized to combine to explain political activity. Jung (1971) originally included politicians as one example of the EN type along with entrepreneurs and speculators. Describing the EN type as a change agent (Myers & McCaulley, 1985) also corresponds with the political behavior attributed to the more recently described intrapreneur, who is willing to break rules "so as to pursue the development of new . . . ideas and products . . ." (Frost, 1987, p. 519). Second, preferences for intuition and thinking were hypothesized to combine to explain political behavior. This combination is suggested by Evered's (1976) study of organizational activism. His results indicated NT types engaged in more activism than SF types.

PERCEPTIONS AND POLITICAL ACTIVITY

The decision to engage in political behaviors at work may also be influenced by various perceptions related to such activity. Three specific perceptions emphasized in models of organizational politics are discussed here.

One perception emphasized in the literature concerns the perception of the extent to which political behavior is normatively sanctioned, ethical, or acceptable (Klein, 1988; Vredenburg & Maurer, 1984; Zahra, 1989). In general, models of organizational politics propose that individuals will be more likely to behave politically if they perceive such behavior as being acceptable. Underlying this proposition, in part, is the rationale of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) which proposes that individuals cannot long maintain inconsistent attitudes and behaviors. Such inconsistency is experienced as uncomfortable, and individuals are hypothesized to seek consistency by changing the relevant attitudes and/or behaviors. These theories thus suggest that individuals who engage in political activity at work are more likely to have attitudes that such behavior is acceptable or appropriate (Gandz & Murray, 1980; Klein, 1988). This rationale leads to the next hypothesis (HO5) that: Perceptions that workplace politics are acceptable will be positively related to reported frequency of political activity.

In addition to perceptions about the acceptability of political behavior, models of organizational politics also propose individuals are more likely to act politically if they perceive such behavior as instrumental. This proposition derives from expectancy theories of work motivation (Vroom, 1964) which suggest, in part, that people are more likely to behave in a certain way when that behavior is perceived to be instrumental. Perceptions that the behavior is not instrumental does not lead to motivation. The expectancy theory perspective thus suggests the following hypothesis (HO6): Perceptions that political activity is instrumental will be positively related to reported frequency of political activity.

A third perspective concerns the perceived prevalence of political activity in one's work environment or perceived workplace politicization (Gandz & Murray, 1980). Klein (1989) in particular has emphasized the importance of this perception in questioning the inevitability of workplace politics. According to his argument, politics is not an aspect of organizational life which naturally arises out of such factors as power motives or scarce resources. Rather, it is just as likely that "political behavior responds to the political behavior of others" (p. 5). Individuals thus may engage in political activity

more frequently when they perceive such activity to be a necessary or appropriate response to the political activity of others. This rationale provides the basis for our final hypothesis (HO7): Perceptions that one's work environment is politicized will be positively related to reported frequency of political activity.

Demographic factors may be related to political activity in work settings. Previous research shows, for example, that organizational level is related to various perceptions of organizational politics (Madison et al., 1980; Gandz & Murray, 1980). Other research suggests sex may be related to conflict-handling style (Rahim, 1983) and the use of power (Mainiero, 1986) and thus, to political activity. A more recent study (Ferris, Frink, Bhawuk, Zhou & Gilmore, 1996) suggests that diversity of the work force moderates the understanding of this activity. Whether or not these factors are related to political activity has not been fully explored. Four demographic factors were, therefore, included in the present study for both exploratory purposes and as control variables: age, sex, organizational level, and years in current position.

METHODS

The sample consisted of 183 individuals participating in educational or training and development programs. All participants were employed. Some participants did not fully complete all research materials and, thus, different sample sizes were involved at different stages of data analysis (discussed below). The same sample (n=148) was used, however, for all tests of the research hypotheses. The average age of this sample was 29.8 years; 59% were male. The breakdown according to organizational level was: CEO (11%), top level manager but not CEO (5%), middle manager (24%), entry-level manager or supervisor (17%), and nonmanagerial (43%). The average time in present position was 3.4 years.

MEASURES

Few validated measures exist to measure perceptions of organizational politics and political activity (Zahra, 1989). Thus, measures were created by factor analyzing responses to questions thought to measure constructs of interest. Results from the factor analyses then were used to create summated scales with mean responses used for data analysis. Specific procedures used and results are discussed in the following paragraphs.

TABLE 1: FACTOR ANALYSIS OF POLITICAL TACTICS ITEMS		
	FACTOR LOADINGS	
TACTICS	I	II
Attacking or blaming others: e.g., making a rival look bad in the eyes of influential organizational members	.07	-.64
Use of information: e.g., withholding or distorting information or overwhelming another with information	.16	-.66
Creating & maintaining a favorable image: e.g., promoting self interest; includes dress, hair style, appearance, etc.	.40	.10
Developing a base of support: e.g., getting others to understand one's ideas before a decision is made; setting up a decision	.53	-.11

before a decision is made		
Praising others: e.g., "buttering up the boss" or "apple polishing" to establish good rapport	.57	-.24
Coalition formation: e.g., developing strong allies, forming power coalitions, and associating with influential people	.75	-.33
Use of rewards, coercion, and threats in influencing others: e.g., promising a raise in salary or threatening to fire someone in order to gain control over them	.25	-.57
Use of persuasion: e.g., attempting to persuade others to think as you would like	.54	-.44
Eigenvalue	2.69	1.53
% Variance	33.60	19.10
Note: Loadings in bold are those items used to create scales		

Participants completed a five-part questionnaire measuring perceptions of organizational politics and demographics. One section asked: "How often do you use the following tactics in your work situation?" The eight tactics listed were adapted from Allen et al.'s (1979) list of tactics described as political tactics by their sample of managers. Participants in the present study indicated how often they used each tactic on a scale ranging from never (0) to often (5).

Responses (n=181) were factor analyzed using principle axis factoring. An examination of the scree plot suggested two factors which were rotated using a moderately oblique rotation. Table I shows the results.

The first factor is defined by tactics that involve interpersonal communication (praise, getting support for ideas) and coalition formation. In contrast, the second factor is defined by seemingly more negative tactics such as blame, coercion, and information distortion. In general, the two factors seem to differ in terms of the intent of the tactics (enhance or exercise power) and the nature of the relationship with the target of the tactics (associational or competitive). Such tactics as using praise to establish good rapport and developing power coalitions (Factor 1) suggest the enhancement of power through developing political relationships. In contrast, such tactics as blame, coercion, and information distortion (Factor 2) suggest the exercise of power in a highly competitive situation. Though both sets of tactics are assertive, the latter seem more aggressive or extreme. Given these considerations, the first factor was labeled alliance building (coefficient alpha = .66) and the second was labeled aggressing (coefficient alpha = .65).

Perceptions of the acceptability of workplace politics were measured with 13 semantic differential items. Participants indicated their perceptions using a scale scored from 1 to 7, with higher scores indicating greater acceptability. Factor analysis (n=179) suggested one strong factor (coefficient alpha = .92). The five highest-loading items were: ethical/unethical, clean/dirty, sincere/deceptive, fair/unfair, and helpful/harmful.

Perceptions of the instrumentality of political behavior were measured with a four-item scale developed from 10 items used by Gandz and Murray (1980; e.g., "Successful executives must be good politicians," "You have to be political to get ahead in organizations"). Participants indicated agreement or disagreement with each item on a scale ranging from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1). Coefficient alpha for the four-item scale was .69.

Perceptions of the extent to which one's work environment is politicized were measured using Gandz and Murray's (1980) procedures. Participants indicated the extent to which 11 activities in their work environment (e.g., hiring, work appraisals, etc.) were influenced by politics. Participants used a scale ranging from never (0) to always (3). Factor analysis (n=170) indicated all items loaded strongly on one factor (coefficient alpha = .90).

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI; Myers & McCaulley, 1985) was used to measure psychological type. The MBTI employs a forced-choice normative format to measure preferences for the psychological attitudes and functions. Continuous scores were used for correlation analysis. Continuous scores greater than 100 indicate preferences for introversion (I), intuition (N), feeling (F), and perception (P).

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Descriptive statistics are shown in Table II. With respect to psychological type, the sample characteristics correspond closely with other administrative samples (Myers & McCaulley, 1985) showing stronger preferences for sensing, thinking, and judging. Results also indicate the sample members perceived workplace politics generally to be instrumental and their work environments to be moderately politicized. Sample members were "neutral" in their perceptions of the acceptability of workplace politics.

TABLE 2: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS														
Measures	Mean	sd	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Alliance Building	3.2	1.0												
Aggressing	1.3	1.0	30											
Introversion	99.1	25.5	-15	-01										
Intuition	91.2	26.9	20	02	-12									
Feeling	89.0	23.6	-21	-11	-15	-12								
Perceiving	87.5	27.2	01	04	-09	37	02							
Instrumentality	5.7	.8	20	04	-07	14	-15	-10						
Acceptability	3.8	.9	22	-05	-18	07	-06	07	-13					
Politicization	1.5	.6	15	26	-08	02	-01	00	25	-03				
Age	29.8	8.5	13	-11	03	21	-17	-19	30	-09	-14			
Sex			-03	-20	-10	07	38	-09	-05	-01	04	00		
Level	2.2	1.3	16	-04	06	21	-14	-12	10	01	-31	61	-04	
Years	3.4	3.5	03	-02	09	06	-10	-18	22	-05	-10	51	-03	41
N=148; Correlations (decimals omitted) of 16 and 21 are significant $p < .05$ and $.01$ (two-tailed), respectively. Correlations of 14 of 19 are significant $p < .05$ and $.01$ (one-tailed), respectively.														

The primary research hypotheses were tested using multivariate multiple linear regression. Two factors influenced the selection of this technique. First, multivariate multiple linear regression is appropriate when there are multiple criterion variables and multiple predictor variables that evidence collinearity or multicollinearity within each set of variables. The results in Table II indicate collinearity between the criterion variables (Aggressing and Alliance Building) and potential multicollinearity among the predictor variables. Multivariate multiple linear regression thus was selected to test the unique linear relationship of each criterion variable. Second, multivariate multiple linear regression provides control of experiment-wise error rate which results from multiple tests of significance on correlated variables (Harris, 1975). Controlling for experiment-wise error rate is important particularly given the univariate definition of political activity in the hypotheses as contrasted with its multivariate operationalization as Alliance Building and Aggressing.

Results for the multivariate multiple linear regression analysis (Table III) indicated a significant overall effect ($p < .001$) using Wilk's Lambda as the test statistic ($F_{26, 266} = 2.4$).

Further, the within-cells regression for both Alliance Building and Aggressing were significant ($p < .05$).

With respect to the hypotheses concerning psychological type and reported political activity, the results provided limited support. Only the main effect for the thinking/feeling dimensions were significant. Results for the significant main effect indicated a preference for thinking was positively related to the reported use of both Alliance Building and Aggressing tactics. Results for the interaction effect indicated the sensing/intuition and thinking/feeling dimensions interacted to explain the use of Alliance Building tactics. Further, the interaction effect for these functions and Aggressing was very close to significance ($p = .056$). Follow-up analysis of these interaction effects was conducted using univariate ANOVA with Scheffe's test as a post-hoc test. For this analysis, preference scores were categorized to produce four groups representing the four combinations of the psychological functions (ST, SF, NF, and NT). Results indicated NT types reported significantly greater use of both Alliance Building and Aggressing tactics than did SF types.

TABLE 3: MULTIVARIATE MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION RESULTS				
	Tactics			
	Aggressing		Alliance Building	
Variables	bb	t	b	t
Introversion	-.222	-.81	-.158	-.60
Intuition	-.807	-1.68*	-.689	-1.50
Feeling	-.595	-2.01**	-.825	-2.91***
Perception	-.026	-.28	-.043	-.50
El x SN	.308	.77	.077	.20
SN x TF	.769	1.92*	.931	2.43**
Instrumentality	-.024	-.26	.136	1.58
Acceptability	-.069	-.83	.207	2.61***

Politicization	.272	3.09***	.152	1.80*
Age	-.208	-1.83	-.019	-.17
Sex	-.146	-1.61	.066	.75
Level	.134	1.24	.183	1.76*
Years in current job	.028	.30	-.081	-.89
N=148				
Standard partial regression coefficient				
*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01				

Results for the various perceptions of organizational politics indicated only two significant effects. Perceptions of the acceptability of organizational politics are positively related to the use of Alliance Building tactics and perceptions that one's workplace is politicized were positively related to the use of Aggressing tactics. Results also indicated a near significant effect ($p = .074$) for the positive relationship between perceived politicization and the use of Alliance Building tactics. No significant relationships were found involving perceptions of the instrumentality of political activity.

DISCUSSION

Models of organizational politics generally propose that individuals intentionally decide to act politically and that this decision is, in part, related to personality and various perceptions about organizational politics. The results of this study provide some additional support for this viewpoint.

Of the three hypotheses on the direct effect of psychological types, only thinking types were shown to be positively related to politicizing. This positive relationship was demonstrated for both alliance building--typical of an analytical individual capable of making difficult choices (Myers & McCaulley, 1985); and aggressing--characteristic of a domineering or forcing style of handling conflict (Chanin & Schneer, 1987; and Kilmann & Thomas, 1975).

The interaction effect for psychological types suggests that the experience of alliance building and aggressing may be different for different combinations of the psychological preferences. Of the four types examined, NT types differed significantly for both forms of political activity. This effect suggests that a preference for intuition and thinking alone may be sufficient for individuals to engage in political activity. Or as proposed by Evered (1976), that NT types represent organizational activists. This also provides some conceptual support to the work of Finkelstein (1992) suggesting that individuals that can cope with uncertainty are likely to move up the political ladder.

Further evidence was given to previously theorized relationships between perception and political activism. As Gandz and Murray (1980) and Klein (1988) suggested, when individuals viewed politicking as an acceptable behavior they were more likely to engage in the activity. The results of the current study, however, infer that this may only be true with the more positive aspect of politicking--alliance building. If, as is suggested earlier, this positive response to increased politicking results in cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957), individuals are likely to choose the course of least resistance (interpersonal

communications and coalition formation) in resolving the conflict. In other words, if the individual must justify the behavior afterwards, it is much easier to rationalize the positive approach to politicking.

Support was also shown for the hypothesis that perception of one's organization being politicized increases political activity. The relationship resulted in use, however, of the negative aspect of politics--aggressing. This finding may suggest that, although an individual may have an unfavorable view of politics, its acceptance and use may be seen as an inevitable factor of the workplace (Klein, 1988).

IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Previous studies of organizational politics have emphasized the perceptual nature of the political arena and proposed that numerous individual factors--needs, values, personality, etc.--will influence organizational politicking. The results reported here provide some empirical support for these propositions and further indicate that different individual factors are related to different kinds of politicking. This conclusion, of course, is limited to the individual factors included in this study and the two roles identified in the factor analysis: alliance building and aggressing. Further research including different individual factors and kinds of politicking is needed to more fully explore the organizational politician's experience of politicking.

Further research might also investigate the extent to which different political roles represent political styles. As has been suggested previously (Eisenhardt & Bourgeois, 1988; and Vredenburg & Maurer, 1984), political activity in organizations quite likely is influenced by the political styles of individuals and groups. And, to the extent individuals consistently decide to use alliance building and/or aggressing tactics, these roles may represent the climate of the organization.

The results reported here also have several limitations which should be kept in mind. First, the results are limited to self-reports from a convenience sample of politicking and thus do not provide evidence of actual political behavior. As expressed by Morgan (1986), discussion of this issue may be blocked by certain internal barriers:

... this kind of activity is rarely discussed in public. The idea that organizations are supposed to be rational enterprises in which their members seek common goals tends to discourage discussion or attribution of political motive. Politics, in short, is seen as a dirty word (p. 142).

Second, the reliability (coefficient alpha) of the scales used to measure alliance building and aggressing are lower than might be desired and thus correlations between these two variables and others in the study may be understated due to measurement error. Third, though demonstrating adequate reliability, the construct validity of the measures of perceived acceptability of workplace politics and perceived politicization of one's work environment needs further study to more completely determine what these scales measure. Further research which addresses these limitations would seem worthwhile to more fully explore a relatively unresearched topic: the experience of organizational politicking.

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NON-TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND FOLLOWER BURNOUT

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the relationship between non-transformational leadership (i.e., transactional leadership and non-leadership) with the burnout experiences of 480 senior police officers in an Australian Law Enforcement Organization. The study used LISREL to first examine the factor structures of leadership (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire - Bass & Avolio, 1990) and burnout questionnaires (Maslach Burnout Inventory - Maslach & Jackson, 1981), and secondly the inter-relationships among these factors. The finding of this study suggests that some types of transactional leadership behaviors can reduce emotional exhaustion burnout (psychological strain) and increasing personal accomplishment burnout (self-efficacy) in followers. The need for the coping resource of depersonalization is reduced while personal accomplishment burnout (hope) is increased. Further, the detrimental effect of laissez-faire on all burnout factors highlights the need to minimise its presence in the work environment. Implications for police leadership and suggestions for further study are discussed

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between non-transformational leadership (namely, transactional leadership and non-leadership) and burnout in an Australian law enforcement organisation. The study used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass and Avolio (1990), and examined its relationship to Maslach and Jackson's (1981) Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). The research stems from the need to examine this relationship in an Australian context, and should provide information that may enhance the leadership potential of Australian managers in both the private and public sectors, particularly in their dealings with work stress and burnout.

Seltzer, Numerof and Bass (1989) used the MLQ to investigate transformational and non-transformational leadership as a source of burnout and stress. Their study confirmed the importance of the leader's role in reducing burnout, and identified a general inverse relationship between burnout, effectiveness and satisfaction (e.g., Gillespie & Cohen, 1984; House & Rizzo, 1972; Numerof & Gillespie, 1984). However, the extent to which burnout is related both to transformational and non-transformational leadership behaviors remains largely unanswered. For the purpose of this paper, only the relationships among transactional leadership and non-leadership (i.e., non-transformational leadership) behaviours with burnout are examined.

