JOURNAL OF ORGANIZATIONAL
CULTURE, COMMUNICATIONS AND CONFLICT

JoAnn C. Carland
Editor
Carland College

All authors must execute a publication permission agreement taking sole responsibility for the information in the manuscript. The DreamCatchers Group, LLC is not responsible for the content of any individual manuscripts. Any omissions or errors are the sole responsibility of the individual authors.

The *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict* is owned and published by the DreamCatchers Group, LLC, PO Box 2689, 145 Travis Road, Cullowhee, NC 28723, USA, (828) 293-9151, FAX (828) 293-9407. Those interested in subscribing to the *Journal*, advertising in the *Journal*, submitting manuscripts to the *Journal*, or otherwise communicating with the *Journal*, should contact the Executive Director of the Allied Academies at info@alliedacademies.org.

JOURNAL OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, COMMUNICATIONS AND CONFLICT

EDITORIAL REVIEW BOARD

JoAnn C. Carland, Carland College, Editor

JOURNAL OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, COMMUNICATIONS AND CONFLICT

CONTENTS

LETTER FROM THE EDITORS

Welcome to the *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict*. The journal is owned and published by the DreamCatchers Group, LLC. The Editorial Board and the Editors are appointed by 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 editorial mission of the *Journal* is to publish empirical and theoretical manuscripts which advance knowledge and teaching in the areas of organizational culture, organizational communication, conflict and conflict resolution. We hope that the *Journal* will prove to be of value to the many communications 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, 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 at www.alliedacademies.org and know that we welcome hearing from you at any time.

JoAnn C. Carland
Editor
Carland College

www.alliedacademies.org

HOW EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND SPIRITUALITY IMPACT JOB SURVIVORS IN A POST-M&A WORK ENVIRONMENT

L. Jean Harrison-Walker, University of Houston—Clear Lake

ABSTRACT

Research shows that shareholder value is frequently reduced following corporate M&A, with "people issues" most often cited as the cause for low performance. An M&A represents a traumatic, life-altering event for employees who retain their positions. This study explores how emotional intelligence (EI) and employee spirituality influence job survivors' attempts to recover psychologically and emotionally in a post-M&A work environment.

By integrating the extant literature on spirituality, EI, cognitive appraisal, and coping, the author introduces a conceptual model that shows how these factors impact the M&A recovery process. This paper suggests that EI has a direct impact on employee coping strategies, with personal factors having moderating effects. Further, EI directly and indirectly (via spirituality) affects cognitive appraisal, which in turn affects employee coping. The imperative for developing employees' emotional intelligence becomes apparent in fortifying the workforce for potential M&A. Specific methods for developing employees' emotional intelligence, spirituality, and cognitive appraisal are presented.

This paper advances the work of Harrison-Walker and Alexander (2002) that described the employee recovery process following a merger/acquisition and the work by Harrison-Walker and Tombaugh (2002) that looked at the isolated role of spirituality in the M&A recovery process. More specifically, this paper examines the singular and combined effects of EI and spirituality, as well as the moderating effect of personal factors, in the survivor recovery process. The resulting model is the most comprehensive of its kind to date. The research propositions pave the way for empirical testing.

INTRODUCTION

When measured by either the number of incidents or their dollar value, corporate merger and acquisition (M&A) activity has increased significantly in the last 15 years (Gemignani, 2001; Pryor, 2001). For example, Pryor (2001) found that total worldwide activity increased from $142 billion in 1985 to almost $2 trillion in 1999. Similarly, the total volume of mergers and acquisitions rose

an average of 20.8 percent for the same time period. More than $520 billion in U.S. merger and acquisition activity occurred in the third quarter of 2000 (Gemignani, 2001).

Contrary to the expectations of M&A corporate partners, merger and acquisition activity does not appear to have a positive impact on shareholder value. A study by KPMG that looked at 700 of the most expensive deals from 1996 to 1998 found more than half resulted in reduced shareholder value, while another 30 percent added no discernible value. Much of the current literature that examines the aftermath of M&As suggests that people issues are the root cause of low performance following M&A (see Noer 1993, 1994).

Recently, it has been argued that employees who "survive" a corporate M&A progress through a multi-stage recovery process before regaining the psychological and emotional adjustment necessary for continued performance and productivity (Harrison-Walker and Alexander, 2002). Additionally, a model has been developed showing the impact of employee spirituality on the job survivor's progression through the recovery process (Harrison-Walker and Tombaugh, 2002). The purpose of this paper is to further examine the singular and combined effects of emotional intelligence and spirituality in the survivor recovery process. In brief, the results of the current research suggest that emotional intelligence and employee spirituality have a positive influence on the survivor's cognitive appraisal process and the use of coping strategies following M&A.

SURVIVING A CORPORATE M&A

The work environment following M&A may be radically altered and present significant challenges for those employees who have retained their positions. While many companies provide support for those who have lost their jobs in a corporate restructuring, few offer programs designed to help job survivors. Noer (1993) suggested that those left behind experience "survivor sickness," a "generic term that describes a set of attitudes, feelings and perceptions that occur in employees who remain in organizational systems following involuntary employee reductions." The sickness arises because these individuals feel violated (Moore, 1994) and as a result experience anger, depression, fear, distrust, and guilt (Brockner, 1986; Noer, 1993; Pritchett, 1985). The overall effect is diminished productivity, which may leave the company worse off than before the M&A (Noer, 1994).

Bourantas and Nicandrou (1998) argued that the cognitive and emotional reactions of surviving employees are similar to those experienced during the bereavement process. Using the experience of bereavement as an analogy, Harrison-Walker and Alexander (2002) conceptualized the survivor experience as a multi-stage "recovery process" through which individuals pass, rather than as a syndrome (defined as a group of related symptoms) (Marks, 1988; Marks and Mirvis, 1986) or sickness (Noer 1993) that must be "cured". According to Harrison-Walker and Alexander (2002), this transformational recovery process has seven identifiable stages, including: (1) insecurity; workers feel anxiety regarding the significant changes in the work environment, (2)

embarrassment; relationships become awkward as workers feel shame and embarrassment over retaining their positions while others are terminated, (3) anger; workers feel anger and resentment toward the organization for taking these disruptive actions, (4) guilt; concerned that they share some responsibility for what has happened, (5) searching; workers seek logical explanations for the changes, and to understand their new roles and responsibilities, (6) surrender; with sadness, workers accept the "death" of their old organization, and (7) growth; a sense of security is restored as workers adapt to the new work environment and experience personal and professional growth.

PERCEIVED STRESS, COGNITIVE APPRAISAL, AND THE COPING PROCESS

Viewing the experience of a corporate M&A as a potentially life-altering event, it is helpful to examine the literature on stress, cognitive appraisal, and coping to better understand the perspective of the job survivor.

Cognitive Appraisal

Seminal work by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) identified cognitive appraisal as the act of attributing meaning to environmental events. Certain events are perceived as stressful because of the meaning attributed to them. An individual's sense of vulnerability increases as his/her perceived resistance to environmental threats (e.g., perceptions of stressors) decreases. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) argued that a person's commitments (motivation to achieve valued goals) and beliefs (cognitive schema regarding what one believes to be true about the world and his/her place in it) are the major components of cognitive appraisal.

Coping, the other critical process involved in stressful encounters, was defined by Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p.141) as "… cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person." The two major coping strategies include emotion-focused coping and problem-focused coping. Emotion-focused coping refers to an individual's ability to regulate distressing emotions in response to the stressful situation. Forms of emotion-focused coping are often cognitive or behavioral strategies aimed at reducing feelings of distress, including avoidance, distancing, cognitive reappraisal, and selective attention.

Problem-focused coping highlights attempts to reconcile or change the source of the distress. Problem-focused coping strategies may be oriented outward, in attempts to directly or indirectly manage the source of the stress (e.g., change in policies or procedures). Alternatively, an individual may use internal problem-focused strategies that are oriented toward motivational or cognitive changes (such as reducing ego involvement, decreasing levels of aspiration, or learning new skills) that would allow for a beneficial cognitive reappraisal of the stressful situation. Research shows that

most people use both emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980, 1985).

THE ROLE OF SPIRITUALITY

Prior to discussing the relationship of spirituality with cognitive appraisal and coping, it seems useful to first draw a distinction between spirituality and religion. Spirituality and religion are complex and multidimensional concepts. Religion typically involves a sense of transcendence, a search for the divine or sacred, and the expression of these belief systems through the practices of an organized group or institution (Corbett, 1990; Mahrer, 1996). Religion often connotes some form of hierarchical authority in a faith-based community replete with traditions, standardized teachings and practices, and rituals (Emmons, 1999; Pargament, 1997).

The concept of spirituality often includes the basic beliefs associated with religion, e.g. a search for the ultimate, sacred or divine that transcends the physical self (Emmons, 1999). However, spirituality does not depend upon a group or institutional context and may include personal, subjective experiences not necessarily associated with traditional religious institutions and their traditions or practices (Bruce, 1996; Marty, 1998; Pargament, 1997; Roof, 1993). Spilka (1993) identified three general categories of spirituality, including theological spirituality (oriented toward God or a Higher Power), world-oriented spirituality (emphasizing one's relationship with ecology or nature), and humanistic spirituality (stressing human achievement or potential). Thus, for some people, foregoing the traditions and practices of an institutionalized religion and searching for a sense of purpose, meaning, and fulfillment by engaging in yoga or meditation, nature walks, or gardening, could constitute subjective spiritual experiences.

While the emphasis may vary across individuals, both religion and spirituality generally focus on a person's subjective relationship with a God or Higher Power, a sense of transcendence and connectedness, and/or the search for meaning and purpose in life. People often make little or no distinction between the concepts of religiousness and spirituality, choosing instead to describe themselves as both religious and spiritual (Pargament, 1997; Zinnbauer, Pargament and Scott, 1999). Similar to other researchers (see e.g., Fabricatore, Handal and Fenzel, 2000), the current research uses the general concept of "personal spirituality" to describe an individual's overall religious and spiritual belief system and practices, and their integration into daily life.

SPIRITUALITY, COGNITIVE APPRAISAL, AND COPING
IN THE EXPERIENCE OF LIFE CRISES

An abundance of literature shows that people, when struggling to find understanding and purpose in life events or cope with problems, turn to their religious and spiritual beliefs. Strong evidence suggests that religion and spirituality play an important role in moderating the negative

effects of perceived stress on various psychological and behavioral outcomes regardless of the source of the stress (Belavich, 1995; Hathaway and Pargament, 1992; Kim, 2002; Pargament, 1990, 1997). For example, Pargament (1997) reviewed a relatively large body of literature showing that various religious variables have a positive impact on psychological and emotional adjustment for individuals coping with such life events as death of a loved one, natural disasters, chronic illness, and acts of terrorism. Spilka, Shaver and Kirpatrick (1985) suggested that religion and spirituality enhance coping with stress by providing the person with a greater sense of control, self-esteem, and sense of meaning in life. Research further demonstrates that positive spiritual identity is related to healthier lifestyles, helps people cope more efficiently on an interpersonal, emotional and spiritual level (Bergin, et al., 1994; Richards and Potts, 1995), and is predictive of positive aspects of mental health, such as individual subjective well-being (see Diener, Suh, Lucas and Smith, 1999 for a review). Fabricatore, Handal, and Fenzel (2000) suggested that individuals with a stronger sense of spirituality are able to maintain a more positive sense of overall satisfaction with life when faced with daily and life stressors.