The burnout dimensions that comprise the MBI are (1) emotional exhaustion, or the feeling of being emotionally over-extended and exhausted by one's work; (2) depersonalization burnout,

or the development of impersonal responses towards recipients of one's care or service; and (3) personal accomplishment, or the feeling of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people (reversed scale).

The present research will enable greater understanding of leadership and its relationship to organizational burnout. The results should help empower organisations to reduce the potentially serious consequences of burnout on staff and clients. Because of the complexity of the relationships between leadership and burnout, the current study only focuses on the relationship between non-transformational leadership and burnout. Further, the data should help organisations identify the non-transformational leadership behaviors most relevant in helping staff deal with burnout and so enable the development of a more caring and concerned workplace culture.

LITERATURE REVIEW

LEADERSHIP

For several decades, the study of leadership has been an important and central part of the literature on management and organizational behavior (e.g., Yukl, 1989). The development of the transformational and transactional leadership framework by Bass (1985) represents an important step forward in understanding leadership because trait, power, behavior, and situational theories were incorporated, along with charismatic aspect of leadership. The focus of the current study is only on transactional leadership. Investigations into transactional leadership date back to the 1960s and 1970s (e.g., House & Mitchell, 1974). Transactional leadership emphasizes (a) process-orientation, (b) a social exchange perspective, and (c) the implicit relational qualities between leader and follower (Hollander, 1993). Such qualities are influenced by leaders appealing primarily to the cognition, ability (House, Woycke & Fodor, 1988), and self-interest of their followers (Phillips, 1995).

The orientation of transactional leadership is similar to McGregor's (1966) Theory X wherein leaders rely heavily on coercive, external-control methods to motivate workers, such as pay, disciplinary techniques, punishment, and threats. Situational factors are important moderators of these exchanges (House, Woycke & Fodor, 1988). The monitoring of subordinate behavior and the providing of feedback contingent on performance is a predictor of effective supervisory behavior (Bryant & Gurman, 1996; Locke & Latham, 1990). The current study uses Bass and Avolio (1994) definition of transactional leadership, as occurring when the leader rewards or disciplines followers dependent on the adequacy of their performance. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was developed by Bass and Avolio (1990) to measure two types of transactional leadership, namely contingent reward and management-by-exception. These two transactional leadership factors, along with a third factor of non-leadership form the basis on which leadership is measured by the MLQ.

BURNOUT

The rapid rise in the investigation of the burnout concept was a phenomenon of the late 1970s and early 1980s. In fact, Herbert Freudenberger did not define burnout as a separate entity until 1974. According to Farber (1983b:14), “burnout is more often the result not of stress per se. . . but of *unmediated stress* - of being stressed and having no ‘out’, no buffers, no support system.” While there must always be a first single disturbing action episode, rarely would this be sufficient to cause burnout (Burisch, 1994). Maslach and Jackson conducted the first empirical study of burnout and established the widely-cited definition of the syndrome which consists of three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization of others, and perceived lack of personal accomplishment in working with others (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Human services professions have been the focus of recent burnout research (e.g., Cherniss, 1992; Drory & Shamir, 1988; Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Pretty, McCarthy & Catano, 1992).

Several models have attempted to explain the interrelationships among burnout dimensions, where developmental concerns have played a central role (Leiter, 1993). However, no overall model of the burnout process exists (Lee & Ashforth, 1993). Buunk, Schaufeli and Ybema (1990) identified each dimension as having a different process, however burnout was still the common linkage or root. This multidimensional view is supported by empirical evidence that “both incorporates the single dimension (exhaustion) and extends it by adding two other dimensions: response to others (depersonalization) and response to self (reduced personal accomplishment)” (Maslach, 1993:27). Originally, Leiter and Maslach (1988) proposed a sequential relationship among the burnout dimensions, and from this, two schools of thought developed. The first views the burnout process from an entirely internal model with emotional exhaustion as the trigger for the syndrome. The second views reduced personal accomplishment and emotional exhaustion dimensions developing in parallel (Leiter, 1993).

The implications of burnout for organizations are well documented. Leiter and Maslach (1988:297) found that “high burnout was related to diminished organisational commitment, which was also related to aspects of the interpersonal environment of the organisation.” According to Lee and Ashforth (1993:370), “very few studies have focused on managers, despite the apparent prevalence of burnout at the managerial level” (e.g., Harvey & Raider, 1984) and the detrimental effects managers can have on the attitudes and behaviors of followers (Golembiewski, Munzenrider & Steveson, 1986; Kadushin, 1985; Seltzer & Numerof, 1988). Tabacchi, Krone and Farber (1990:37) identified that “supervisory support is crucial to preventing burnout.” Support from a manager or supervisor suppresses emotional exhaustion, reduces depersonalization, and builds perceptions of personal accomplishment. These findings suggest that a logical extension is to examine how leadership (i.e., manager or senior officer) interacts with burnout along with selected organizational variables for various organizational groups.

LEADERSHIP AND BURNOUT

The relationship between subordinates and superiors has been identified as a major source of stress (Glowinkowski & Cooper, 1987). However, “relatively little has been written about the effects which different leadership styles have on the stress levels of followers” (Smith & Cooper, 1994:6). According to Bass (1990b:640), “leadership may be the cause, rather than the amelioration of stressful conditions that result in emotionally-driven actions by the followers and poorer long-term outcomes.” A study conducted by Seltzer, Numerof and Bass (1987) directly established the effect that transformational leadership and transactional leadership have on stress and burnout. These authors found that among 875 part-time MBA students in a Northeastern city university, contingent reward decreases while management-by-exception increases burnout experienced by respondents. However, research exploring the nature of burnout and leadership among various occupational groups has been limited, with little evidence of application of existing findings to improving work practices.

THE STRESSFUL ENVIRONMENT OF LAW ENFORCEMENT

Kroes (1985) suggests that police work is more stressful than most other occupations. Such assumptions are based on related officer statistics of alcoholism, divorce, suicide and a variety of health problems (e.g., Donovan, 1981; Tang & Hammontree, 1992). White, Lawrence, Biggerstaff and Grubb (1985) identified three major areas of stress for police officers: physical/psychological threats, evaluation systems, and lack of support. Patterson (1992) confirmed a curvilinear relationship similar to that reported by Launay and Fielding (1989: 138-148), where the “lowest stress scores were found among officers with the least and greatest job experience.” Results from many studies (e.g., Burke, Shearer and Deszca, 1984; Cherniss, Egnatios & Wacker, 1976; Wallace & Brinkerhoff, 1991) have suggested burnout results from chronic work-related stress. Maslach and Jackson’s (1979) research of 142 police officers and spouses found respondents had high frequencies and intensities of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment burnout. Maslach and Jackson (1979:59) concluded:

Dealing with stressful human conflicts every day, policemen - like other “people-workers” - sometimes develop symptoms of emotional exhaustion that included cynicism and suspicion toward others.

Therefore, an Australian law enforcement organisation represents an appropriate population for the investigation of leadership and burnout.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives of this study were to:

- 1 Examine the validity of the transactional leadership and non-leadership factors of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.

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|---|--|
| 2 | Investigate the validity of the burnout dimensions of Maslach Burnout Inventory. |
| 3 | Analyze the interrelationships among burnout dimensions. |
| 4 | Examine the relationships among transactional leadership factors (contingent reward and management-by-exception) and the non-leadership factor (laissez-faire) with the different burnout dimensions (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment). |

METHOD

SAMPLE DESIGN

The target population (N=974) consisted of the senior officers in an Australian law enforcement organization. To ensure proper representation of sampling units (i.e., senior sergeants, inspectors, chief inspectors, superintendents, chief executives) Babbie's (1990) recommendation to use a stratified sample was followed. As Table 1 indicates, the chi-square value and associated level of significance, the sample of 480 officers was not significantly different to the population (see Table 1).

Table 1 Comparison Between Study Sample and Population				
Sampling Unit / Stratum	Population f	%	Sample f	%
Chief Executives ^a	32	3.4	19	4.0
Superintendents	55	5.7	39	8.1
Chief Inspectors	106	11.0	59	12.3
Inspectors	237	24.8	129	26.9
Senior Sergeants	528	55.1	234	48.7
Totals	958	100.0	480	100.0
Note: ^a = Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, Commander, Chief Superintendent Source: Department Record, 1993; $X^2 = 6.56$; d.f. = 4; $p > .05$.				

PROCEDURE

The study used a self-administered instrument that was distributed out to senior law enforcement officers. These officers first rated their leader on the transactional and non-leadership items, and then rated their own feelings of burnout on emotional exhaustion,

depersonalization, and personal accomplishment items. The study used two instruments, MLQ and MBI.

ANALYSIS OF FACTORIAL DATA

For the purpose of this paper, only the transactional leadership factors and the non-leadership factors were examined. In accordance with Bass (1985), the MLQ was assessed using a principal components factor analysis with a varimax rotation. This procedure failed to achieve discrete loadings on seven leadership factors and confirmed several previous studies which were also unable to replicate the factor structures of the original instrument (Carless, Mann & Wearing, 1995; Curphy, 1991; Koh, Steers & Terborg, 1995). In fact, Curphy (1991:72) stated "it is currently unclear how many leadership dimensions are measured by the MLQ."

Consequently, a confirmatory factor analysis (see Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989) of the transactional leadership and non-leadership factors was conducted, but it also produced a poor model. A further examination of each leadership factor and its items ($n = 30$) was conducted using a one factor congeneric measurement model (LISREL Sub-Model 1). This procedure produced five highly reliable factors (see Figure 1). It also highlighted the relationship between the items making up each construct as not being parallel but congeneric and thus indicating the inappropriateness of using Cronbach alphas to examine the reliability of the construct. Factor score (FS) regression weights that maximize the reliability of the composite scale score were generated for each factor and thus enabled continuous data to be used as first order factors (see, Brown 1989; Fleishman & Benson, 1987; Alwin & Jackson, 1980; Wets, Rock, Linn & Jöreskog, 1978; Jöreskog, 1971, Munck, 1979).

The items loading on each factor were compared with existing transactional leadership and non-leadership theory and research which provided the rationale for their loadings and appropriate factor labels. One factor emerged for both laissez-faire and management-by-exception, while three factors was identified for contingent reward. The rationale for each factor and its appropriate label follows:

Laissez-faire: Behavior that involves an absence of leadership, or the avoidance of intervention, or both (Avolio & Bass, 1990).

Management-by-Exception: Behavior that avoids giving directions as long as 'old ways' appear to work and performance goals are met (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Contingent Reward: Behavior that in nature is a contingent reinforcement and involves rewards that are given after related goals have been achieved (Bass, 1985a). Its emphasis is on facilitating the achievement of agreed-upon objectives by followers (Bass, 1990a). Path-goal theory (House, 1977) "attempts to explain why contingent reward works, and how it influences the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates" (Bass, 1985:128). Using House's (1996) reformulation of the path goal theory as a guide, the following three factors were identified:

<p><i>Work facilitation:</i> Behavior that involves pointing out the possible rewards resulting from a show of support, cooperation, and task completion, thus facilitating work that consists of planning, scheduling and organizing of work.</p> <p><i>Clarifying expectations:</i> Behavior that ensures comfortable feelings about the negotiation, perceiving close agreement, and understanding.</p> <p><i>Achievement Orientation:</i> Rewarding behavior for performance judged in a non-conscious manner against global behavior patterns, or some standard of excellence and unique accomplishment.</p>

Table 2 presents the items that constitute each leadership dimension.

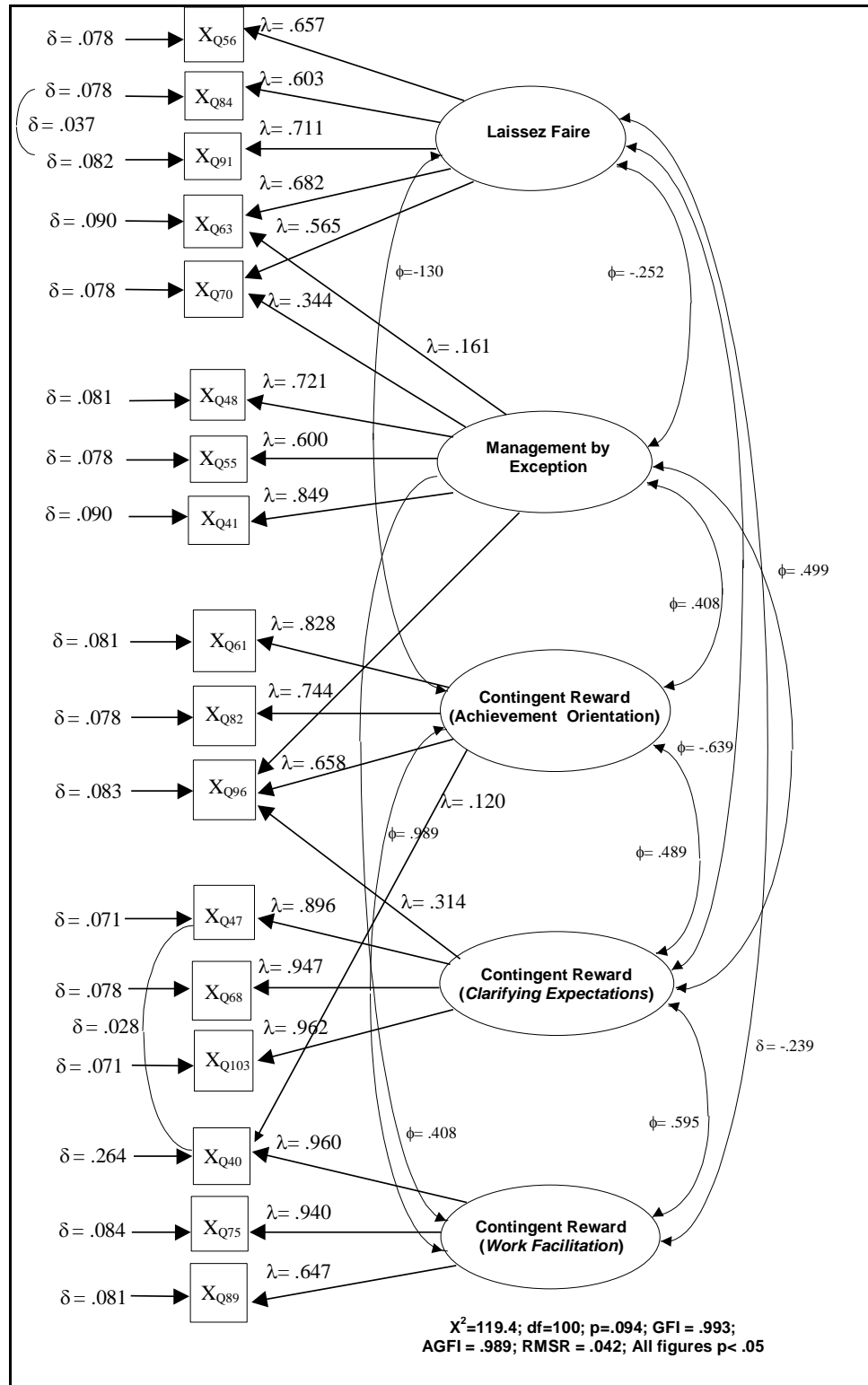


Table 2 LISREL One-factor Congeneric Measurement Model for Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Transactional Leadership and Non-leadership Factors)		
Item	(The person I am rating....)	Lambda
	Laissez-faire	
56.	avoids making decisions. (21)	.613
63.	avoids getting involved in our work. (28)	.668
70.	doesn't contact me if I don't contact him or her. (35)	.519
84.	is likely to be absent when needed. (49)	.669
91.	is hard to find when a problem arises. (56)	.809
	Management-by-exception	
41.	is content to let me do my job the same way I've always done it, unless changes seem necessary. (6)	.727
48.	avoids trying to change what I do as long as things are going along smoothly. (20)	.870
55.	is satisfied with my performance as long as the established ways work. (20)	.562
	Contingent Reward (<i>Work Facilitation</i>)^a	
61	gives me what I want in exchange for my showing support for him or her. (26)	.670
82	lets me know that I can get what I want if we work as agreed. (47)	.834
96	points out what I will receive if I do what needs to be done. (61)	.727
	Contingent Reward (<i>Clarifying Expectations</i>)^b	
40.	makes me feel comfortable about negotiating what I receive for what I accomplish, whenever I feel it is necessary. (5)	.622
75	sees that I get what I want in exchange for my cooperation. (40)	.587
89.	gives me a clear understanding of what we will do for each other. (54)	.963
	Contingent Reward (<i>Achievement Orientation</i>)^c	
47.	shows me that he or she recognises my accomplishments. (12)	.861
68.	commends me when I do good work. (33)	.925
103.	praises me when I do a good job. (68)	.939

A series of confirmatory factor analyses using these items were generated and their absolute fit measure, incremental fit and parsimonious fit measures were compared (see Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1992). The model with the best fit was selected and several modifications improved its overall fit. The accepted model registered a goodness of fit index of .993, an adjusted goodness of fit index of .989 and a root mean square residual of .042. This model confirms the relationship of the five factors (*laissez-faire*, *management-by-exception* and *contingent reward: work facilitation, clarifying expectations* and *achievement orientation*). The factor score regression weights of factors in this model formed the basis for examining transactional leadership and non-leadership in this study.

MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY

The Maslach Burnout Inventory has twenty-five items and two scales; intensity and frequency (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Various researchers (e.g., Anderson & Iwanici, 1984;

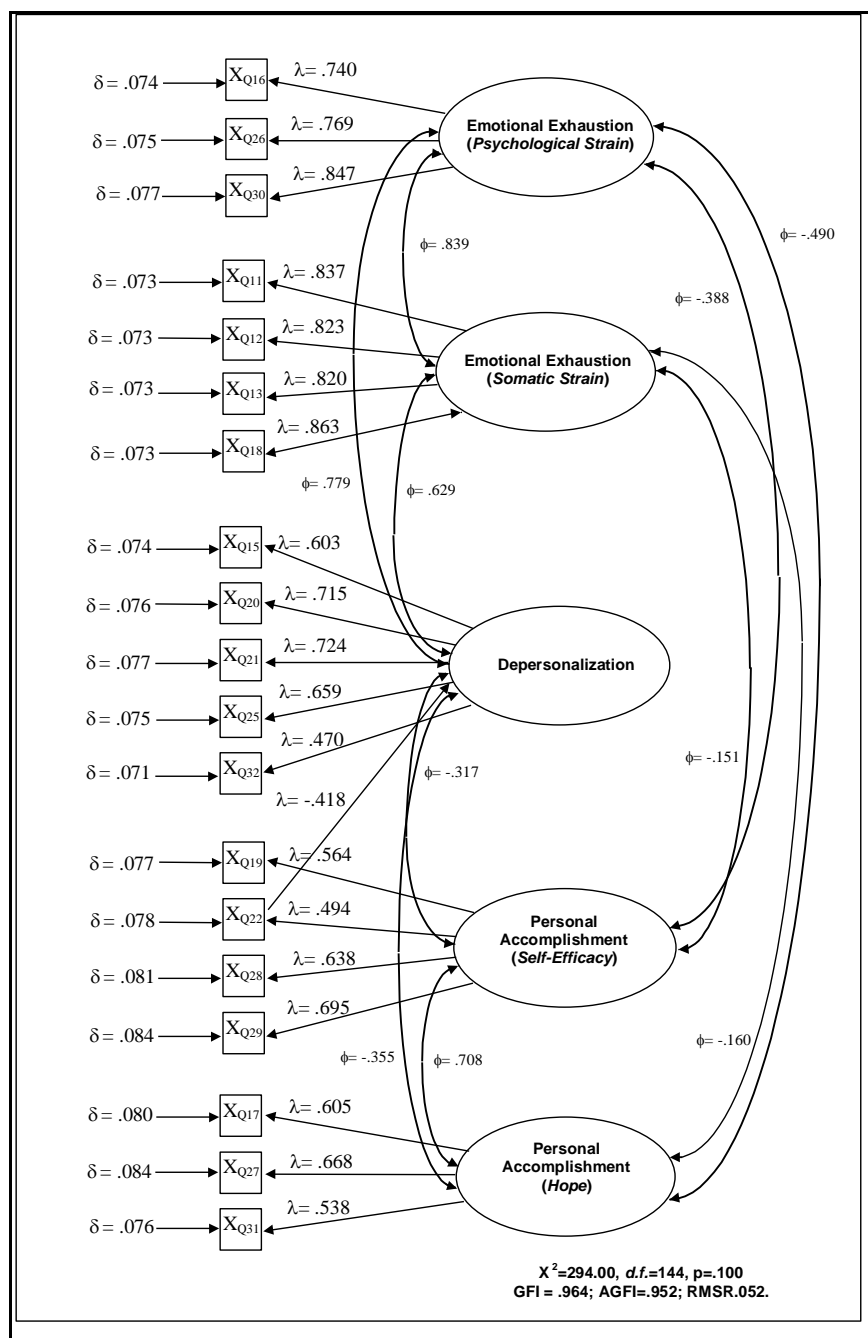
Brookings, Bolton, Brown, & McEvoy, 1985; Constable & Russell, 1986; Gaines & Jermier, 1983; Iwanicki & Schwab, 1981) have identified the high correlation between the intensity and frequency scales. The magnitude of the correlation between the scales led Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) to recommend that serious consideration should be given to the use of only one scale. In fact, several studies (e.g., Friesen, Prokop & Sarros, 1988; Friesen & Sarros, 1989; Sarros & Sarros, 1992) have only used the intensity scale. Guided by the above authors, only the intensity scale was used in this study.

Maslach and Jackson (1981) used a principal components factor analysis with orthogonal rotation that yielded a four factor solution (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment, and involvement) to identify the factor structure of the instrument. The involvement factor has three items and is considered optional and therefore it was not included in this study. A varimax orthogonal rotation was used to examine the remaining twenty-two items of the MBI. A four factor solution was produced with the items from personal accomplishment separating into two factors. This finding raised doubts regarding the factorial validity of the MBI and supports Schaufeli, Enzmann and Girault's (1993:209) finding that "the factorial validity of the MBI is not completely beyond question." Several previous studies have also identified four factors (e.g., Belcastro, Gold & Hays, 1983; Firth, McIntee, McKeown & Britton, 1985; Gold, 1984) & two factors (e.g., Brookings, Bolton, Brown & McEvoy, 1985; Dignam, Barrera & West, 1986; Green, Walkey & Taylor, 1991). Therefore, to test the reliability of the MBI sub-scales, a series of one factor congeneric measurement models were used.

Based on this analysis, item 12 ("I feel very energetic") was eliminated from the study because of non-significance (LISREL t -test) and confirmed Byrne's (1993) and Schaufeli and Van Dierendonck's (1993) findings that it lacked factorial validity. Five factors emerged using LISREL's sub-model 1 (one factor congeneric measurement model) and as shown in Figure 2. Both the emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment dimensions separated into two discrete factors each, with only depersonalization remaining unchanged. Factor items were examined and compared with the extant research base, and produced the following rationale for each factor and its appropriate label.

Emotional Exhaustion: Several researchers (e.g., Buunk & Schaufeli, 1993; Cox, Kuk & Schur, 1991; Leiter, 1991; Shirom, 1989) have identified emotional exhaustion as the central or core symptom of burnout. In fact, Koeske and Koeske (1993) consider burnout to be reflected only in the emotional exhaustion sub-scale of the MBI. In this study, two factors of emotional exhaustion burnout were identified. A study conducted by Firth, McIntee, and McKeown (1985:148) also identified emotional exhaustion as two separate factors and labeled them "frustration and discouragement about work," and "emotional draining". Further, Schaufeli and Van Dierendonck's (1993) study raised serious doubts regarding the specificity of emotional exhaustion because of its strong relationship to somatic complaints and psychological strain. Their study suggested that emotional exhaustion overlaps with non-specific physical and mental symptoms. Thus, identifying different types of emotional exhaustion may help clarify its origin, as follows.

Cox, Kuk and Leiter (1993:183) viewed emotional exhaustion as being readily projected or mapped onto sub-optimum health (or well-being) and when compared with the GWBQ (General Well-Being Questionnaire), emotional exhaustion had significant correlation with the feeling of being “worn out” and “uptight and tense” (Cox, Kuk, & Schur, 1991). “Worn out” resulted from tiredness, emotional liability, and cognitive confusion while “uptight and tense” developed from worry and fear, tension and physical signs of anxiety (Cox et al, 1983, 1984).



The studies of Firth et al. (1985) and Cox et al. (1983, 1984) provide theoretical guidance for the understanding and development of appropriate labels for the two factors of emotional exhaustion. The first factor, emotional exhaustion (*psychological strain*) represents a combination of “uptight and tense” feelings and attitudes of “frustration and discouragement

about work.” Shinn (1982) suggests psychological strain relates from feelings of being depressed, anxious, and angry.

Table 3 LISREL One-factor Congeneric Measurement Model for Maslach Burnout Inventory		
No.	Items	lambda
	Emotional Exhaustion (<i>Somatic Strain</i>)	
Q1.	I feel emotionally drained from my work	.850
Q2.	I feel used up at the end of the workday	.799
Q3.	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job	.810
Q8.	I feel burned out from my work	.685
Q13.	I feel frustrated by my job	.802
Q14.	I feel I'm working too hard on my job	.564
	Emotional Exhaustion (<i>Psychological Strain</i>)	
Q6.	Working with people all day is really a strain for me	.858
Q16.	Working with people directly puts too much stress on me	.755
Q20.	I feel like I'm like I'm at the end of my rope	.724
	Depersonalization	
Q5.	I feel I treat some recipients as if they were impersonal objects	.590
Q11.	I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally	.707
Q10.	I've become more callous toward people since I took this job	.723
Q15.	I don't really care what happens to some recipients	.650
Q22.	I feel recipients blame me for some of their problems	.476
	Personal Accomplishment (<i>Self-Efficacy</i>)	
Q9.	I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work	.368
Q14.	I can easily understand how my recipients feel about things	.472
Q18.	I feel exhilarated after working closely with my recipients	.473
Q19.	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job	.886
	Personal Accomplishment (<i>Hope</i>)	
Q7.	I deal very effectively with the problems of my recipients	.598
Q17.	I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my recipients	.647
Q21.	In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly	.541
Note: Item 12 "I feel very energetic" was not included because of its non-significant loading on either of the personal accomplishment factors.		

The second factor, emotional exhaustion (*somatic strain*), is a combination of “worn out” and “emotional draining” experiences which relate more to physical symptoms such as headaches, loss of appetite, and trouble sleeping at night, and is often less responsive to job conditions (Shinn, 1982:67). That is, emotional exhaustion (*somatic strain*) appears to be a direct consequence of emotional exhaustion (*psychological strain*). Table 3 illustrates these dimensions and associated burnout items.

Depersonalization burnout: This study confirms the factorial validity of Maslach and Jackson’s (1981) depersonalization items. Leiter (1993) saw depersonalization as a way of coping with exhaustion where a worker attempts to gain emotional distance (e.g., treats clients as a number) from the service recipients.

Personal Accomplishment: The formation of two personal accomplishment factors in the current study confirms a similar finding by Powers and Gose (1986). Maslach (1993) expected this component to be highly correlated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, however she concluded it was conceptually related to phenomena such as self-inefficacy (Bandura, 1977) and learned helplessness (Abramson, Seligman & Teasdale, 1978; Seligman, 1975). The splitting of personal accomplishment into two factors may indicate the emergence of self-inefficacy (or personal accomplishment: self-efficacy using a reverse score) and learned helplessness (or personal accomplishment: hope using a reverse score) as the underlying factors.

Self-efficacy: Maslach’s (1993) linkage of self-efficacy (see, Bandura, 1989; Lewin, 1936) with burnout is based on the conceptual similarities of their defined psychological successes and failures, and the identification of job and organizational characteristics that tend to be associated with low levels of burnout. According to Bandura (1989:1176), “self-efficacy beliefs usually affect cognitive function through the joint influence of motivational and information-processing operations.” The linkage of personal accomplishment with professional efficacy identifies this dimension of burnout within a coping framework (Leiter, 1993:249). The concept of personal accomplishment burnout as a form of cognitive appraisal provides the basis for labeling the fourth factor personal accomplishment (*self-efficacy*).

Hope: The concept of hope (or the reversed scale hopelessness) has evolved out of Seligman’s (1975) original theory of helplessness. According to Abramson, Metalsky and Alloy (1989:359) hopelessness captures two core elements: (a) negative expectations about the occurrence of highly valued outcomes (a negative outcome expectancy), and (b) expectations of helplessness about change in the likelihood of occurrence of these outcomes (a helplessness expectancy).” Personal accomplishment (*hope*) using a reverse score represents this transition from no control to some control over circumstances.

As shown in Table 3 and Figure 2, the three existing sub-scales of the MBI were reproduced into five sub-scales or dimensions in this study (i.e., emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*), emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*), depersonalization burnout, personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*), and personal accomplishment burnout

(hope)). Factor score regression weights for each factor then produced five composite scale scores and these formed the basis of the burnout measurement for this study.

LEADERSHIP AND BURNOUT COMPOSITE SCALE SCORES

The composite scale scores for the four transactional leadership, one non-leadership and the five burnout factors were examined using Multilevel Analysis procedures (see Woodhouse, 1995, 1993) and were determined as single level data. Several authors (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992; Keeses & Cheug, 1990) have indicated that single level structural equation models should not be fitted with multilevel data, otherwise unreliable or inelegant analysis may result. These single level composite scale scores were then fitted to the LISREL method for sub-model 3b (see Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989), that contains only observed and latent variables which were treated as endogenous variables.

HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND BURNOUT

Transactional leadership influences lower order needs of followers through the

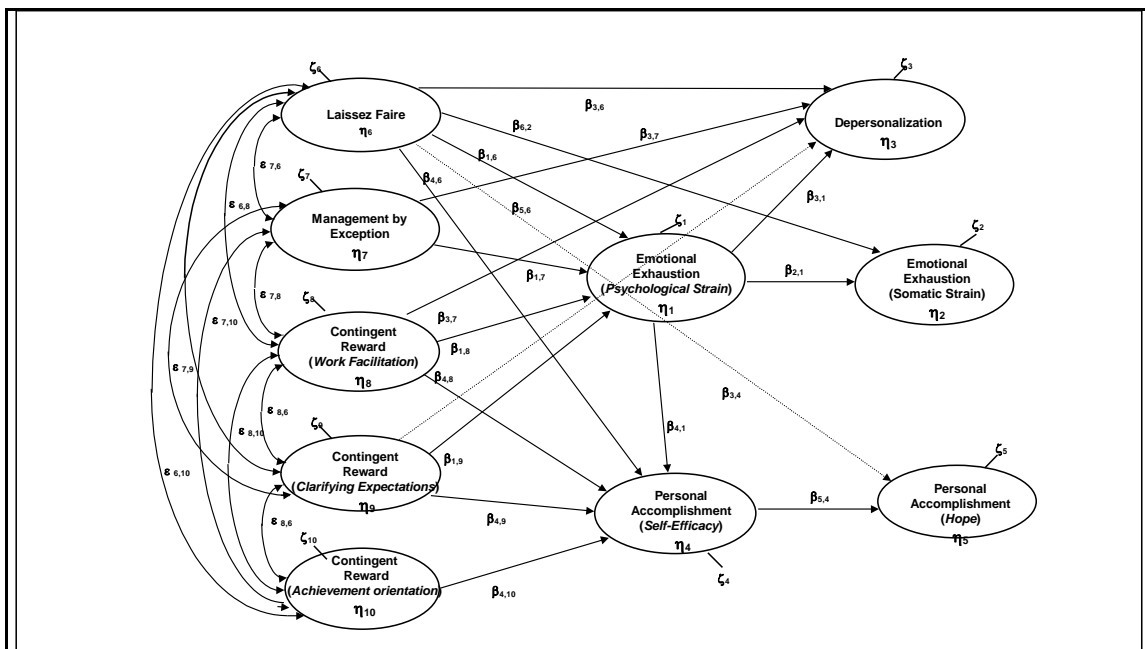


Figure 3

Path Diagram for the Structural Equation Model of Transactional Leadership, Non-Leadership and Burnout

exchanging of reward and promises for appropriate levels of effort (Bass, 1985), while the absence of such transactions represents *laissez-faire* (Bass & Avolio, 1994). These transactions influence a follower's investment of resources (labor) and their corresponding work outcomes. An imbalance between investments and outcome is directly related to all facets of burnout (Buunk & Schaufeli, 1993). Bass and Avolio (1990) identified two main types of transactional leadership (contingent reward and management-by-exception), each with a unique type of exchange which influence burnout differently. The non-transactional nature of *laissez-faire* also influence burnout in a unique way. Therefore, the different burnout factors should be influence by transactional leadership (exchange of rewards and promises) or *laissez-faire* (the absence of such transactions).

The hypothesized relationships among leadership and burnout should be: (a) emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) will be directly affected by *laissez-faire*, management-by-exception, contingent reward (*achievement orientation*) and contingent reward (*clarifying expectations*); (b) emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*) will be directly affected by *laissez-faire*; (c) depersonalization burnout will be directly affected by *laissez-faire*, management-by-exception, contingent reward (*achievement orientation*) and contingent reward (*clarifying expectations*); (d) personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*) will be directly affected by *laissez-faire*, contingent reward (*achievement orientation*), contingent reward (*clarifying expectations*) and contingent reward (*work facilitation*); and (e) personal accomplishment (*hope*) will be directly affected by *laissez-faire*. These relationships are illustrated in Figure 3.

The hypothesized relationships among leadership and burnout should be: (a) emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) should directly affect depersonalization burnout , emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*) and personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*); and (b) personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*) should directly affect personal accomplishment burnout (*hope*). These relationships are illustrated in Figure 3.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF LEADERSHIP AND BURNOUT

After a series of developments and modifications of the initial hypothesized model, an acceptable fit which depicts estimated direct effects among leadership and burnout indicators was generated, as shown in Figure 4.

The non-leadership indicator of *laissez-faire* had positive direct effects on emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) (.181) and emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*) (.093). These findings confirm the ability of *laissez-faire* to influence psychological strain through anarchy and lack of control (Bass, 1990b) resulting in exhaustion (Turnipseed, 1994), lack of clarity (Miles & Perreault, 1976), and role ambiguity (Burke, 1989). The results are consistent with the previous studies which indicated that overstimulation caused somatic strain (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Shirom, 1989). *Laissez-faire* had a negative direct (-.110) effect on personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*) which is consistent with the negative impact that lack of control, sanctions, and goals have on self-efficacy (Bass, 1990b).