A number of studies have discussed spirituality, cognitive appraisal and coping. Pargament (1996) asserted that a person could use his or her religious or spiritual beliefs to "reframe" a stressful situation in an attempt to find purpose and meaning. Richards, Acree and Folkman (1999) found that a study group higher in spiritual development reported greater "positive reappraisal" and coping. Individuals may use their existing cognitive schema (i.e., their religious or spiritual beliefs) to more easily assimilate a traumatic event (Marrone 1999). Such assimilation strategies help individuals find ways of explaining, understanding and minimizing their loss (Marrone, 1999).

Those without well-developed spiritual or religious beliefs may experience longer periods of emotional and cognitive upheaval while new schemas are developed. That is, it may take longer and considerably more effort for such individuals to find meaning and purpose in the traumatic loss as well as their own lives.

EMOTIONAL CRISES AS A CATALYST FOR SPIRITUAL DEVELOPMENT

Some researchers have suggested that a significant life crisis can actually serve as a catalyst for personal spiritual development. Balk (1999) argued, for example, that bereavement, as a life crisis, can trigger spiritual change because the crisis (a) allows for sufficient time for reflection, (b) permanently impacts the life of the individual, and (c) creates a psychological imbalance that resists being quickly stabilized. Marrone (1999, p.498) described the "psychospiritual transformation" phase of reaction to loss as "a profound, growth-oriented spiritual/existential transformation that fundamentally changes our assumptions beliefs, and attitudes about life, death, love, compassion and God." Similarly, others argued that spiritual development occurs when an individual is forced to examine, assess and reconstruct his or her values and beliefs (Butman, 1990). Those involved in

a life crisis must consider the meaning of the event and attempt to comprehend its personal significance (Moos and Schaefer, 1986).

EMPLOYEE SPIRITUALITY AND THE SURVIVOR RECOVERY PROCESS

Harrison-Walker and Tombaugh (2002) presented a conceptual model that suggests employee spirituality can impact the survivor recovery process following corporate M&A. The model identifies the radically altered job environment (e.g., changes in job roles and responsibilities, reporting relationships, policies and procedures, culture, etc.) following the announcement of a corporate M&A as the precipitating traumatic event. Once the layoff announcements are made, surviving employees begin and progress through the stages of the recovery process (Harrison-Walker and Alexander 2002). Emerging from the recovery process, surviving workers show greater psychological and emotional adjustment to the altered environment, with an overall improvement in performance and productivity.

An employee's spirituality may impact his/her progression through the recovery process in three ways. First, experiencing the organizational restructuring associated with M&A serves as a catalyst for spiritual development. The altered job environment following the M&A meets the three criteria suggested by Balk (1999) for the type of "significant life crisis" that can promote spiritual development in that the employee would (a) have time for personal reflection, (b) be permanently impacted by the event, and (c) experience a severe psychological upheaval. Thus, after the M&A event, the employee may begin to consider previously ignored "spiritual" explanations in a search for the reason and meaning of the experience. Second, the employee's sense of spirituality impacts his/her cognitive appraisal process. As previously noted, individuals with stronger spirituality tend to be able to adjust to and recover from significant life events more quickly than others (e.g., Hathaway and Pargament, 1992; Kim, 2002; Pargament 1990, 1997; Spilka, Shaver and Kirpatrick, 1985). Their spiritual commitments and beliefs allow them to more readily restructure or cognitively assimilate what has happened to them, finding meaning and purpose in traumatic life events. Third, directly related to an individual's spirituality and cognitive appraisal of a situation, is their adoption of coping strategies to deal with the event aftermath (e.g., Marrone, 1999; Pargament, 1996; Richards, Acree and Folkman, 1999). Employees high in spirituality, able to more effectively find meaning and purpose in what has happened, will be able to use more positive problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies when attempting to adjust to the post-M&A work environment. Positive problem-focused coping strategies, for example, deal with the person's ability to identify various problem sources and plan for appropriate action. Adopting such strategies allows the employee to assert self-control, assume responsibility, maintain a safe emotional distance when appropriate, and seek social support (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Effective use of coping strategies aids the job survivor in progressing through the stages of the survivor recovery process.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Based on work by Gardner (1993) and popularized more recently by the writings of Goleman (e.g., Goleman, 1995, 1998a, 1998b, 2000, and Goleman, et.al., 2001), the concept of emotional intelligence ("EI") has come to the forefront as a potential predictor of personal and professional success. While no single theoretical definition of emotional intelligence exists in the literature, much of the current research is based on the work of Salovey and Mayer and their colleagues (e.g., Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, and Palfai, 1995). Salovey and Mayer (1990) first used the term "emotional intelligence" and later (Mayer and Salovey, 1997, p.10) defined EI as "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth."

Examination of the works of Salovey and Mayer (1990), Mayer and Salovey (1997), Goleman (1995, 1998b), and Davies, Stankov and Roberts (1998), suggests a multi-dimensional, hierarchical view of emotional intelligence that includes 4 primary components:

(1)   *Perception, appraisal and expression* - refers to the ability to know one's own emotions and express emotional needs to others. This component further refers to one's ability to sense the emotions of others and discern the sincerity or honesty of those emotions.

(2)   *Assimilation and facilitation of thinking* – the ability to use emotions in functional ways. In using emotions to facilitate thinking, the individual understands why emotions may or may not be reasonable in particular circumstances. These emotions may then be used to direct or focus one's attention and anticipate further emotional outcomes associated with specific decisions.