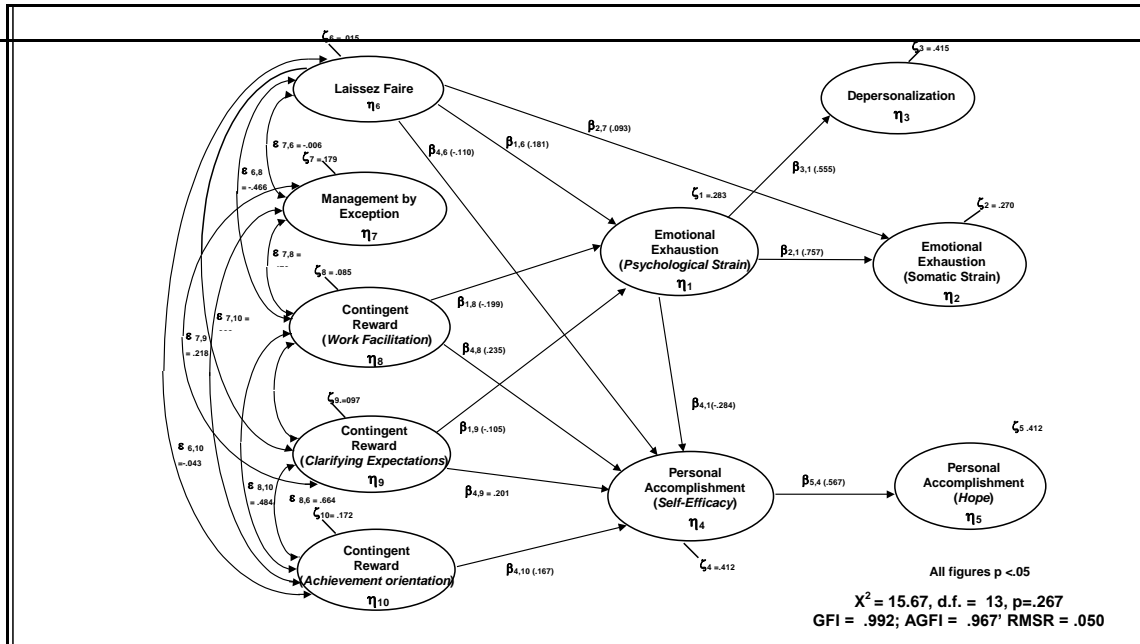


Figure 4
Structural Equation Model for Transactional Leadership, Non-Leadership and Burnout

Contingent Reward (*work facilitation*) had a negative direct effect on emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) (-.199) and a positive direct effect on personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*) (.235). Both these results, support Schwab and Iwanicki's (1982a) finding that lack of information about how to achieve objectives should account for significant amounts of emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment. Contingent Reward (*clarifying expectations*) had a negative direct effect on emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) (.105) and a positive direct effect on personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*) (.201). Both results confirm several studies which found that incompatibility of expectations with demands will influence burnout (Kahn, 1978; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964). In particular, Leiter and Maslach (1988), Jackson, Schwab & Schuler (1986), Jackson, Turner and Brief (1987) have linked the uncertainty of expectations to emotional exhaustion; while Brooks, Bolton, Brown and McEvoy (1985) and Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) have similarly linked such uncertainty to personal accomplishment. Contingent Reward (*achievement orientation*) had a positive direct effect on personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*) (.167). Overall, these findings confirm Seltzer, Numerof and Bass's (1989) study which found that contingent reward should decrease a followers experience of burnout.

No leadership indicator had any direct effect on depersonalization burnout. This confirms Jackson, Schwab and Schuler's (1986a) finding that incompatibility of communicated expectations would not influence depersonalization burnout, and contradicts Jackson, Turner and Brief's (1987) finding. Further, management-by-exception had no direct effect on any burnout indicator. This raises doubt about its ability to reduce strain from the creation of certainty and through intervention. It also contradicts Seltzer, Numerof and Bass's (1989) finding that management-by-exception should increase burnout experienced.

Emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) had a direct positive effect on depersonalization burnout (.555) and emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*) (.757) but a negative effect on personal accomplishment burnout (-.284). Such a position confirms several theorists' opinion that emotional exhaustion is central to the burnout process (e.g., Gaines & Jermier, 1983; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993; Jackson, Schwab & Schuler, 1986; Lee & Ashforth, 1993; Leiter, 1991; Maslach, 1982; Shirom, 1989).

Several of the emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) relationships with other burnout factors were consistent with the results of previous studies. The first, is the relationship with depersonalization burnout which supports Savicki and Cooley (1994) and Leiter and Maslach's (1988) findings that emotional exhaustion is capable of predicting levels of depersonalization burnout. The second is the relationship with emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*), which confirms Leiter, Clark and Durup's (1994:79) finding that "emotional exhaustion mediated the relationship of psychosomatic symptoms with qualities of the work environment". And, the third was its relationship with personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*), supports Lee and Ashforth (1996; also see Leiter 1993) meta analysis study that concluded that the two develop largely independently.

Personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*) had a direct effect on personal accomplishment (*hope*) (.567) and confirms the ability of self-efficacy to influence levels of hope in followers. These findings refute Schwab and Iwanicki's (1982) argument that there is no fixed sequence in burnout, and that one component is not an inevitable consequence of another. The present study suggests that emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) and personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*) operate in parallel as a result of stress, and that both depersonalization burnout and personal accomplishment (*self-efficacy*) are responses to emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*).

This investigation of an Australian Law Enforcement organization provided an opportunity to understand how leadership influences follower burnout. Traditionally, burnout has been studied from a social psychological perspective which involves the research of psychological demands on 'human service professionals' and the resulting quality of their services (Maslach, 1982). From this perspective, the current study focused on how transactional leadership and non-leadership behaviors influenced the psychological and physical demands experienced by followers, and identified as burnout. Few studies have investigated this relationship in detail (Seltzer & Numerof, 1990).

Transactional leadership influences follower investment of resources and outcomes in a working environment. An imbalance of resources and outcomes is directly related to all facets

of burnout (Buunk & Schaufeli, 1993). The current study identified two types of transactional leadership behaviors with the ability to reduce the emotional exhaustion (*psychological strain*) caused by such an imbalance. The first was contingent reward (*work facilitation*). This type of leadership involves behavior which facilitates the planning, scheduling, and organizing of resource investments (follower effort) along with possible outcomes from follower support, cooperation, and task completion. In others words, where leaders assist followers in planning there is reduced psychological strain in followers. The second type of leadership related to burnout was contingent reward (*clarifying expectations*). The clarification of follower expectations by leaders can also reduce psychological strain.

In contrast, the current study indicates that non-leadership behavior (*laissez-faire*) where leadership responsibilities are avoided increases both emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) and emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*). Thus, leadership inactivity (*laissez-faire*) directly increases feeling of being uptight and emotionally drained in followers. The relationship of non-leadership to emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*) is of particular interest because it establishes leader inactivity being link directly to physical symptoms such as headaches, loss of appetite, and trouble sleeping at night. Further, non-leadership also influences emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*) through emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*). Therefore, leader inactivity has the most detriment impact on follower health of any leadership behavior investigated in this study.

The study identified three types of transactional leadership able to increase follower feelings or attitudes concerning personal accomplishment (*self-efficacy*). The transactional leadership behaviors influence these feelings or beliefs in followers through altering their interaction with clients. Contingent reward (*work facilitation*) influences follower-client interactions by providing a framework that points out the possible rewards that come from these interactions. Such a framework facilitates work through the planning, scheduling, and the organising of work. Contingent reward (*clarifying expectations*) influences the follower-client interaction by ensuring comfortable feelings about such interactions through the negotiation, perceiving close agreement, and understanding of requirements. Contingent reward (*achievement orientation*) influences the follower-client interaction by providing rewards for general achievement resulting from these interactions. The inability of these types of transactional leadership to directly influence emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*), depersonalization burnout, and personal accomplishment burnout (*hope*) helps clarify their limitations. The lack of any impact by the remaining transactional leadership behavior of management-by-exception, suggests that leaders who avoid giving directions as long as 'old ways' appear to work, will neither decrease the detrimental aspects of burnout nor increase the coping capacity of followers.

The current study highlights the need for leaders to monitor their impact on followers. Laissez-faire or leadership avoidance causes the most detrimental impact on follower burnout. Similarly, reliance on global behavior patterns to reward followers such as contingent reward (*achievement orientation*) will only positively affect personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*) and not emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) which is central to

the burnout model. Using the other contingent rewards, contingent reward (*work facilitation*) and contingent reward (*clarifying expectations*) is therefore more effective because leaders are able to not only positively influence personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*) but also reduce emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) which in turn should reduce emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*).

CONCLUSION

The investigation of non-transformational leadership and follower burnout in an Australian law enforcement organisation produced several important findings. Three new types of contingent reward were identified, namely contingent reward (*work facilitation*), contingent reward (*clarifying expectations*), and contingent reward (*achievement orientation*) while confirming management-by-exception and laissez-faire as single factors. The current study clarified the nature of emotional exhaustion by demonstrating two components, namely emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) and emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*). Further, the current study also provided evidence that personal accomplishment should be regarded as two factors namely personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*) and personal accomplishment burnout (*hope*). The development of these expanded models for non-transformational leadership and burnout allowed the examination in more depth of the relationship between these two concepts.

IMPLICATIONS

Overall, the study demonstrated the role of leadership behavior on follower burnout which may have implications for organizations beside law enforcement organizations. Leaders need to (a) identify what leadership behaviors are being used, (b) recognise the impact leadership behaviors have on follower burnout, (c) understand the detrimental effects laissez-faire has on emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*), emotional exhaustion burnout (*somatic strain*), and personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*), (d) appreciate the how the different types of contingent reward can reduce emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) and increase personal accomplishment burnout (*self-efficacy*), (e) recognize that non-transformational leadership behaviors are unable to directly reduce a follower's use of depersonalization burnout, and (f) appreciate the central role of emotional exhaustion burnout (*psychological strain*) on follower burnout. Further, these issues have important implications for how leaders are trained in organizations. Finally, future research needs to investigate both the non-transformational/transformational leadership and burnout models as they apply in different occupations, along with the interrelationships among their components.

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THE DUAL CONSTRUCT OF ISOLATION: INSTITUTIONAL AND SOCIAL FORMS

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ABSTRACT

This research operationalizes Kanter's (1980) and Nkomo and Cox's (1990) concept of social exclusion from informal networks by developing a corresponding measure, isolation. Both theory and these results suggest two distinct isolation factors: social and institutional, in which individuals feel excluded from relevant others and those in positions of power and influence. Implications of these findings are discussed for organizational socialization and mentoring activities.

INTRODUCTION

Many individuals are dealing with a tumultuous and competitive work environment in which their skills and training may be outdated; where their organizations may be restructuring; where job permanence may no longer exist; and where there may be considerable backlash against the employment, advancement or protection for minorities and women. Several state governments and university systems have attacked and discontinued affirmative action practices which previously sought women and minority applicants. Within this turbulent environment, some individuals may feel as if they are no longer a part of the organization, or that the chances for organizational membership and career advancement have diminished substantially. As a result, organizations must find ways to ensure that their employees feel valued and committed to the organization and believe that they are, in fact, important to and are part of the organization. Individuals who are newly recruited and hired, as well as those who are mid- and long-term organizational incumbents must be adequately socialized so they might become (or continue to be) good organizational citizens and contribute fully to corporate goals. Thus, the focus of this research is to develop a deeper understanding of the concept of a "sense of isolation" by refining measures of institutional and social isolation which will aid in understanding these processes.

Studies of more "subjective" experiences indicate that some groups do not feel as though they are a part of the organization (Krain, 1985; Nkomo & Cox, 1990; Noe, 1988). Research has accounted for this "unwelcome" feeling by examining individual differences in the workplace and has assigned the "cause" of the problem or lack of belongingness to some type of individual differences (Morrison & Van Glinow, 1990). What is consistent across these studies is the notion that, for myriad reasons, individuals may not feel included as full members of the

organization. This feeling of exclusion may be (1) the result of structural barriers that remove the individual from the "fruits of his/her labor" (Marcuse, 1941:273) or (2) incongruence between the individual and the organization because of differences in values, attitudes, and norms (Katz & Kahn, 1978:382); or (3) institutional isolation (Smith, Markham, Madigan & Gustafson, 1996), and social isolation (Seeman, 1959; Srole, 1956), which might occur because organizational structural barriers and individual differences result in individuals experiencing the workplace differently. This last perspective is the focus of this research and posits that this sense of institutional and social isolation shapes their perceptions of, and reactions to, their experiences in the workplace.

The present study refines the measure of institutional isolation and develops an alternate measure of social isolation, which can be used to examine the degree to which an individual, as an organizational member, feels separate and apart from his or her peers and superiors on both social and institutional bases. Further, we will examine the factor structure and reliability of a 34-item scale designed to operationalize institutional isolation and social isolation. Isolation, as conceptualized in this research, expands on prior conceptualizations of general isolation (Seeman, 1959) and Srole's (1956) definition of anomie [commonly thought to be social isolation] by examining whether isolation has two separate dimensions, institutional isolation and social isolation. Unlike Srole's and Seeman's conceptualizations of isolation, however, the thesis of this work is not that individuals experience valuelessness of work nor ignorance of nor lack of adherence to group standards. Rather, it applies Durkheim's (1951) concept of psychological isolation to individuals within an organizational framework. This examination considers the fundamental issue of how individuals interact with organizations so that certain individuals experience the organization differently from others and feel separate and apart from his or her peers and superiors on both institutional and social bases. Furthermore, this paper posits that these feelings of inclusion and/or exclusion can be measured.

INSTITUTIONAL ISOLATION: A REPLICATION

Institutional isolation is defined as (1) the belief one has regarding one's lack of knowledge about, access to, interaction with and/or utilization of organizational sources of power, prestige, support and information critical to one's success, and (2) the belief that, regardless of one's position, training or educational background, others significant to one's success discount one's opinion unless it is validated by member(s) of the dominant culture. Individuals who experience institutional isolation believe that they are (1) excluded from the decision-making process, (2) have little input into matters which have an impact on them, and (3) are kept out of the "inner circle" where the power, prestige and influence within the organization resides (Smith, Markham, Madigan & Gustafson, 1996).

SOCIAL ISOLATION: AN EXTENSION

Social isolation is defined as a feeling of exclusion; of being alone; of being singled out; of being on display; of being a translator of one's experience to other-race/other-gender individuals; of being a bridge between cultures; of being representative of entire race or gender-, of being on the fringe; of experiencing superficiality of relationships because others cannot relate to one's experiences; of being tolerated but not accepted; of being required to be bi-cultural; of experiencing unilateral interaction (i.e., the onus for inclusion is on the individual who 'storms the castle'); and of lacking a social support network.

Within this conceptualization, individuals who feel socially isolated feel that they are cut off from sources of psychosocial support within the organization. Supportive acts, such as those conceptualized by House (1981) in defining a social support network are lacking. In addition, the informal ties within the organization which might facilitate their success in the organization are also deficient or nonexistent.

INSTITUTIONAL AND SOCIAL ISOLATION AS DISTINCT CONSTRUCTS

Smith's (1998) study on institutional isolation presents preliminary evidence that indicates that individuals do experience isolation on two dimensions: institutional and social isolation. In addition, the view that institutional and social isolation are two distinct constructs is consistent with Weiss's (1973, 1975) work on loneliness. Weiss suggests that an emotionally lonely person is not changed when one adds ties to a social group, nor is the presence of an attachment figure helpful for a socially lonely person. These needs are relatively independent and are satisfied differently; therefore, these constructs are on separate continua. By the same token, it is possible for an organizational member to have numerous friends within both the majority and minority friendship cliques, but still feel a sense of isolation from the bases of power and information that are central to issues of power and control in the organization.

This study re-examines the factor structure of institutional isolation and evaluates the factor structure of an alternative measure of social isolation, based on the construct definition posited previously.

Research Question: Is a two-factor rotation the empirical and theoretical "best" solution for the Perception of Inclusion/Exclusion Scale (PIES)?

RESEARCH METHODS

The study conducted here was a self-reported survey of 765 respondents who included African-American, Caucasian-American and Asian-American male and female faculty members with doctorates at five different 4-year land-grant academic institutions with doctoral programs. Because one might expect different attitudes from part-time and/or short-term faculty, only faculty whose positions were on a tenure track were considered for this study. A total of 2,660

surveys were mailed, along with an explanatory letter, followed within two weeks by a postcard. As questionnaires were returned (absent other identifying information on respondent), demographic information was obtained to help in estimating the non-response bias in the survey.

As demonstrated by Babbie (1990), respondents who delayed answering are more similar to non-respondents than are those who respond immediately. The response rate was 29% (765 responses); of those, 720 were usable, which gives an adjusted response rate of 27%. Of the total sample, 65% were male; 35%, female; 5.6%, African-American; 6.6%, Asian-American; 1.2%, Hispanic-American; and 86.8%, Caucasian-Americans.

While a sample of work organizations would also serve as a further test of the Perceptions of Inclusion/Exclusion Scale (PIES, described below), academic faculty were chosen for three reasons. First, little research has been conducted on the attitudes and behaviors of academic faculty in relation to differential work experiences. Secondly, the available literature suggests that women and minorities in the academic ranks find barriers to their success similar to those experienced by women and minorities in other workplaces (Johnsrud & Wunsch, 1991; Knox & McGovern, 1988; Merriam & Zaph, 1987; Obleton, 1984; Queralt, 1982; Sandler, 1986). Finally, using academic faculty who had earned doctorates controls, in some measure, for human capital investment.

TABLE Ia: Frequency Breakdown of Sample (Race by Gender and Rank)								
N= 743	Males				Females			
Race	Asst Prof	Assoc Prof	Prof	Lect/ Adj	Asst Prof	Assoc Prof	Prof	Lect/ Adj
Asian-American	17	6	13	1	4	6	1	1
Caucasian-American	78	131	205	6	104	70	41	17
Total	111	141	231	7	118	79	55	22
Percent of Sample	14.9	19.0	31.1	.9	15.9	10.63	7.4	4.44

Table Ib: Frequency Breakdown of Sample (Race by Gender and Institution)								
N 743	Male	Female	Site 1	Site 2	Site 3	Site 4	Site 5	Unspecified Site
African-American	23	19	15	5	7	8	5	2
Asian-American	37	12	22	4	3	13	6	1
Caucasian-American	420	232	219	123	61	97	122	30

Percent of Sample	64.6	35.4	34.5	17.8	9.5	15.9	17.9	4.4
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All variables are operationalized from survey responses. Respondents were asked to indicate their race, gender, institution, and department; other variables are measured by multiple-item scales.

Measures

Perceptions of Inclusion/Exclusion Scale (PIES). The instrument developed for this study is called Perceptions of Inclusion/Exclusion Scale (PIES). The response format for the 34-item PIES measure was a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1), with the mean of the item scores providing the isolation score for each respondent. The first subscale, institutional isolation, consisting of 20 items was pilot tested in a previous study. The items for social isolation were also included in the initial content analysis but were not included in the statistical analyses.

To develop the original items for the PIES, a critical incident-type technique was used to generate the descriptions of institutional and social isolation gathered in structured interviews of 22 African-American and Caucasian-American women in academe and industry.