(3)   *Understanding and knowledge about emotions* - the ability to understand often complex and evolving emotional states. People vary in their understanding of the various antecedents and consequences of emotions and moods, and the impact of different events, people and situations on felt and expressed emotions. Further, those high in this dimension of EI tend to be more cognizant of the complexity and transitional nature of emotions in themselves and others. That is, they may understand how a person may feel apparently contradictory emotions simultaneously (e.g., loyalty and betrayal), or progress from one emotional state to another.

(4)   *Regulation and management of emotions.* Research shows that people tend to strive toward positive moods and alleviate negative ones (e.g., Clark and

Isen, 1982; Mayer, Salovey, Gomberg-Kaufman, and Blainey, 1991; Morris and Reilly, 1987). This dimension of emotional intelligence refers to the ability to reflect on one's emotions and moods and successfully manage them. For example, it may be useful for an individual to disconnect, or "let go" of an emotion if that emotion is actually a hindrance in a particular situation. Additionally, this ability extends to the management of the moods and emotions of others. A successful leader will be able to "read" the emotional state of his/her followers and manage accordingly.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS A COPING RESOURCE

In reviewing the literature on stress, appraisal and coping, it becomes clear that EI is related to the coping process. More specifically, EI appears to have a positive impact on emotion-focused coping as well as problem-focused coping.

Emotional Intelligence and Emotion-Focused Coping

Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p.150) suggested that emotional coping consists of cognitive and/or behavioral strategies directed at "regulating emotional response to the problem". It seems that individuals high in EI would have an advantage in this process. Regulating and managing emotions requires individuals to (1) be aware of their own emotions, (2) use those emotions to facilitate thinking and decision-making and (3) grasp the potential consequences of emotional expression. This captures the four hierarchical dimensions of EI: perception, appraisal and expression, assimilation and facilitation of thinking, understanding and knowledge about emotions, and the regulation and management of emotions. Thus, the four components of EI are prerequisites for emotional coping.

Other researchers provide further support for the positive impact of EI on emotional coping. For example, Jordan, Ashkanasy and Hartel (2002, p.365), in discussing the importance of emotional management, suggested that "the first step in developing positive emotion-focused coping strategies is for the employee to assess the authenticity of his or her felt emotion and then decide if the emotional reaction is reasonable under the circumstances."

Emotional Intelligence and Problem-Focused Coping

Emotional intelligence also appears to impact problem-focused coping. As previously noted, problem-focused coping may be directed at the environment or at the self. Outward directed strategies usually require the person to adopt problem solving techniques, including attempts to identify the source of distress, generate alternative solutions, select and implement the best solution,

and review outcomes. These strategies do not occur in an emotional vacuum, and emotions can have a profound impact on a person's cognitions and behaviors (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Jordan, Ashkanasy and Hartel, 2002). Indeed, individuals with higher levels of emotional intelligence are likely to be more successful in their problem-solving attempts, especially to the extent they require the input or compliance of others.

Similarly, problem-focused strategies that are directed inward at the self will also be influenced by emotional intelligence. These attempts are typically directed toward some motivational or cognitive change. They often involve altering one's aspirations, goals, ego involvement, perceived wants or needs, or sense of gratification. The person who is aware of and understands the complexities of his/her emotions (that is, has a higher sense of emotional intelligence) is more likely to engage in successful problem-focused coping strategies.

The Mediating Role of Personal Factors

While EI has a direct impact on coping strategies, it may also indirectly affect coping via personal factors. For example, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggested that feelings of hope and optimism, social skills, and perceived social support have a positive impact on a person's coping strategies. As previously noted, EI is central to the concept of empathy, which is the foundation for the development of functional social support systems and positive interpersonal relationships. Further, EI promotes positive moods and enhances cognitive processes associated with creativity, information processing and problem solving.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND SPIRITUALITY

Several authors have noted the relationship between EI and spirituality. Orr (2001), for example, argued that EI directly facilitates individual spiritual development. Meyer (1997) explained that as we mature emotionally we become better equipped to develop spiritually, and our relationship with God encourages both emotional and spiritual wholeness. Similarly, Vernick (2000) argued that a sense of emotional self-awareness and self-regulation were the starting points for any meaningful and substantive personal or spiritual growth.

As previously noted, spirituality extends beyond the boundaries of institutionalized religion to include non-traditional or secular beliefs and practices (Zinnbauer, et al., 1997). Less than one-third of the respondents in a study by Mahoney and Garci (1999), for example, stated that spirituality involves a belief in God. Rather, they suggested the concept includes forgiveness, compassion, a sense of connectedness with humanity, and meaning and purpose in life. Central themes often included in this "broad" definition of spirituality (e.g., a sense of transcendence, wholeness, connectedness) have been related to emotional intelligence. Scott Peck, psychiatrist and author of

popular inspirational books such as The Road Less Traveled, suggested, "human holiness has something to do with human wholeness" (Peck, 1995, p. 75), and asserted that the inability to solve problems and manage our emotions (i.e., characteristics of emotional intelligence) were barriers to mental, emotional, and spiritual development. Others note that definitions of spirituality often include emotions such as love and compassion, and suggest that increased spiritual development is associated with greater emotional self-awareness and the capacity for empathy (Tischler, Biberman and McKeage, 2002). Finally, Averill (2002) presented data showing that emotional creativity, a concept closely related to EI, correlated with both religious and secular characteristics of spiritual experiences, including connectedness and sense of meaning.

A search of the literature revealed only a single quantitative study relating EI and spirituality. Anderson (2001) reported a statistically significant correlation between EI and spirituality. In a discussion of Dabrowski's theory of emotional development (1964, 1967), Anderson noted that one result of emotional maturity was spiritual development. The more emotionally mature an individual, the greater their spiritual sense of connectedness among humanity and commitment to transcendent universal values.

A MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, EMPLOYEE SPIRITUALITY, AND SURVIVOR RECOVERY

The model presented in Figure 1 shows the complexity of the survivor recovery process by highlighting the roles of both spirituality and emotional intelligence, as well as the moderating effect of personal factors. The conceptual model begins with the corporate M&A, a traumatic, potentially life-altering event. Spirituality allows M&A survivors to more effectively assimilate the meaning and purpose of the event (through cognitive appraisal) and thereby use positive problem-based and emotion-based coping strategies as they progress through the recovery process.

P1:   Employee spirituality will have a positive impact on the survivor's cognitive appraisal process.

P2:   Employee spirituality will have a positive indirect impact on the survivor's emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies through its effect on cognitive appraisal.

Emotional intelligence will also influence the employee's cognitive appraisal process in the post-M&A organizational environment. The appraisal process is essentially one of perception, whereby the person assimilates relevant information and evaluates the significance of what is happening for his/her well-being. The appraisal, while hopefully realistic and grounded in objective events, is based on the individual's subjective interpretation of those events, and is easily influenced

by both personal and situational factors (e.g., personal commitments and beliefs, personality factors, environmental ambiguity, event predictability). The appraisal process typically requires the person to make decisions or judgments regarding the nature of the stressful event and the viability of various coping options.

Figure 1: Model of Emotional Intelligence, Employee Spirituality and the Survivor Recovery Process
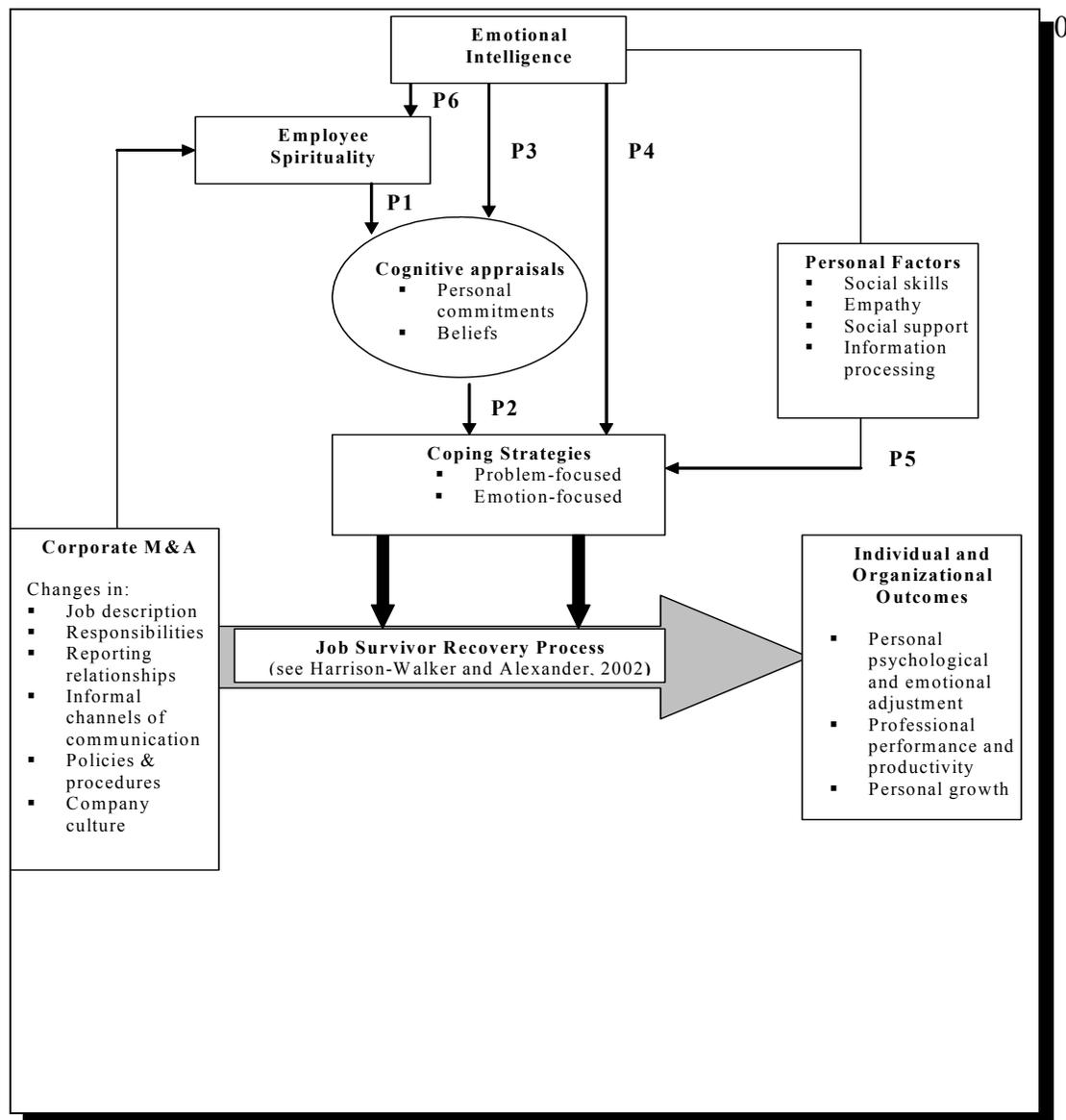
As previously noted, EI may influence cognitions and allow a person to use emotions in functional ways. For example, emotions can help focus attention and prioritize among competing stimuli (Frigda, 1988; George and Brief, 1996). Similarly, emotions can play a part in selecting alternative options, making decisions, and anticipating future emotional states (Damasio, 1994). Emotions can also influence perspective, planning, and perceptions of future success (Forgas, Bower, and Moylan, 1990; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Given the impact of emotions on various cognitive processes and decision-making, it is reasonable to suggest that EI will have a positive impact on the employee's cognitive appraisal process. More specifically, employees higher in EI will make more realistic appraisals in the potentially complex post-M&A work environment.