Questions asked included: (1) "Describe your organizational experiences." (2) "What types of organizational encounters make you feel that you are as much a part of the organization as others in the organization?" (3) "What kinds of experiences make you feel separate from the organization and others in the organization?" (4) "Do you feel that your experiences were different than those of your Caucasian (or African-American, Hispanic-American or Asian-American), or male (or female) counterparts? If so, in what way(s)? If not, how are (were) they similar?"

Sample responses included the following: (1) "I feel it's difficult being bilingual, having to translate my thoughts and ideas into language that is not necessarily the way I talk or think." (2) "I have to submerge a large part of my identity into socially acceptable behavior, not because my normal behavior is inappropriate, but because it does not translate well across cultures and seems threatening to others who do not understand it. I have to become immersed in the majority culture to the extent that I have difficulty communicating with my own race and/or gender." (3) "I feel that I am caught between two worlds, too Black (or female) to be part of the majority culture (or 'one of the boys'), but perceived as too White (or too masculine, i.e., tough, cold, etc.) to comfortably fit within my own race's (or gender's) world." (4) "I know that others in my organization don't understand how difficult it is to be 'different'." (5) "I have to expend enormous amounts of energy to maintain the facade of 'fitting in' and 'having it all together' and as a result, I feel fragmented and caught between worlds. I'm jumping between worlds and sometimes I get confused about which world I'm in." Similar questions were asked of 7 Caucasian men who were in a doctoral seminar in Organizational Psychology and 5 Caucasian

men who were in an Organizational Theory seminar in Organizational Theory. On average, the doctoral students had had 7.5 years of work experience in career-level positions.

Subjects' responses were converted into 88 items which reflected attitudes and beliefs regarding the various dimensions or aspects of social and institutional isolation that emerged from these interviews. The items were then reviewed by the interview participants. Items which were ambiguous, misleading, redundant or did not accurately reflect the participants' experience were removed. The remaining 66 items were subsequently reviewed for clarity, appropriateness and content validity by 15 Caucasian and African-American male and female judges, each of whom was a doctoral candidate or a faculty member from the areas of organizational psychology, sociology, human resource management, or organizational behavior.

The clarity of the instrument was further tested by asking a third group of 18 individuals (employed undergraduate and doctoral students and faculty/staff in the College of Business) to review each item, compare it to the construct definitions given and indicate whether the item related to institutional isolation, to social isolation, to both or to neither. The revised scale for this study consisted of 34 of the original 66 items; each isolation subscale consisted of 17 items. The previous study found support for institutional isolation as a construct separate from social isolation and supported 16 of the original items. The 17th institutional isolation item was a revision of a previously ambiguous item. The items for the social and institutional isolation scales are provided in Table 2.

Table 2:
Items from the Perceptions of Inclusion/Exclusion Measure of Institutional and Social Isolation (PIES)

Institutional Isolation (Inscore)

Inst1:	I feel I receive less respect at my institution than others who have the same experience and education as I.
Inst2:	I have input in the decisions that are made at this institution that affect others. (Reverse score)
Inst3:	I have opportunities to network with those who make decisions affecting me and/or others in this institution (Reverse score)
Inst4:	When others at this institution make the same remarks in meetings as I do, their input seems more highly valued than mine.
Inst7:	I am encouraged to attend meetings that would facilitate my success at this institution. (Reverse score)
Inst8:	Some people at this institution are withholding information from me that would facilitate my success.
Inst10:	I have input in the decisions that are made at this institution which affect me. (Reverse score)
Inst11:	If I want to be successful at this institution, I know the faculty and/or administrators who can help me. (Reverse score)
Inst12:	I am usually invited to the social functions which occur off campus which involve my peers. (Reverse score)
Inst13:	I have less access to my superiors than others in my peer group.
Inst15:	When I have a problem or concern at this institution, I generally know where to obtain help. (Reverse score)
Inst16:	I believe others in my peer group think very little of my input in meetings.
Inst17:	If I need information which would facilitate my success, I have to go outside the formal channels of this institution to find it.
Inst18:	I have access to the resources I need to be successful at this institution. (Reverse score)

Instl9: I am aware of most social functions (i.e., parties, receptions, luncheons, cookouts) which are of interest to me on campus. (Reverse score)

*Copyrighted questionnaire

Table 2, Cont:
Items from the Perceptions of Inclusion/Exclusion Measure of Institutional and Social Isolation (PIES)

Social Isolation (Socscore)

- Socisol: I tone down my comments in group discussions, masking my true feelings and experience, so that my peers can relate to me.
- Sociso2: I have to appear to relate to my peer group's experiences, although they do not seem to relate to mine.
- Sociso3: People in my peer group know things vital to achieving success here that I do not know but that I should know.
- Sociso4: I experience a sense of loneliness when I am in a group of my peers or coworkers.
- Sociso5: I prefer to interact mainly with others who are from the same race as me.
- Sociso6: Most of my relationships at this institution are superficial.
- Sociso7: I think that I am specifically invited to attend university functions because of my gender.
- Sociso8: I would prefer to interact mainly with others who are from the same gender as me.
- Sociso9: I think that I am specifically invited to attend university functions because of my race.
- Socisol0: My conversations with my peers are confined to academic pursuits.
- Sociso11: I do not "belong" at this institution.
- Socisol2: In a racially mixed group, I feel I am singled out when the discussion centers on my own racial group.
- Socisol3: I am frequently asked to answer questions or express an opinion which require me to represent the opinion of my gender.

*Copyrighted questionnaire

Dean's General Alienation Measure. Dean (1961) developed a three-part general alienation measure which included the following subscales: Powerlessness (1964), Normlessness (1961), and Social Isolation (1961). The total alienation scale consists of 24 items presented in a 5-point Likert format, with response categories from 5 (strongly agree) to 0 (strongly disagree), with maximum scale score of 96 in which individual experiences highest alienation. The reliabilities of these subscales (as tested by the split half method and corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula) were .78 for powerlessness; .73 for normlessness; and .84 for social isolation. There is also substantial intercorrelation among the subscales, ranging from .41 to .67. The items for these subscales are included as Tables 3a and 3b.

The total alienation scale, which is a simple sum of the three subscales, had a .77 reliability. While the overall scale presently continues to be used, the focus is on social isolation and powerlessness, rather than normlessness. For this study, scale and subscale averages, rather than totals, were used.

Table 3 a: Alienation Subscale Correlations

	Normlessness	Social Isolation	Alienation
Powerlessness	.67	.54	.90
Normlessness		.41	.80
Social isolation			.75
N= 1 108, 3 8.8% response ratep <.01			

Table 3b:**Items from Alienation Subscales: Powerlessness, Normlessness, and Social Isolation Subscales****Powerlessness Scale (Nopower)**

Nopower1:	There are so many decisions that have to be made today that sometimes could just "blow up".
Nopower2:	We're so regimented today that there's not much room for choice even in personal matters.
Nopower3:	It is frightening to be responsible for the development of a little child.
Nopower4:	I worry about the future facing today's children.
Nopower5:	Sometimes I have the feeling that other people are using me.
Nopower6:	There is little or nothing I can do towards preventing a major "shooting" war.
Nopower7:	There is little chance for promotion on the job unless a person gets a break.
Nopower8:	We are just so many cogs in the machinery of life.
Nopower9:	The future looks very dismal.

Normlessness Subscale (Nonorm)

Nonorin1:	The end justifies the means.
Nonom12:	Everything is relative, and there just aren't any definite rules to live by.
Nonorm3:	The only thing one can be sure of today is that one can be sure of nothing.
Nonon-n4:	People's ideas change so much that I wonder if we'll ever have anything to depend on.
Nonorm5:	I often wonder what the meaning of life really is.
Nononn6:	With so many religions abroad, one doesn't really know which one to believe.

Social Isolation Subscale (Nosoc)

Nosocl:	Sometimes I feel all alone in the world.
Nosoc2:	One can always find friends if one shows oneself as friendly.
Nosoc3:	I don't get invited out by peers as often as I'd really like.
Nosoc4:	Most people at this institution seldom feel lonely.
Nosoc5:	Real friends are as easy as ever to find at this institution.(Reverse score)
Nosoc6:	The world in which we live is basically a friendly place. (Reverse score)
Nosoc7:	There are few dependable ties between people any more.
Nosoc8:	People are just naturally friendly and helpful. (Reverse score)
Nosoc9:	I don't get to visit friends as often as I'd really like.

Two measures for which considerable research support exists and which have been demonstrated to be psychometrically sound, were utilized to assist with discriminant validity purposes through confirmatory factor analyses. The two constructs, intent to turnover and affective organizational commitment, are posited to be conceptually distinct from institutional and social isolation. Descriptions of these measures follow.

Intent to Turnover Measure. This is a 3-item 5-point Likert-type measure derived from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire and is described in Cook, Hepworth, Wall & Warr (1981) [See Table 4a]. Two of the three items have response categories of disagree strongly (1) to agree strongly (5); while the third item has response categories ranging from not very likely (1) to very likely (5). To maintain consistency with other items, the response categories were changed to "the extent to which one agrees". Cronbach's alpha for the original scale is .81. The average score is utilized for this subscale.

Affective Commitment Measure. The Affective Commitment Scale, developed by Meyer and Allen (1984, 1991) and supported by McGhee and Ford (1987), is an 8-item 5-point Likert-type scale, tested on two samples in which Cronbach's alpha was .88 and .84, respectively. [See Table 4b.] The average score is utilized for this measure. The items on the Affective Commitment scale are provided in Table 4b.

Table 4a:
Items from Intent to Turnover Measure

Intent to Turnover Measure (Ntntover)	
Wilquit1:	I will probably look for a new position in the next year.
Wilquit2:	I often think about quitting.
Wilquit3:	I will actively look for a new job in the next year.

Table 4b:
Items from Affective Commitment Subscale

Affective Commitment Scale (Aff comm)	
Aff comm1:	Working at this institution has a lot of personal meaning for me.
Aff comm2:	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this institution.
Aff comm3:	I am proud to tell others that I work for this institution.
Aff comm4:	I feel emotionally attached to this institution.
Aff comm5:	I would be happy to work at this institution until I retire.
Aff comm6:	I enjoy discussing this institution with people outside of it.
Aff comm7:	This institution does not deserve any loyalty. (Reverse score)
Aff comm8:	I do not feel like part of a family at this institution. (Reverse score)

The means and standard deviations for all of the above mentioned scales are shown in Table 5.

Table 5:
Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations of Scales, with Cronbach's Alpha on the Diagonal

Variables	Mean	SD	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

1. Inscore	2.38	.62	720	.89							
2. Socscore	1.88	.53	725	.53*	.79						
3. Nonorm	2.27	.62	719	.32*	.39*	.68					
4. Nopower	2.58	.55	720	.59*	.56*	.52*	.55				
5. Nosoc	2.83	.39	721	.53*	.49*	.36*	.54*	.42			
6. Alien	7.68	1.27	708	.58*	.58*	.83*	.86*	.72*	.77		
7. Nntover	2.08	1.0	738	.53*	.35*	.24*	.45*	.36*	.42*	.83	
8. Aff comm	3.57	.73	716	-.64*	-.34*	-.22*	-.42*	-.38*	-.41*	-.61*	.88
*p < .05											

The total sample of 765 respondents was randomly assigned into two groups, an exploratory factor analysis sample and a confirmatory factor analysis sample, to test whether organizational incumbents experience isolation on two separate dimensions.

FACTOR ANALYSES

Exploratory Factor Analysis. A common exploratory factor analysis with oblique rotation was conducted on a sample of 362 subjects with complete data, from the 765 original participants. The heuristic for the factor loadings was based on Hair (1993): 30% is significant, 40% is more important, 70% is very significant. Only loadings equaling or exceeding .40 were utilized in this analysis. Items which loaded onto more than one factor were re-examined. Those items whose meaning was unclear or whose substantive meaning was inconsistent with the factor structure were deleted.

An oblique rotation indicates that the researcher expects the factors to be correlated; an orthogonal rotation suggests that the factors are totally independent of one another.

Confirmatory factor analysis. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the second sample (n=362) to confirm if the data did, in fact, collapse onto two factors, "institutional isolation" and "social isolation". The "Calis" procedure (Covariance analysis of linear structural equations) in SAS was used to estimate the parameters and to test the appropriateness of the linear structural equation models, using covariance structure analysis.

Table 6: Factor Loading Structure for PIES Institutional Isolation and Social Isolation Subscale Items After Deleting Weak Items		
	Factor 1 Social	Factor 2 Institutional

I1	Receive less respect than others with same education and experience		.65071
I2	Have input in decisions affecting others		.59524
I3	Have opportunities to network with decision makers		.66407
I4	Same remarks of others valued more than my remarks		.58735
I7	Encouraged to attend meetings facilitating my success		.52396
I8	People are withholding information I need		.51858
I10	Have input in decisions affecting me		.69851
I11	Know from whom to get help to succeed at this institution		.50034
I13	Have less access to superiors than peers		.50651
I14	Invited to off-campus social functions involving peers		.45260
I15	Know where to obtain help if have problem or concern		.59577
I16	Believe peers devalue my input		.63339
I17	Have to go outside formal institutional channels to get help		.60590
I18	Have access to resources to be successful		.54850
I19	Aware of on-campus social functions		.44939
S1	Tone down comments so peers can relate to me	.41262	
S2	Have to relate to peers' experiences, but they don't have to relate to mine	.45722	
S3	Peer group has vital information I don't have	.48091	
S4	Experience loneliness when with peers	.48091	
S7	Specifically invited to university functions because of gender	.59862	
S9	Specifically invited to university function because of race	.48661	
S10	Conversations with peers about academics only	.72999	
S12	Singled out in racially-mixed group when race is topic	.63815	
S13	Must answer questions for whole gender	.53988	

This procedure provided fit measures for the submitted model. The appropriateness of the model was determined by comparing the predicted models' fit levels with standard levels of acceptability. The four indices used in this procedure were Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), GFI Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI), Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) and Bentler's Comparative Fit Index. Generally, the closer the fit index is to 1.0 (with a fit $\geq .90$ being excellent) and the closer the RMR is to 0.0 (with a fit of .05 or less being good), the better the fit. However, the fit index which is greater than .70 is a modest fit and would be within acceptable limits. Several models were tested to determine the best fit of the data. The goodness of fit index of the PIE subscales alone would have been helpful in supporting its factor structure. However, a more stringent test was to include all items in a model in which similar

and dissimilar scales were analyzed, to determine if the factor structure would be reproduced as hypothesized. Thus, several competing models were examined for this analysis.

Model 1 includes the PIES, Alienation, Intent to turnover, and Affective commitment subscales. In Model 2, PIES social isolation measure was combined with Seeman's social isolation, to test if a single construct for social isolation was a better fit than having two factors. In Model 3, the analysis was run with the PIE subscales alone, because the greater the number of items, the greater the likelihood of a poorer fit.

The hypothesis was supported if (a) the confirmatory factor results supported the exploratory results; and (b) measurable evidence of discriminant validity had been demonstrated.

To test item (b), the two subscales were correlated with the summation of powerlessness, normlessness, and Dean's (1961) social isolation (which jointly became "alienation", based on previous formulations). In general, subscales which are totally independent of each other should have a low correlation; those which are measuring approximately the same construct should have high correlations.

Internal Reliability: An internal consistency approach (Cronbach's alpha) was used to determine the reliability of the institutional isolation and social isolation subscales. A Cronbach's alpha of greater than .70 indicates that the subjects responded consistently to the individual items related to a particular dimension. The alpha coefficients are also included in Table 5.

RESULTS

Factor structure. All 34 of the items of the PIES institutional isolation and social isolation subscales were included in the initial exploratory factor analysis. As expected, two factors were identified and they explained approximately 63 percent of the variance. Several of the PIES items were reexamined after analysis and evaluation of this subscale, their factor loadings, and substantive meaning. At this time, 6 of the 34 items were deleted either because no substantive interpretation could be made of the score, because of a complex sentence structure that assessed more than one concept at once, or because the item's logic was faulty. The factor analysis was re-ran on the 28 items remaining after these deletions. The revised results explained 80 percent of the variance, and the factor loadings indicated that 24 of the items were related to two factors (15 items for institutional isolation and 9 for social isolation). When more than two factors were generated, the new loadings represented "leeching" from the first two factors.

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the second sample (n=362) which confirmed that the data did, in fact, collapse onto two factors, "institutional isolation" and "social isolation".

Of the competing models examined, Model 3 reflected the best fit of the data. The GFI for the Models 1-3 were .7427, .7119 and .8040, respectively.

<p>Table 7: Confirmatory Analysis Goodness of Fit Indices by Model</p>
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Model Differs by Subscale Included N=362	Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	Bentler's Comparative Index
Model 1	.7427	.7212	.0702	.7824
Model 2	.7332	.7119	.0704	.7705
Model 3	.8040	.7658	.0765	.7755

Internal reliability. As shown in Table 5, Cronbach's alpha for the PIES institutional isolation subscale was .89 and the social isolation subscale was .79. This compares favorably with the alphas for Dean's three sub-scales (normlessness, .63, powerlessness, .57; and social isolation, .47); and with the general alienation measure, .77.

Discriminant Uniqueness. Additional evidence of the discriminant validity of the PIES measure was assessed based on the institutional isolation and social isolation subscales and the overall general alienation measure. Institutional isolation and social isolation were each correlated with each subscale of the general alienation measure.

Particular attention was paid to the correlation between the PIES social isolation and Dean's social isolation measure. If the correlation between the scales is .60 or greater, there would be support for them as a single construct rather than two separate ones; whereas a low correlation would provide support for separate constructs. The correlation between the PIES institutional isolation subscale and the alienation subscales ranged from .32 to .59; between the PIES social isolation subscale and the alienation subscales ranged from .39 to .58.