P3: Emotional intelligence will have a positive impact on the employee's cognitive appraisal process.

Following cognitive appraisal of the situation, employees will typically adopt both emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies in an attempt to more effectively deal with the potential stress of the work environment. Jordan, Ashkanasy and Hartel (2002) suggested that EI will influence an employee's coping behaviors and impact the emotional consequences of job insecurity. Similarly, as indicated in Figure 1, the coping strategies used by job survivors will be directly impacted by their emotional intelligence. That is, survivors high in EI will adopt more positive, realistic and successful strategies than low intelligence survivors.

P4: Emotional intelligence will directly influence both emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies used by job survivors.

Emotional intelligence can also have an indirect impact on the coping strategies used by job survivors via personal factors. The ability to manage one's own emotions, and better understand and deal with the emotions of others, allows for more effective functioning in the interpersonal arena. Various factors related to EI, such as empathy, social skills, and social support networks allow high emotional intelligence survivors to adopt more positive, realistic and successful strategies than low intelligence survivors. With higher EI an individual can more easily attend to and process relevant information and cues, and develop and use social skills, the capacity for empathy, and social support networks. These factors influence the job survivor as he/she attempts to develop, select and implement possible coping strategies.

P5: Emotional intelligence will indirectly influence both emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies used by job survivors by a positive impact on personal factors

A single empirical study provides some support for a correlational relationship between spirituality and emotional intelligence (Anderson, 2001). Other authors support such a relationship, suggesting that as we mature emotionally (developing greater emotional intelligence) we experience greater spiritual growth (Meyer, 1997; Orr, 2001; Vernick, 2001).

P6: Emotional intelligence will have a positive impact on employee spirituality

MANAGERIAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

Several conclusions regarding corporate M&A activity seem evident: 1) there has been a significant increase in the number of M&As, and there is every reason to believe this activity will continue, 2) the performance and productivity of employees surviving M&A activity is critical for the organization's continued operation and long term growth, and 3) following M&A activity, management must take a more active role in assisting surviving employees' adjustment to the altered work environment. The spirituality, emotional intelligence, and cognitive appraisal process of job survivors are three key factors important to their psychological and emotional adjustment after M&A activity. Fortunately, evidence suggests that these key elements are amenable to management intervention.

Developing Employee Spirituality

Clearly, spiritual issues are relevant in mainstream society. Thompson (2000) noted that books on spirituality continue to top bestseller lists, and personalities such as Oprah Winfrey help millions of television viewers 'remember their spirit' by interviewing people who strive to connect their spirituality with their marriages, work, and communities. It is not difficult to find magazines, web sites, conferences and consultants focusing on life success and the impact of spiritual issues.

The issue of spirituality is also becoming increasingly accepted as relevant in the workplace (Giacalone and Jurkiewicz, 2003; Johnson, 2004; Morgan, 2004; Salopek, 2004). Howard (2002, p.238) asserted that, "writings in the spirituality at work area suggest that work should contribute to people's spiritual lives; and their spiritual lives should contribute to their work." Numerous authors have noted the significant increase in the number of publications that focus on employee spirituality as a central issue in employee and organizational development (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000; Biberman and Whitty, 2000; Cavanaugh, 1999; Conger, 1994; Craigie, 1999; Howard 2002; King and Nicol, 1999). Several authors have presented quantitative data indicating the relevance of spirituality as an organizational behavior variable. For example, in their recent text, A Spiritual Audit of Corporate America, researchers Ian Mitroff and Elizabeth Denton (1999) presented data that showed managers believe spirituality is an appropriate topic for the workplace, and that organizations described as "spiritual" were also rated as showing greater warmth, flexibility, caring

and ethics. Bruce (2000) presented data showing that almost half of the employees surveyed indicated their work was an important part of their spiritual path. Trott 's (1996) data showed that employee spirituality was related to greater commitment to the organization, increased individual self-efficacy, and a greater willingness to cooperate, grow, learn, and adapt to challenges.

In organizations, management may help employees develop their sense of spirituality. Programs can be designed to increase the awareness of spiritual issues and their relevance to the workplace (Ashforth and Pratt, 2003). These programs may include opportunities to share spiritual values (e.g., spiritual teambuilding), spiritual leadership training, and structured activities related to spiritual experiences (e.g., yoga and meditation classes, prayer groups, guest speakers, and community involvement). John Harben, a client director at change management consultants Smythe Dorward Lambert, is experimenting with monastic models to induce a more reflective atmosphere in the workplace, such as coffee breaks in a quiet room where someone reads books with a spiritual dimension -- perhaps poetry -- much as monks do at mealtimes (Kennedy, 2002). According to Harben, busy, open-plan offices should be complemented by a quiet haven where people can go just to think and contemplate (Kennedy 2002).

Those in leadership positions can exhibit spiritual leadership that "encourages people to ask questions, develop their capabilities and discernment, align themselves to a higher vision, and develop a sense of their own personal destiny" (Howard, 2002, p.237). For example, during his tenure as CEO of Memorial Hermann Healthcare System in Houston, Texas, Dan Wolford nurtured spirituality within his organization by implementing the Spiritual Leadership Institute. Stephen Bynum, Dean of the Institute, notes that "when people realize and appreciate their spiritual depth, their capacity to become leaders is more profound, they become more productive, and they have a more positive impact on others – overall they create better working environments." (Wolf, 2004, p. 23). Tom's of Maine invites diverse spiritual leaders to speak to employees (Brandt, 1996), while Taco Bell and Pizza Hut have chaplains on staff to help employees with their spiritual concerns (Conlin, 1999). Similarly, Monsanto Corporation has brought in experts to instruct managers on Buddhist practices (Tworkov, 2001), and employees at World Bank hold informal weekly meetings to discuss spiritual issues and work (Galen and West, 1995).