DISCUSSION

The Existence of Institutional and Social Isolation

There was support for the conceptualization and the measurement of institutional isolation and social isolation as two independent constructs. The exploratory and confirmatory analyses, as well as Cronbach's alpha, the internal consistency measure, were supportive and clear. In fact, Cronbach's alpha of both PIES subscales (alpha .89 and .79, respectively) is superior to the subscales conceptualized by Seeman and others. The internal consistency of Seeman's social isolation subscale was unacceptably low (alpha .42), therefore, a test of convergent validity of the PIES social isolation subscale was not possible. While the internal consistency of the powerlessness and normlessness subscales were higher (.55 and .68, respectively) than for the Seeman social isolation measure, they were still inferior to the PIES measure of institutional and social isolation.

While these factors of institutional and social isolation correlated at .53 and did not have as high a level of independence as desired (that is, <.40), one would expect attitudes about the same workplace experiences and environment to be moderately related and, thus, correlated.

Indeed, as additional construct validation efforts are undertaken and the internal reliability of the measures (institutional and social isolation subscales) improves, the strength of the relationship between measures should decrease. It might be difficult for individuals to respond to questions about one type of isolation experience without contaminating the answer with references to or attitudes colored by the second type of isolation.

The use of two dimensions is also suggested by the observation that an individual may feel isolated in some areas of organizational experience but less isolated in other areas. For example, an individual may have access to the knowledge and power brokers (the "inner circle") in the organization (i.e., have a low sense of institutional isolation) but may not be allowed into this "inner circle" to establish and develop a social support network to fulfill psychosocial needs.

Conversely, an individual may be invited into and considered a part of a wide social network, but because the individuals in the network are not within the sphere of influence and prestige within the organization, the individual may not be privy to organizational information that would enable him or her to become successful (that is, the individual will have a high sense of institutional isolation). Institutional isolation, without social isolation, may happen particularly among minority group members who, as a group, have not attained positions of power or prestige within the organization but who form a bond for psychosocial support.

Limitations

One weakness of the previous findings about isolation is that they are based on a sample that is not fully representative of American workers. The experiences of university faculty may underestimate the feelings of those who experience institutional and social isolation. Thus, future research on other samples is needed to determine the generalizability of this model. This study was conducted with white collar professionals, who Sokoloff (1992) defined as some of the most desirable occupations in U.S. society. In fact, access to these types of jobs has "defined" the middle-class, since they have offered rewards, autonomy, power and influence not generally offered to nonprofessionals. Sokoloff also argued that in such elite occupations, members expect greater rewards for their services, higher returns on their capital investments.

Future Research

Plans for future research include a test of the generalizability of this model in several different occupations and different populations, further refinement of the PIE scale and additional construct validation efforts. Furthermore, the impact of social isolation and institutional isolation on organizational and personal outcomes of interest will be examined.

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STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT: THE ROLES OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGER DISCRETION, HRM INTEGRATION, AND HUMAN RESOURCE EFFECTIVENESS

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ABSTRACT

Recently, research has begun to explore organizational and environmental characteristics having consequences for human resource management practices, policies, and systems (e.g., Jackson, Schuler, & Rivero, 1989; Jackson & Schuler, 1995; Jennings, 1994). In this study, we examined two organizational determinants having important consequences for human resource effectiveness: human resource manager discretion and HRM integration. In particular, we hypothesize that human resource integration is the mechanism through which human resource manager discretion effects human resource effectiveness. Our results suggest that integration between human resource and business strategy does mediate the relationship between human resource manager discretion and human resource effectiveness.

INTRODUCTION

Over the past several decades, human resource management (HRM) has evolved from a largely record-keeping, maintenance function to one of more strategic importance (e.g., Butler, Ferris, & Napier, 1991). Top managers are recognizing that any sustainable competitive advantage requires significant human resource support (Wright, 1991). Traditionally, human resource management research has been primarily micro-analytic (Ferris & Judge, 1991). Guided by theory and research in industrial and organizational psychology, studies have concentrated on the technical aspects of human resource practices such as employee selection, training, and reward systems, and their implications for human resource management effectiveness (Dobbins, Cardy, & Carson, 1991). More recently, however, research has begun to explore organizational and environmental characteristics having consequences for human resource management practices, policies,

and systems (e.g., Jackson, Schuler, & Rivero, 1989; Jackson & Schuler, 1995; Jennings, 1994). It has been noted that a better understanding of organizational factors that constrain, or conversely facilitate, the use of various human resource management practices would be an important supplement to extant research (Tannenbaum & Dupuree-Bruno, 1994).

Perhaps the greatest theoretical development regarding organizational influences on human resource management has occurred under the guise of strategic human resource management (SHRM; Wright & McMahan, 1992; Jennings, 1994). SHRM has been defined as "the pattern of planned human resource deployments and activities intended to enable an organization to achieve its goals" (Wright & McMahan, 1992: 298). Within this perspective, human resource effectiveness is seen as flowing from strategic intent, whereby managers align human resource structure and content with environmental pressures and the business strategy of the firm (Dyer, 1985; Fombrun, Tichy, & Devanna, 1984; Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 1988; Schuler & Jackson, 1987a, b). In this study, we examined two important organizational determinants having important consequences for human resource effectiveness: human resource manager discretion and HRM integration.

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGER DISCRETION AND HRM INTEGRATION

An essential element of the SHRM perspective is the range of decision making discretion a human resource manager has for enacting change in response to environmental contingencies. Described as the "heart of the administrative process" (Thompson, 1967), managerial discretion is a key variable influencing the degree to which individuals influence organizational behavior (Staw, 1991). In previous research, managerial discretion has been found to be an important variable for predicting and understanding a variety of organizational phenomena (e.g., succession patterns, executive compensation, administrative intensity) (Hambrick & Finkelstein, 1987). Human resource managers with high levels of decision-making discretion actively participate in interactive relationships with other senior management members, view themselves as an important component of the executive team, and perceive opportunities to provide input and to make decisions on business strategies not directly involving human resource considerations.

Based on previous research on managerial discretion, we expect human resource manager discretion to allow human resource managers to structure unique sets of human resource management practices -- having potentially positive implications for employee attitudes and behavior. More specifically, discretion is likely to enable human resource managers to create more effective human resource systems that are characterized by sophisticated, or innovative, sets of human resource management practices tailored for their specific organizational workforce. Recently, research has found that companies at the leading edge in the arena of human resource management where human resource managers have a wide range of decision-making responsibility and authority are much more likely to invest heavily in innovative work redesign, employee involvement, and total quality management programs (Mirvis, 1997). These companies are also more likely to help employees balance their work and family concerns and to have programs committed to valuing diversity (Mirvis, 1997). We hypothesize:

<p><i>HYPOTHESIS 1: The greater the human resource manager's discretion, the greater the level of human resource effectiveness.</i></p>

Integration between human resource management and strategic management is arguably an important organizational variable affecting human resource effectiveness (Buller, 1989; Golden & Ramanujam, 1985). Theory and research suggest that organizations can and should use human resources strategically, that organizations operating under different strategies require different HRM practices, and that organizations creating an alignment between strategy and human resource management will have a competitive advantage. Generally, then, researchers have hypothesized that both organizational and human resource management effectiveness can be improved by aligning human resource practices with selected competitive strategies (e.g., Schuler & Jackson, 1987a). Although empirical research is sparse, it is accepted in the literature that strategically managed human resources are associated with improved HRM effectiveness. More specifically, in organizations where there is an alignment between strategy and human resource management, the HR function is better able to help the organization achieve its goals and to provide well-trained, motivated employees. We hypothesize:

HYPOTHESIS 2: The greater the level of integration between human resource management and strategic management, the greater the level of human resource effectiveness.

Although human resource manager discretion may have a direct influence on human resource effectiveness, it is possible that human resource integration mediates the relationship. The importance of human resource manager discretion is not only reflected in the ability to create and adjust sophisticated and innovative human resource practices, but also in the ability to align those practices in such a way as to support the business strategy of the organization. More specifically, the roles of human resource manager discretion and human resource integration are reflected in the following three assumptions that undergird the SHRM literature: (a) successful implementation of a business strategy requires certain employee behaviors; (b) human resource practices can be developed to elicit these behaviors; and (c) firms that design human resource practices that are aligned with the demands of the intended strategy will gain an advantage over firms that do not.

We hypothesize that human resource integration is the mechanism through which human resource manager discretion effects human resource effectiveness. More specifically, human resource managers who have discretion are better able to analyze their organization's environment, its strategy, and the "fit" between the two in designing human resource management practices (Jennings, 1994). Thus, the greater the manager's discretion, the more opportunity the manager has to adjust human resource practices such that they are aligned with business strategy and the environment. We hypothesize:

HYPOTHESIS 3: Human resource integration mediates the relationship between human resource manager discretion and human resource effectiveness.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The sample for this study was drawn from membership lists provided by regional chapters of a southern state's Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM). The data for this study were collected from three sources. First, a questionnaire was mailed directly to each of the 470 human resource managers obtained from the SHRM membership lists. Second, this mailing included a different questionnaire that was to be forwarded by the human resource manager to a member of top management not a part of the human resource function.

The initial contact in each organization was the human resource manager. The five-part human resource manager questionnaire was designed to identify the HRM policies and practices in place at the focal organization, as well as to assess various characteristics of the human resource manager and the focal organization. The top manager questionnaire was designed to assess more general aspects of the focal organization (e.g., assessments of the organization's alignment of strategy and human resource management) and to provide data that could be used to assess the reliability of human resource manager responses. A case was considered valid only if both the human resource management and top management questionnaires were returned. A total of 109 usable questionnaires (23% response rate) were returned from the human resource manager respondents. A total of 112 usable questionnaires (24% response rate) were returned from top manager respondents. The final sample size (i.e., both the human resource manager and top manager questionnaires were returned) was 104 organizations (22% response rate).

MEASURES

Measures of human resource manager discretion were developed for this study. Researchers have not yet developed measures of discretion to use in organizational research. Following previous suggestions (e.g., Hambrick & Finkelstein, 1987) that discretion should be measured with multiple measures, we measured human resource manager discretion in this study using two measures.

First, human resource managers were asked to assess the general discretion in their jobs. Based on a review of previous literature on discretion and autonomy, three items were created to assess the extent to which the human resource manager's job offers choice and opportunity. We labeled this measure "general discretion." A sample item is, "How much opportunity do you have to participate in the setting of goals and objectives for the HRM function?" A five-point Likert scale anchored by "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree" was provided to respondents. The measure was coded so that higher values indicated higher levels of general discretion.

Second, human resource managers were asked to assess discretion in specific HRM decision areas. Previous research has suggested that the examination of discretion in specific decision areas is important to improve the measurement of discretion (e.g., Hambrick & Finkelstein, 1987). Eight important human resource management activities, identified in previous research by Tsui and Milkovich (1987), were used to assess specific discretion. These eight human resource management activities included: (a) staffing/human resource planning, (b) organization/employee development, (c) compensation/employee relations, (d) employee support, (e) legal compliance, (f) labor/union relations, (g) policy adherence, and (h) administrative services. Because over one-third of respondents ($n = 38$) indicated that the item regarding labor / union relations was not applicable to their organization, this item was deleted. The remaining seven items were summed to assess specific discretion.

To assess the reliability of measurement of specific discretion, top management respondents were also asked to evaluate the specific discretion of the human resource managers. Top management, while expected to be familiar with the

activities of the human resource manager, obviously cannot observe the human resource manager at all times. Despite this, however, previous research has suggested that the perceptions of others are important in the assessment of discretion (e.g., Hambrick & Finkelstein, 1987). Therefore, to assess the overall accuracy of the measure of specific human resource manager discretion, the same items described above that were administered to human resource management respondents were also given to top management respondents. Human resource management and top management evaluations of discretion were moderately correlated ($r = .45$). Absent any established criteria to evaluate the magnitude of this correlation as an indicator of agreement, the relative magnitude of the correlation between top and human resource manager evaluations of specific discretion does seem to indicate that there is some consistency between the two respondents in their evaluations of discretion.

To assess the level of integration between HRM and strategic management, a measure of HRM integration developed by Huselid (1995) was presented to top management respondents. This measure is a behavioral indication of the emphasis each firm places on its alignment of human resource management with strategy. A sample question is, "The human resource management function in this organization changes staffing patterns to help implement business or corporate strategies." A five-point Likert scale anchored by "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree" was provided to respondents; the measure was coded so that higher values indicated higher levels of HRM integration.

Top management respondents assessed human resource management effectiveness. Human resource effectiveness was measured with three items from Tsui (1990). A sample item is "Overall, to what extent do you feel your human resource department is performing its job the way you would like it to be performed?"

ANALYSES AND RESULTS

The means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and reliability estimates for the independent, mediating, and dependent variables are presented in Table 1. All correlations were in the expected direction. General discretion ($r = .29$, $p < .01$) and specific discretion ($r = .19$, $p < .05$) were correlated with human resource effectiveness, indicating support for Hypothesis 1. Additionally, both general discretion ($r = .27$, $p < .01$) and specific discretion ($r = .23$, $p < .05$) were positively correlated with human resource integration. Human resource integration was correlated with human resource effectiveness ($r = .53$, $p < .001$) providing support for Hypothesis 2.

TABLE 1
Correlations Among Study Variables

		Mean	S.D.	Alpha	1	2	3	4
1.	Human Resource Effectiveness		14.38	3.81	.86	--		
2.	Specific Discretion	26.32	4.93	.80	.19*	--		
3.	General Discretion	12.50	2.22	.77	.29**	.54***	--	
4.	HRM Integration	22.71	5.62	.87	.53***	.23*	.27**	--

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

The results of the regression analyses used to test Hypothesis 3 are presented in Table 2. We used a procedure similar to Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure for testing mediated hypotheses using multiple regression. Full mediation is indicated if the following four conditions are met: (1) the independent variables are related to the mediator variable; (2) the independent variables are related to the dependent variable; (3) the mediator variable is related to the dependent variable; and (4) the strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is diminished when the dependent variable is regressed on both the independent variables and the mediator variables simultaneously.

TABLE 2 Results of Regression Analyses						
Variables	Equation 1			Equation 2		
	Human Resource Effectiveness			Human Resource Effectiveness		
	B	R ²	F	B	R ²	F
HR Integration	.49***			.51***		
General Discretion	.16	.39	21.4***			
Specific Discretion				.07	.28	19.6***

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Support for condition 1, a link between the independent variables (general and specific discretion) and the mediator variable (human resource integration), was indicated in Table 1. Both correlations were positive and statistically significant. Also, as seen in Table 1, condition 2 was met in that both discretion measures are correlated with human resource effectiveness.

To determine if conditions 3 and 4 for full mediation were met, we regressed human resource effectiveness on the mediator variable (human resource integration) and each independent variable (general and specific discretion), simultaneously. As seen in Table 2 for Equation 1, human resource integration predicted human resource effectiveness and the effect size for the measure of general discretion was diminished (when compared with the correlation between general discretion and human resource effectiveness) and no longer significant. Similarly, in Equation 2, human resource integration predicted human resource effectiveness and the effect size for the measure of specific discretion was diminished and no longer significant. Because conditions 1-4 were met, support for Hypothesis 3 was indicated. In other words, human resource integration mediated the relationship between human resource manager discretion and human resource effectiveness.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the study was to examine the effect of two organizational variables that have been identified in the literature as being important influences on human resource effectiveness. While most research has examined the technical aspects of human resource practices for effectiveness, we examined more "macro" or "global" issues. In other words, we examined the influence on human resource effectiveness of human resource manager decision-making discretion and the fit between human resource strategy and business strategy. We found that both variables, when considered independently,

predict human resource effectiveness. However, when both variables are considered together, the results of our study suggest that integration between human resource and business strategy mediates the relationship between human resource manager discretion and human resource effectiveness.

The implication of these findings are several fold. Beyond crafting technically "correct" human resource practices, which has been the primary focus of human resource research, managers must ensure that the types of human resource practices utilized support the business strategy of the organization (Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Miles & Snow, 1984). Indeed, the literature in strategic human resource management is replete with conceptual and practitioner-oriented articles proposing that organizations can and should use human resources strategically, that organizations operating under different strategies require different human resource management practices, and that organizations creating an alignment between strategy and human resource management will have a competitive advantage.

A second implication is that the human resource manager must be given the decision-making latitude to develop and adjust human resource practices such that they support the organization's business strategy. Organizations can create a context in which the human resource function moves beyond a low-level, administrative function, to a high-level, strategic complement. The latter would be characterized by dynamic, multifaceted linkages based on intense interaction among top managers and human resource management (Golden & Ramanujam, 1985). In such a context, the human resource manager would assume the role of a true strategic business partner with other senior executives. Future research should investigate the factors that contribute to greater discretion for the human resource manager.

It must be noted that our findings suggest that human resource discretion alone is not sufficient for human resource effectiveness. Rather, discretion that provides opportunities for aligning human resource practices with business strategy is most important. Such discretion is afforded when the human resource manager is viewed by top executives as a strategic partner. Future research should investigate those factors that facilitate or inhibit the adoption of a human resource innovation that supports business strategy (Tannenbaum & Dupree-Bruno, 1994). More specifically, future research should more closely examine the varying degrees of human resource manager discretion, and how human resource managers choose to use their discretion in shaping the structure and content of human resource practices.

It is possible that discretion flows from human resource integration. In other words, it is possible that human resource manager discretion is a "side-effect" of human resource strategy integration. As such, human resource manager discretion would be a consequence of human resource integration, rather than an antecedent, as proposed in this study. For example, Hambrick and Finkelstein (1987) suggested that the internal political conditions of the organization play an important role in determining discretion. Specifically, they suggest that, for chief executives, factors such as distribution of ownership and composition and loyalties of the board of directors will impact the discretion of the executive. This proposition is based on the notion that the more influence the organization's context provides the chief executive, the greater the discretion afforded by that executive. Likewise, some research suggests that the level of integration between human resource management and strategic management is an indicator of the political importance of the human resource management function in the organization (Feuille & Chachere, 1995).

Although our study was not longitudinal, and as a result, we can not determine conclusively that the reverse causation is not a possibility, the results of our mediational tests provide support for our model. More specifically, as seen in Table 2, when the effects of both discretion and integration on human resource effectiveness are tested simultaneously, human resource manager discretion does not explain additional variance in HR effectiveness beyond human resource integration.