Providing programs designed to promote spirituality in the workplace will only be somewhat effective if implemented immediately following the announcement of a merger or acquisition. A far greater impact is likely if such programs are in place long before any corporate upheaval. That is, if employees are high in spirituality before any significant restructuring is announced, they will be in a better position to draw upon existing religious or spiritual beliefs and schema to "reframe" and assimilate the trauma associated with the event (Marrone 1999; Pargament 1996), if and when it does occur. Moreover, organizations should realize that non-economic considerations are important when considering the types of strategic decisions that surround M&As (Bagley and Page, 1999; Kiefer, 2002; Pfeffer, 2003). "People factors," such as employee spirituality and emotional intelligence, may impact post-M&A employee adjustment and productivity, and are relevant in

profitability projections and M&A decisions. By developing and periodically assessing non-economic people factors, management could more readily anticipate the ability of the workforce to "rebound" from the upheavals common to a post-M&A environment. For example, as the model presented here predicts, a spiritually disengaged workforce could adversely impact near-term quality, productivity, and profitability.

Developing Employee Emotional Intelligence

As asserted earlier in this paper, EI has a positive impact on the ability of job survivors to proceed through the survivor recovery process. Goleman (1998a) suggested that people high in EI remain optimistic and that self-regulation combines with achievement motivation to overcome the frustration or depression that may come after a setback. Interestingly, he specifically discusses the effect of EI in terms of dealing with the ambiguity and change that result from an experience such as a corporate M&A:

People who have mastered their emotions are able to roll with the changes. When a new change program is announced, they don't panic. Instead, they are able to suspend judgment, seek out information, and listen to executives explain the new program. As the initiative moves forward, they are able to move with it. Sometimes they even lead the way. (Goleman 1998a, p.98)

Similar to the issue of employee spirituality, it is important to establish that EI can be developed. While scientific inquiry points to a genetic component to EI, psychological and developmental research clearly demonstrate that EI can be learned (Goleman, 1998b). As many as 700 school districts across the country have instituted programs involving emotional learning exercises (Ratnesar, 1997). At the university level, Tucker, et al. (2000) argue that business schools should include courses on EI in their curricula, and provide an outline for designing and delivering such courses.

Several authors have discussed the design, implementation, and potential effectiveness of training programs focusing on individual EI (see, e.g., Goleman, 1995, 1998b; Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). There seems to be general agreement with the conclusion of Cherniss and Goleman (1998, p.4), who asserted that, "a growing body of research on emotional learning and behavior change suggests it is possible to help people of any age become more emotionally intelligent at work." They offered guidelines for the successful implementation of EI training in work settings, including issues related to preparation, training, transfer and maintenance, and program evaluation.

Dulewicz and Higgs (2004) presented statistical evidence that supported the developmental nature of several of the components of EI, citing an improvement in survey scores following EI training. Sala (2001) provided preliminary evidence that participation in a workshop designed to increase EI resulted in a significant increase in assessment scores for two groups of managers and employees. Similarly, Cherniss and Caplan (2001) documented the gains in employee productivity

attributed to a training program on EI at a large life insurance organization. They recommended that any attempt to implement EI training in organizations follow certain guidelines, including linking the program to specific business needs, securing the support of top management, and monitoring the instructional quality of the program

Ashkanasy and Daus (2002, p.82), in discussing issues related to training on EI, suggested they are "cautiously optimistic and perceive evidence that such training may in the end prove beneficial." Further, they identified specific techniques to enhance the EI of employees, including assessing the emotional impact of specific jobs, creating a positive emotional climate by modeling appropriate behaviors, rewarding positive emotional attitudes, and training on emotional expression. Druskat and Wolff (2001) argued that teams could be trained to develop their collective emotional intelligence, improving team performance beyond the levels of individuals who may be high in EI. Similarly, Jordan (2204) and Jordan, et al. (2002) showed that coaching on EI could improve the performance of certain teams. Given the proposed impact of EI on spirituality, any efforts by management to promote EI should also have an indirect, positive effect on employee spirituality.

Influencing Employee Cognitive Appraisal

As noted previously, managers can indirectly influence cognitive appraisal through the development of programs designed to enhance spirituality. However, managers may also impact cognitive appraisal directly. Cognitive appraisal is the act of attributing meaning to environmental events. Events that have the potential to become stressors to a person tend to do so because of the meaning attributed to them. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggested that the major components of cognitive appraisal are (1) a person's beliefs (cognitive schema regarding what one believes to be true about the world and his/her place in it) and (2) a person's commitments (motivation to achieve valued goals).

To directly influence an employee's appraisal process, managers should take steps designed to ensure that employees attribute a positive meaning to the corporate restructuring. Shortly after a merger or acquisition is announced, the primary concern of job survivors is whether or not they have a future with the company. Immediately following the announcement, management should assure survivors that their jobs are secure and that all layoff decisions related to the M&A are complete. To further cast a positive light, management should take time to discuss the rationale behind the specific changes being made and demonstrate the level of competence with which the decisions were made (Harrison-Walker and Alexander, 2002).

A second step in influencing cognitive appraisal is to stimulate employee motivation to achieve valued goals. To build employee commitment to the new organizational structure, management should highlight the many long-term benefits of the M&A. The self-esteem and confidence of survivors can be bolstered by rewarding or otherwise reinforcing behaviors that demonstrate acceptance of the new organization and structure.