This suggests that human resource integration assumes the role of a more immediate precursor to human resource effectiveness and an intermediate linkage in the relationship between manager discretion and effectiveness.

Certainly, many questions remain to be answered about SHRM and the role of human resource manager discretion in organizations. This study has added empirical evidence to the growing area of macro human resource management research.

Future research, however, is needed to provide more insight into the complex, multifaceted relationship between organizational characteristics, managerial characteristics, discretion, and human resource practice structure and content.

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COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE AND SHIP REPAIR ALONG THE TEXAS GULF COAST

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ABSTRACT

The competitive pressures of the past several years have triggered a re-examination of the ship building/repair industry in the U.S. in general and the Texas Gulf coast in particular. This paper presents a competitive analysis of the industry from a regional perspective. Based upon data gathered from key demand and supply side players, it identifies sources of Competitive Advantage available to the industry in Lone Star State.

INTRODUCTION

The U.S. ship building/ship repair industry has been struggling for years. Two U.S. government initiatives raised enthusiasm among domestic shipyard operators in 1993, however. First, an amendment to Title XI of the Merchant Marine Act of 1936 allowed for the extension of federal credit guarantees to vessels other than those in the U.S. flag fleet for construction, reconstruction, or reconditioning in domestic shipyards. Second, MARITECH, a program jointly funded by the federal government and the shipbuilding industry, was created to assist U.S. shipyards in competing in the international market.

This paper presents a competitive analysis of the U.S. ship repair industry from the perspective of yards located along the Texas Gulf Coast. This is appropriate, for while initiatives taken by the federal government in 1993 continue to have a positive impact on U.S. ship repair, facilities in the Lone Star state must vie for contracts as everyone else.

BACKGROUND

In general, the demand for ship repair services is a function of fleet size, fleet age structure, and freight market health at any point in time (Marine Log, 1995). For specific ship repair facilities, however, noneconomic distortions sometimes determine repair yard selection. First, many governments including the U.S. have policies which favor their own domestic ship repair firms. Secondly, some vessel operators simply prefer using repair services in their own countries. Third, ship owners tend to have long-term relationships with specific repair yards. As a result, it is difficult for competitors, especially those in foreign countries, to win contracts even though they may be competitive. Fourth, ship owners hold perceptions of repair quality and capability for long periods of time and biases of this sort are hard to overcome.

Ocean Shipping Consultants (1995) has reported, in detail, the vagaries of international ship repair. Individuals interested would do well to review their report(s). It is sufficient to note here that Louisiana and Texas account for more than

37 percent of the nation's water transported tonnage (United States Corps of Engineers, 1995). The Texas Gulf Coast traffic draws strength from the petroleum and petrochemical products industries. It is evident that vessels regularly visit Texas waterways in need of routine maintenance, inspection, and emergency repair. The issue that must be addressed is; How can Texas shipyards take advantage of their strategic location to attract a greater amount of ship repair business?

METHODOLOGY

Studies related to the U.S. ship building/ship repair industry are rare. Commonly, literature is anecdotal. Oral tradition has sustained the industry for decades. This paper seeks to go beyond that circumstance. It represents an international competitive analysis of the ship repair industry from a regional perspective, the Texas Gulf Coast. In sum, this was an improvisational study involving an intensive review of the literature, a mail survey, and a series of in-depth interviews with persons involved in the industry.

It became evident early on that secondary resources would be critical to this analysis. The authors searched all available data bases, manual and electronic. Shipping firms and ship repair executives were contacted concerning other sources. The National Association of Marine Services, Inc., the only organization of its kind in the United States devoted exclusively to commercial vessel supplies and equipment, provided leads. Leaders of the Propeller Club of the United States, which promotes the American Merchant Marine including shipyards and allied industries, contributed. Correspondence with Ocean Shipping Consultants, LTD. analysts in the United Kingdom proved very helpful.

A mail survey was utilized to gather additional data. Two questionnaires were used. One, to accommodate the demand side of the industry, targeted ship owners and their agents in the U.S. The second, approaching the supply side, approached repair yard managers along the Texas coast.

Ship owners, representing demand, were located in a number of ways. A list of shipping firms was compiled from records provided by Texas port authorities, stevedore companies and trade associations. Lists of ships which had passed along the Texas coast over three years were obtained. Owners of and/or agents for those vessels were identified. A random sample of firms was selected from the resulting data base to receive mail questionnaires.

In addition to the mail questionnaires, larger firms included in the sample were contacted by telephone to obtain more robust information and insights. Land-based officials or sea captains were also contacted where available. Such was important where foreign shipping firms lacked U.S. offices.

To represent supply, the same process was used to obtain information from Texas coastal shipyards. Yard lists, however, were better organized and more readily available. Sources included trade associations, government publications, and proprietary lists from cooperating shipyards. Recipient firms were selected at random to be included in the mail survey. In addition, telephone and on-site interviews were conducted. Larger firms in the sample and those yards acknowledged as innovative were included.

COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE AND SHIP REPAIR ALONG THE TEXAS GULF COAST

Essentially, Competitive Advantage (Porter, 1980; 1985) refers to the ability to provide a product or service of a given quality at a lower cost than others or, alternatively, to provide a higher quality product or service at the same cost as others. Competitive Advantage may be derived from technology “gaps” between competitors. For a technology gap to become a Competitive Advantage, product benefits must be “signaled” to potential customers who recognize and are willing to pay for those benefits. When such a technology gap can be sustained and the benefits captured from the market place over time, a Competitive Advantage exists. Unfortunately, customers may not always discern any real difference in the service provided by one repair yard over another. Additionally, unique performance evident in one yard may not be preferred by a particular set of vessel owners. In either case, Competitive Advantage would not exist.

THE COMPETITIVE ENVIRONMENT OF TEXAS GULF COAST REPAIR YARDS

Porter (1980; 1985) offers a framework from which we can understand ship repair along the Texas Gulf Coast. The relevant forces include: (1) the entry of new competitors, (2) the threat of substitutes, (3) the bargaining power of buyers, (4) the bargaining power of suppliers, and (5) rivalry among competitors. These forces, collectively, determine the industry structure and the state of competition. While Porter does not include the government as an independent force in his framework, this study revealed that it is wise to include government as a very influential sixth factor. To benefit from economies of scale and the accompanying learning curve, a yard needs to serve a significant portion of the repair market. Shipyards entering the repair business anywhere in the world can cause problems for Gulf Coast yards. There are a number of hurdles facing those wishing to enter the repair business. New yards must enter the market on a large scale if established yards have substantial economies of scale. Inability to gain access to technology and specialized know-how pose significant problems to the uninitiated. Customer loyalty draws owners to particular yards where management is known and work is trusted. Proximity to shipping lanes serves the same purpose. Then too, government regulation, tariffs, and international trade restrictions also influence new entrants.

Firms in other industries compete with repair yards when their respective products are good substitutes. The presence of readily available and competitively priced substitutes can place a ceiling on the prices that yards can charge without encouraging owners to switch. The availability of substitutes encourages owners to compare service and quality as well as price. Substitutes are a worse threat when the cost of switching is low.

The profitability associated with ship repair is a function of the relative power yards have vis-à-vis owners. As the ship repair industry has matured, its offerings have tended to be viewed more homogeneously by price sensitive customers. Unless a Texas yard has a Competitive Advantage, it is a buyer's market.

Managers of shipping fleets have wide geographic discretion in scheduling ships for regular maintenance and inspection work. When a vessel is scheduled for repair, down time can

be minimized by assigning that vessel to a journey passing near a desirable shipyard where the work can take place. Ship owners and agents often ignore Texas yards even when in local waters. The authors found that yards which gather pertinent vessel information in advance (via telephone conversations, faxes, standard work order procedures, electronic mail, etc.) are given priority. Yards which anticipate customer needs, coordinate work, and act as a regulatory liaison are preferred. Owners look for "partnership" arrangements. They appreciate the supply of a detailed work plan incorporating scheduling flexibility at the outset of work. An honest assessment of yard capabilities, productivity vs. labor rates, fiscal position, temperament of the local labor force, reserve capabilities (such as the ability to machine a given tail shaft), their track record of on-time deliveries, and backgrounds and abilities of key personnel are important pieces of information for shippers. Those who excel at planning, specification, estimation, booking, and supervision are sought, as are yards which tailor their "Standard Drydock Specification" to individual vessels as well as vessel classes. Certainly, yards which order long lead materials such as seals, phenolic bearing material, stabilizer/bow thruster oars, and cathodic protection material in a timely manner and insure that they are suitable for the exact needs of specific vessels have an advantage. Captains covet yards which provide constant and accurate exchange of information.

The bargaining power a yard has is generally linked to some Competitive Advantage or combination of advantages associated with the operation. Yards along the Texas Gulf Coast could benefit from proximity to the Mexican and South American corridors. Lykes Brothers Steamship Company, for example, connects Mexico direct with North and South America, Europe, the Mediterranean and Africa. It provides weekly service from Boston, Norfolk, Charleston and Miami connecting to Veracruz and Altamira. That service connects Mexican exports to Galveston, New Orleans, Miami, Charleston, Norfolk and Boston. Service also runs every 12 days from New Orleans, Galveston, and Houston direct into Altamira and then on to South America. The Boston to Veracruz route takes six and a half days; New Orleans to Altamira four days. The all-water routes are very competitive with truck and rail. Unfortunately, for domestic repair yards, however, Lykes can also use foreign yards with ease.

Rivalry among competitors, here and abroad, has a direct effect on Gulf Coast yards. Intensity of rivalry between repair yards will increase as the number of facilities serving similar repair needs increases. Rivalry between such yards increases as they approach equality in size and capability and if demand for their services is growing slowly. If yards resort to price cuts or other competitive weapons, rivalry will become more intense. Rivalry is stronger when owners' costs to switch yards are low. Additionally, rivalry among yards will strengthen when one or more competitors launches a move to bolster its standing at the expense of others. Similarly, rivalry increases in proportion to the size of the payoff from a successful strategic move. Rivalry will be more vigorous when it costs more to get out of a business than to stay in and compete. Rivalry becomes more unpredictable the more diverse that yards are in terms of their strategies, personalities, corporate priorities, resources, and countries of origin.

Any government can impose realities important to a yard's health. Examples abound. MERCOSUR, the common market including Brazil, Argentina, Paraguay, and Uruguay,

influences trade in the area and, therefore, Gulf Coast repair potential. The Andean Pact including Bolivia, Columbia, Ecuador, Peru, and Venezuela does so as well. The Hidrovia project, which involves dredging, widening, and installing signals on the Parana and Paraguay Rivers impacts on commerce in that area. The Havana yard, though managed by Curacao Drydock Company, serves only Cuban vessels. On a more positive note for domestic yards, the Federal Ship Financing Program (Title XI) and the Capital Construction Fund (CCF) are two examples of how the U.S. Government has intervened to influence the industry structure of ship repair along the Texas Gulf Coast.

COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE AND DISADVANTAGE OF TEXAS GULF COAST YARDS

If the Texas repair industry is to grow, it is important to identify the areas of strength and exploit those areas. Likewise, is important to identify and acknowledge weaknesses so that each can be addressed.

COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

The U.S. is a major player in general international trade. More specifically, Texas is the location of a world-class petroleum and petrochemical industry. Thus, Texas waterways teem with ocean-going and inland vessels servicing those industries and a variety of others foreign and domestic.

Governments in Mexico and Latin America have been moving toward market oriented economic integration designed to promote growth. Examples include networks of integration agreements such as the Southern Cone Common Market (MERCOSUR), the Andean Pact, the Central American Common Market (CACM), the Caribbean Common Market (CARICOM) and the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). Since the demand for ship repair is a function of waterborne trade, Texas ship yards should benefit as these organizations grow.

Once maligned, Texas yard wage rates and labor skills are now being recognized positively throughout the world. This study yielded many examples of local workers traveling overseas to provide skills unable otherwise. The changed workplace culture and work ethic embraced by shipyard employees has resulted in a level of productivity that, when combined with low relative pay, places Texas shipyards in a very competitive position. Finally, the acceptance of universal employee status by workers has facilitated a flexible, responsive adjustment to changes in job requirements when they occur.

Texas yards have been hard pressed for years. Those surviving learned valuable lessons. They now attract customers who once viewed their operations as costly, inefficient, and unreliable. They have learned to deal with material suppliers and labor. These experiences have resulted in the development of aggressive, proactive managers who know how to compete and are not afraid to try new ideas to achieve success. Through trial and error they have opened market niches suitable to their abilities and skills.

The U.S. is a world leader in industrial production. Materials, equipment, and parts are readily available. Thus, Texas yards possess a substantial advantage over those located in remote, lesser developed countries of the world.

Reports from shippers and shipyards indicate that service specialties exist among Texas. Coatings, specialty welding, and mechanical work are examples. Respondents recognized the ability of Texas yards to perform high skill tasks as well.

COMPETITIVE DISADVANTAGE

Ship repair and new construction are not unrelated. Shipyards with new construction activities are able to justify the cost of automation also needed for repair. Texas facilities are no longer capable of handling many of the of repair, maintenance, or inspection demands required by shippers. Drydocking is virtually nonexistent. Because of a lack of critical mass, Texas is not always taken seriously by owners.

New shipyards can appear anywhere in the world. Typically, these new locations offer facilities with up to date technology and low labor costs. Such new construction is given much attention in trade journals and the general press. Texas yards, with a questionable past reputation, find it relatively more difficult to attract business as a result.

It is believed that Texas environmental regulations are causing severe problems for local yards. Restrictions, particularly related to sand blasting work and coatings, are likened to the stringent restrictions found in California.

STRATEGIES FOR EXPLOITING COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

To exploit Competitive Advantage, Porter (1980; 1985) identifies three generic strategies organizations may pursue; (1) differentiation, (2) cost leadership, and (3) focus. Organizations pursuing a differentiation strategy seek Competitive Advantage through uniqueness. Cost leadership seeks to lower costs by improving on the efficiency of production, distribution, and other organizational systems. Organizations pursuing a focus strategy try to concentrate organizational resources and expertise on a particular customer group, geographical region, or product or service line. Each of these are important for ship repair development on the Texas Gulf coast.

DIFFERENTIATION

Differentiation strategies become an attractive competitive approach whenever owners' needs and preferences are too diverse to be fully satisfied by a standardized product. Successful companies incorporate one, or maybe several, attributes and features with buyer appeal into their product/service offerings to set their offerings visibly and distinctively apart. Successful differentiation will enable a yard to: (1) command a premium price for products and/or (2)

increase unit sales (because customers are won over), and (3) gain owner loyalty because they are drawn to particular aspects of service and quality. While we do not know of their intended strategy, the Norwegian Haugestund Mek Verksted yard provides an example of differentiation. Crews there offer particular skills with regard to semi-submersibles and platforms and perform work largely at three sheltered deep water jetties. The company's experience and technology result in a series of advantages not easily duplicated elsewhere.

One of the most important determinants in the choice of a repair yard is past experience with that yard. Unless a geographic area has a reputation for quality, low cost repair work, breaking the inertia of the "old boy network" will be difficult. Therefore, Texas yards should build a selling package for use by the yards. The package might include information about unique capabilities and skills in the region, competitive wage rates, documented quality of service, and on-time performance.

COST LEADERSHIP

The value of a ship must be reflective of current market charter rates to justify investment in repair. The problem with cost leadership is that only a few yards can dominate along shipping lanes. Interviews with vessel owners/operators revealed that price is often used as a proxy for factors such as on-time performance and supervisory staff skill.

Participants in this study were keenly interested in securing low cost repairs with several caveats. First, shippers tend to establish long-term relationships with particular repair yards. They have little incentive to change or even to investigate other facilities. Bids from competing firms for repair services are typically not solicited. Detailed knowledge about operations of other yards is not sought by shippers who have identified facilities providing quality work at competitive prices. Indeed, shipping firms contacted by the authors had little detailed knowledge of differences between Gulf Coast yards and facilities located elsewhere. Second, there is an increasing awareness among vessel owners/operators that U.S. repair facilities in general and along the Gulf Coast in particular are competitive with other international facilities. Yet, continued use of particular repair yards is based on factors other than cost differentials. Cost plays its most important selection role only when comparable service levels exist.

Keppel Corporation could be considered an example of gaining market share and economies of scale through joint ventures. Most ship repair income is derived from activity in Singapore, India, the UAE, the Philippines (Subic Bay), Vietnam, and Australia where the company has interests. In this context, Texas repair yards might explore ways to harness expertise in the local petrochemical industry. Coatings may be a starting point. DuPont and other plants with the expertise may become involved. Such an approach could result in economies of scale for the industry not available otherwise. Certainly, it would offer the possibility of a sharper learning curve.

The ability of a repair yard to finance its work is an important, if not overriding, concern for many vessel owners. Time and effort are not wasted locating financing. Interestingly, owners placed a higher value on the terms of payment than on interest charges. This indicates

that cash flow is a major concern. Bankers, economic development groups, port authorities, repair yards, and investors might join to attract key shippers to the region. Such an alliance could, for example, cooperate with the Southern Cone Common Market, the Andean Pact, The Central America Common Market, the Caribbean Common Market or another to facilitate Latin American growth.

FOCUS STRATEGIES

A focuser's basis for Competitive Advantage is either (1) lower costs than competitors in serving a market niche or (2) an ability to offer niche members something different from other competitors. Niche strategies should concentrate the firm's activities in its choice of geographic market or core service offering. Most niches tend to be geographic; developing a route that has insufficient volume to attract carriers looking for global domination. The niche-seeking firm pursues domination of the route, and this strategy can be profitable as long as the niche is well served. The greatest fear of the geographic niche player is that the profitability of the segment will attract attention leading to new entrants who might segment the market further.

Ship owners indicated the most important characteristics influencing repair yard choice to be (1) "Experience in Repairing Similar Ships," (2) "Cost of Repair Work," (3) "Clearly Specified Unit Price," (4) "Payment Terms," and (5) "Objective Indications of Yard's Quality Control" (see accompanying Table). Texas yards were rated superior in all categories except "Objective Indications of Yard's Quality Control."

Table 1 Characteristics Influencing Repair Yard Choice by Rank			
Rank	Characteristic	Rank	Characteristic
1	Availability of Bid Planning Document	12	Shipyard's Variance from Standards
2	Clearly Specified Unit Price	13	Payment Terms
3	Complete Quotations on All Repair Items	14	Finance Rate
4	Experience in Repairing Smaller Ships	15	Shipyard Productivity
5	Presence of a Highly Experienced Repair Manager	16	Cost of Repair Work
6	Authority of Repair Manager to Schedule Resources	17	Shipyard Initiative in Keeping Owner Informed of Progress
7	Willingness and Ability to Satisfy Owner's Special Needs	18	Speed in Responding to Changes in Work Orders
8	Authority of Ship's Crew to do Hotwork	19	Courtesy in Responding to Repair Work Questions
9	Ability of Repair Yard to Begin Work Immediately	20	Financial Position of Shipyard
10	Objective Indication of Yard's Quality Control	21	Reserve Capability of the Shipyard
11	Yard's On-Time Performance	22	Professional Respect for the Shipyard

Owners indicated that the existence of a drydock at repair yards was very important in selecting a repair facility. Texas ability to service vessels is limited by dock availability, size, and water depth. The ability to provide other than topside work to vessels greater than 10,000dwt is out of the question. There are only drydocks at Sabine Pass in the east and Brownsville in the western portion of the Texas coast. Access to drydock facilities is not an absolute necessity, however. A substantial amount of topside work is being performed at Texas yards. Indeed, drydock and repair facilities geared for work boats abound in the state. Generally, for topside work, local facilities were viewed very positively. Not only do local yards have good facilities, but shippers reported a preference for certain yards because they are very cooperative and do good work at a competitive price.

CONCLUSIONS

The outlook of respondents was generally positive toward ship repair along the Texas Gulf Coast. A few specific conclusions are in order.

Managers of regional shipyards have, through their own initiative and work ethic, established a niche for themselves in today's highly competitive market. This has been done without governmental support for the most part. Although some yards report a critical deficiency in the availability of production and design shops and computer capabilities, availability is generally considered to be adequate. Without upgraded and expanded facilities, however, some yards will find it difficult to compete for repair work. Outside support in areas such as technical marketing, engineering, and computer modeling might be beneficial.

Worker availability and special worker skills are viewed very positively by most of the repair yards in the area. Universal worker programs where workers are hired and cross-trained to perform many tasks have been instituted. Specialists are available, but workers are no longer prevented from crossing craft lines.

The Texas ship repair market is in a state of flux, optimism is high among yard owners. Firms have learned from past mistakes and are vigorously competing with domestic and international yards for business. There is a consensus that prevailing technology, worker skills and productivity, and cost structures along the Texas Gulf Coast make the region very competitive as long as the international market is not distorted by noneconomic factors; the playing field is level.

The division of repair work among preventive maintenance, emergency repair and scheduled remodeling or conversion differs greatly among Texas yards. It appears that some firms can be categorized as principally general repair, while others have established niches for themselves in one specific type of repair. Regardless of the specialization, the vast majority of work is domestic in origin. Even so, some firms report that the majority of their repair revenue comes from foreign sources.

To achieve economies of scale, Texas repair yards might consider forming an aggressive umbrella group to promote the industry. Because many regional yards have developed unique niches, activities of the umbrella group could include gathering and organizing data to create an industry profile, cooperative solicitation of repair work, and allocating repair work among yards with difference service capabilities. Technical support might also be an important component.

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BUSINESS PROCESS REENGINEERING, DOWN SIZING AND STRESS IN HEALTHCARE ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Some organizations have opted for the more direct slash and burn approach of downsizing (DS) to maintain or retain market share. BPR (Business Process Reengineering) came into vogue in the mid 1990s. Hammer and Champy's first book, Reengineering the Cooperation (1993) took a tabula rasa approach at re-designing organization processes to maximize effectiveness. The purpose of this paper is to review the results of downsizing (DS) and business process reengineering (BPR) in healthcare organizations and to offer a diagnostic tool that might be used to evaluate employee responses to DS and BPR.

We believe that a structural analogy (the compressive strength model) is a useful way of thinking about the results of DS and BPR. Just as engineers monitor the physical changes in a compression test with devices called strain gauges, we propose that it may be useful for organizational leaders to carefully measure the changes in employee reactions and behaviors during DS and BPR. Further, we propose that a short instrument (see Appendix A) can be used at the beginning of a BPR effort to diagnose organizational commitment (Schoppe, 1998) and the relationships between organizational climate, culture and satisfaction (Johnson & McIntyre, 1998).

INTRODUCTION

The problems of DS and BPR in today's complex healthcare environments are numerous and in some cases far more complicated than the very complexities that they address. BPR is an organizational response to create faster decision making, increase organizational flexibility, and increase efficiency and productivity (Freeman & Cameron, 1993). The bottom line is that re-engineering is an attempt to make the organization more competitive in an increasingly competitive global market.

Some organizations have opted for the more direct slash and burn approach of DS to maintain or retain market share. "Downsizing is a deliberate organizational decision to reduce the workforce that is intended to improve organizational performance" (Kozlowski, Chao, Smith & Hedlund, 1993). But research has shown that nearly three fourths of organizations that

downsize did not improve their competitive advantage (Tomasko, 1992) and two thirds of the organizations had to downsize again only one year later (Pearlstein, 1994). The question is, “Is BPR any more effective than traditional DS?”

BPR came into vogue in the mid 1990s. Hammer and Champy’s first book, *Reengineering the Cooperation* (1993) took a tabula rasa approach at re-designing organization processes to maximize effectiveness. After several years of experience and research, it is readily apparent that BPR is no more effective than traditional downsizing.

Many BPR attempts fail. In fact Ackoff (1993) found that nearly two-thirds of the programs do not succeed. Reengineering proponents, however, do not cite the design or the theory of BPR as the fault of these failures. Hammer and Stranton (1995) cite management’s misunderstanding of the process as the reason for failure. Hammer and Stranton further explain the reasons for failure by nine factors in three broad categories:

1. *Leadership: (1) lack of leadership and (2) timidity in redesign*

2. *Process problems: (3) spending too much time analyzing existing processes, (4) reengineering slowly, (5) placing some aspects of the business off limits, (6) adoption of conventional implementation style and (7) ignoring the concerns of employees and;*

3. *Implementation problems: (8) reengineering where it cannot fit and (9) from new process design to implementation.*

It is interesting to note that each of these nine reasons for BPR failure could easily be described as failures of management.

DISCUSSION

BPR and DS frequently involves pressure being applied from the top of the organization to “flatten” the structure. This is analogous to a compression test in a strength of materials application. One of the dangers in BPR is “fracturing” the organization just as exceeding compressive strength of a material in a compression test will fracture the material. Using an engineering analogy, we hypothesize that as organizations restructure and compress the hierarchy into a flatter structure, internal stress is created. If too much compression occurs, eventually the compressive strength of the human material is exceeded, “fracturing” occurs and organizational effectiveness is significantly reduced. Engineers take into account not only the physical

properties of the material they are using but also environmental factors such as temperature to determine how much stress an object can bear. We contend that organizations, especially organizations with very complex internal and external environments, must use this same approach when evaluating the potential benefits of BPR and DS.

INTERNAL EFFECTS OF COMPRESSION

A casual review of the media reinforces the observation that DS is here to stay. Contributing to this has been global benchmarking and the need to keep overhead costs down. DS has been used by a number of threatened and troubled companies as a tactic for consolidating economic position. It is the inevitable outcome of living in a global economy. The administrative impact of the information and technology revolution has lead to a redundancy of the go-between role of middle management. This phenomenon has lead to lower overheads, decreased bureaucracy, faster decision making, and smoother communication. However, it is questionable if these changes are benefits. According to a survey by the Society for Human Resource Management, more than 50% of 1468 DS firms reported that productivity either remained stagnant or worsened after downsizing (Henkoff, 1990). Other studies by Henkoff (1990) showed problems with morale, trust, and productivity. Less than half of the surveyed firms reduced expenses. DS had a "severe adverse impact" on the survivors. Many organizations had an immediate upsurge in productivity and then became depressed and lethargic after DS (Appelbaum, Simpson and Shapiro, 1987; Custer, 1994).

There is the illusion of a "quick fix" with DS, equating reduction of head count with cutting cost and improving profitability. Unfortunately the star performers are often the first to leave, costing the company crucial human capital and disrupting organizational memory. This creates a group of unhappy, overworked surviving employees, causing disruption that is resolved with the hiring of costly consultants to ease organizational disarray. To the theorists, DS can have a positive long-term impact. Done in the proper way it leads to re-inventing important processes of the corporation. If properly assessed prior to the process, there is a re-evaluation of the business process, eliminates some hierarchical structure, transformation of the corporate culture, and strategic change. However, recent studies have shown that DS and presence of a motivated workforce are a contradiction.

Management is beginning to explore the psychological dimensions of downsizing. Cameron (1994) found a negative correlation between organizational effectiveness and downsizing. Research shows that effective human resource management is vital, but the effect on individuals has not been well documented. There are however studies that indicate that there was a breaking of a psychological contract with the employees. Bennett (1991) found that the way top executives handled layoffs had a significant impact on the degree of dysfunctionality of the employees and survivor work behavior and attitudes. Many senior executives do not realize how details and complexity can influence the implementation and success of a restructuring. Ignoring the survivor's emotional needs and telling them to work harder and be grateful for their jobs can engender much resentment and dysfunctional behavior.

Kets de Vreij and Balazs (1997) investigated the need to work through survivor guilt and embarrassment at still having a job and the double dose of psychological stress of the executives who act as the “executioners”. The executives had to cope with the reactions of the survivors and to deal with the stress of the change in conducting their day to day business life. Open-ended interviews were conducted to ascertain these reactions and stresses. They asked questions about the downsizing process and the effect on life and organizational issues, the experiences during the process, etc. The results looked at the coping strategies of the victims, executioners, and survivors. Fifty seven percent of the victims experienced depression and anger. Sixty two percent of the executioners had the same emotions. The survivors had the same results as the victims. Oddly seventeen percent of the victims had the feeling of “doing a Gauguin”; experiencing a rebirth of interest in life after the job ended and they started a new job.

Of the survivors, it was said that they were like Holocaust survivors with guilt at making it through and having lost friends and associates. They felt fear, distrust, powerlessness, vulnerability and violation. The sharp increase in workload, longer working hours and fewer vacation days reinforced these emotions leading to inefficiency and burnout. The dismissal of long-term employees caused a loss of institutional memory, and loss of specialists who could make certain decisions, which lead to executives, who used a short-term approach to decision making. All these changes contributed to a sense of disorientation.

Recent research has pointed out a relationship between re-engineering and disability claims for mental disorders. For these less than hardy people, re-engineering is accompanied by emotional, cognitive, and physiologic burnout. There is a deterioration of mental function with symptoms of lowered self-esteem, irritability, helplessness, and free floating anxiety. The victims, executioners and survivors all show the signs of burnout.

INTERNAL COMPLEXITIES AND BPR

Traditional attempts at re-engineering in the 1980's focused on changing the culture and effectiveness of the organization. But these approaches were often misdirected, ineffective and very slow to bring about any change. A more results driven and task oriented approach methodology was developed in the 1990's. This approach seeks rapid change in business processes and dramatic results. The problem with this approach is that if an organization truly follows this directive, they may neglect to examine the internal and external environmental inputs including very important political issues. Other operational problems with BPR are that there is not consensus on how this approach should be done and the terminology is ambiguous.

Buchanan (1997) analyzed the results of one British hospital's BPR of their operating theater. At the end of the study the only activities that had been completed were the development of a Steering Committee, and partial completion of data collection. These two stages took over seven months. What Buchanan found was that because BPR is ill defined, the re-engineering agenda is compromised by competing stakeholders willing to define and interpret the process in their best interest. Secondly, the process was muddled by the fact that each of the professional groups had their own focus, their own task and their own view on how things work.

In an attempt to more fully integrate internal and external environmental forces, DeSitter, den Hertog, and Damkbaar, (1997) have created a model of BPR that attempts to help the organization deal with a complex and continually changing environment while minimizing the effects on human resources. Traditionally, organizations have had two options with regards to re-engineering; a Taylorist approach or a sociotechnical systems designs (STSD) approach.

The Taylorist approach to re-engineering is to respond to external complexity by increasing internal complexity. To react to external developments, Taylorist have created more specialized staff functions, and a vertical information system. The second option, Sociotechnical Systems Design (STSD) has the organization dealing with external complexity by reducing internal control and coordination needs. Galbraith (1974) states this is done with self-contained units and lateral groups. Changing fragmented direct tasks into meaningful larger tasks alters the primary work process. This results in less support staff (indirect staff) and less bureaucracy. This is typically viewed as the "breaking down the work silos" approach to re-engineering. STSD does appear to have resolved some of the organizational and labor market needs by designing the correct amount of complexity of jobs with the simplest organization. The main criticism of that STSD is that it does not go beyond standard solutions and is too strongly dominated by expert knowledge from outside the organization. Therefore, re-engineering projects do not become self-propelling.

The Integral Organizational Renewal (IOR) model takes into account internal and external environmental factors in re-engineering. This model focuses on the fact that local contingencies and local knowledge cannot be ignored in favor of the general standard solution to reengineering. In re-engineering, outside consultants often tended to own the problems as opposed to the local players. If re-engineering is to work, it is apparent that the local players and new work forms had to be "designed in." Other considerations of the IOR model include allowing the expertise to become shared at the lowest level of the organization. It was found that if the expertise is not shared, the power distance between the reengineering team and the users of the new work design increased dramatically.

Neither the Taylorist approach nor the STSD approach fully integrates redesign and the internal complexities of the work environment, therefore organizational dynamics are poorly understood and both models tend to fail. IOR suggests that for BPR to succeed three main concepts must be adhered to. First, all systems and subsystems of the organization are viewed as intimately related. Second, re-engineers, managers and shop level employees must have an objective. And finally, both production structure and control structure and their relations to one another must be realized and examined and clearly understood.

Shaw and Barrett-Power (1997) expand the concept of IOR to include both macrolevel and microlevel examination of the BPR process and its effectiveness. They contend that re-engineering must be viewed as a constellation of stressor events on the organization, work groups and individuals. In this stress-based view of reorganization, Shaw and Barrett-Power cite organizational and individual dependent variables. Organizational dependent variables included a decreased ability to retain personnel, customer relations, performance and long-term strategy. Individual dependent variables include an increase in job insecurity, anger, stress, and a decrease in job loyalty, commitment, motivation and productivity.

Nwabueze and Kanji (1997) examined seven health care organizations in the United Kingdom attempting BPR. They found ten common "pitfalls" of BPR all focusing on the lack of an environmentally sensitive systems approach. In a case study, a British hospital's approach to BPR proved to be successful. One of the most interesting facts was that key personnel in the first stage of the process traveled to U.S. hospitals undergoing and having completed BPR. The most important lessons learned were what not to do. The second stage was comprised of learning about themselves from internal audits of patients', clinicians', and non-clinicians' perceptions, needs, gaps in service and their readiness for change. Four major success factors

of the BPR process were determined which follow the systems approach, (1) know your inputs, (2) know and improve the processes, (3) monitor outputs and (4) provide feedback.

RECOMMENDATIONS

We believe that a structural analogy (the compressive strength model) is a useful way of thinking about the results of DS and BPR. Just as engineers monitor the physical changes in a compression test with devices called strain gauges, we propose that it may be useful for organizational leaders to carefully measure the changes in employee reactions and behaviors during DS and BPR.

In altering hospital structures, it must be seen that the hospital is primarily a user of human talent and skills, as the material for producing the product called healthcare. Particularly in a healthcare environment, there is already stress and compression that is inherent in the professions involved and the characteristics of the stakeholders. Furthermore, recent governmental regulations and market pressures have increased all healthcare systems stressors. This challenges the malleability of the human material as the complexity of the tasks and stressors increases. Job satisfaction reaches a critical point where the material can take only so much stress and then must yield to these stresses. This is shown by increased turnover, increased error, lack of productivity and ultimately loss of profits and increased costs.

We propose that a short instrument (see Appendix A) can be used at the beginning of a BPR effort to diagnose organizational commitment (Schoppe, 1998) and the relationships between organizational climate, culture and satisfaction (Johnson & McIntyre, 1998).

We propose that:

(1) *Organizational commitment (citizenship behavior) will correlate positively with satisfaction.*

(2) *Satisfaction will be inversely related to the duration of a BPR effort.*

It is the intent of the authors to assess the reliability of the proposed instrument (see Appendix A) in a large, Midwestern healthcare facility that has recently begun substantial BPR efforts. We encourage the use of this instrument by others and are willing to share empirical results.

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APPENDIX A
BPR SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

									Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1)	Effective methods are used to encourage employee involvement in quality improvement.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]									
2)	Managers provide an environment that supports employee involvement.			[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]							
3)	Effective actions have been taken to increase the authority of employees to make job related decisions.		[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]								
4)	Managers recognize employee contributions in a fair and equitable manner.			[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]							
5)	Managers recognize activities directly related to quality improvement.		[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]								
6)	I am given feedback which helps me improve my job performance.		[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]								
7)	Employees are encouraged to express new ideas.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]									
8)	My manager provides assistance for my career development.			[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]							
9)	I am kept fully informed about major issues affecting my job.		[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]								
10)	The information I receive through formal channels helps me do my job effectively.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]									
11)	Creativity is actively encouraged in our work group.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]									
12)	The procedures used to make decisions make sure the decisions are based on as much accurate information as possible.		[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]								
13)	With regard to carrying out procedures at your organization, your supervisor takes steps to deal with you in a truthful manner.		[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]								
14)	I am comfortable with the tasks of my job and the level of support from my supervisor.		[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]								
15)	I help others who have heavy workloads.			[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]							
16)	I do not take unnecessary time off work.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]									