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

In considering the singular and combined effects of emotional intelligence and spirituality in the survivor recovery process, a number of paths between and among the various factors have been identified in Figure 1 based on the existing literature. However, other paths not included herein could be examined in future research with respect to their role in the survivor recovery process. For example, one might consider the impact, if any, of the personal factors on the two factors or cognitive appraisals (e.g., personal commitments and beliefs). A second area of future research would be the inclusion of additional factors into the model. Additional factors might include, for example, external variables such as event predictability given industry characteristics or trends, and environmental ambiguity given more general business and environmental trends. Future research into these and other areas is indicated to more thoroughly understand (1) how job survivors deal with a potential M&A and (2) what companies can do to fortify their workforce when a M&A is anticipated. Such research is critical to long term organizational growth following M&A.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

REFERENCES

Anderson, A. L. (2001). *An exploration of the relationship of openness, emotional intelligence, and spirituality to universal-diverse orientation.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University.

Ashforth, B. E. & R.H. Humphrey (1995). Emotion in the workplace: A reappraisal. *Human Relations*, 48(2), 97-126.

Ashforth, B. E. & M.G. Pratt (2003). Institutionalized spirituality: An oxymoron? In R.A. Giacalone, & C.L. Jurkiewicz (Eds.), *The Handbook of Workplace Spirituality and Organizational Performance (pp.93-107)*. New York: M.E. Sharpe.

Ashkanasy, N. M. & C.S. Daus (2002). Emotion in the workplace: The new challenge for managers. *Academy of Management Executive*, 16(1), 76-86.

Ashmos, D. & D. Duchon (2000). Spirituality at work: A conceptualization and measure. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 9(2), 134-145.

Averill, J. (2002). Emotional creativity: Toward spiritualizing the passions. In C.R. Snyder & S.J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of Positive Psychology* (pp.172-185). New York: Oxford University Press.

Bagley, C. E. & K.L. Page (1999). The devil made me do it: Replacing corporate directors' veil of secrecy with the mantle of stewardship. *San Diego Law Review*, 36(4), 897-945.

Balk, D. E. (1999). Bereavement and spiritual change. *Death Studies*, 23(6), 485-493.

Belavich, T. G. (1995). The role of religion in coping with daily hassles. Presented at the *Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association*, New York.

Bergin, A. E., K.S. Masters, R.D. Stinchfield, T.A. Gaskin, C.E. Sullivan, E.M. Reynolds, et al. (1994). Religious life-styles and mental health. In L.B. Brown (Ed.), *Religion,Personality and MentalHealth* (pp.69-93).New York: Springer-Verlag.

Biberman, J. & M.D. Whitty (Eds.) (2000), *Work and Spirit: A Reader of New Spiritual Paradigms for Organizations.* University of Scranton Press: Scranton.

Bourantas, D. & I. Nicandrou (1998). Modeling post-acquisition employee behavior: Typology and determining factors. *Employee Relations,* 20(1/2), 73-91.

Brandt, E. (1996). Corporate pioneers explore spirituality. *HR Magazine*, 41(4), 82-87.

Brockner, J. (1986). The impact of layoffs on the survivors. *Supervisory Management*, 31(2), 2-8.

Bruce, S. (1996). *Religion in the Modern World: From Cathedrals to Cults.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bruce, W. M. (2000). Public administrator attitudes about spirituality: An exploratory study. *American Review of Public Administration*, 30(4), 460-472.

Butman, R. E. (1990). The assessment of religious development: Some possible options. *Journal of Psychology and Christianity*, 9(2), 14-26.

Cavanagh, G. F. (1999). Spirituality for managers: context and critique. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 12(3), 186-199.

Cherniss, C. & R.D. Caplan (2001). A case study in implementing emotional intelligence programs in organizations. *Journal of Organizational Excellence*, 21(1), 73-85.

Cherniss, C. & D. Goleman (1998). Bringing emotional intelligence to the workplace. Technical report issued by the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, Retrieved December 2, 2003 from http://www.eiconsortium.org/report.htm

Clark, M. S. & A.M. Isen (1982). Toward understanding the relationship between feeling states and social behavior. In A.M. Isen and A.H. Hastorf (Eds.), *Cognitive Social Psychology* (pp.73-108), New York: Elsevier.

Conger, J. A. (1994). *Spirit at work: Discovering the spirituality in leadership.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Conlin, M. (1999). Religion in the workplace: The growing presence of spirituality in corporate America. *Business Week*, 11/01/99(3653), 151-158.

Corbett, J. M. (1990). *Religion in America.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ.: Prentice Hall.

Cornett, C. (1998). *The soul of psychotherapy: Recapturing the spiritual dimension in the therapeutic encounter*. New York: Free Press.

Craigie, J., F. (1999). The spirit and work: Observations about spirituality and organizational life. *Journal of Psychology and Christianity*, 18(1), 43-53.

Dabrowski, K. (1964). *Positive disintegration*. Boston: Little Brown & Co.

Dabrowski, K. (1967). *Personality shaping through positive disintegration*. Boston: Little Brown.

Damasio, A. R. (1994). *Descartes' error: Emotion, reason, and the human brain*. New York: G.P. Putnam.

Davies, M., L. Stankov, & R.D. Roberts (1998). Emotional intelligence: In search of an elusive construct. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(4), 989-1015.

Diener, E. & R.E. Lucas (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(2), 276-302.

Druskat, V. U. & S.B. Wolff (2001). Building the emotional intelligence of groups. *Harvard Business Review*, 79(3), 80-90.

Dulewicz, V. & M. Higgs (2004). Can emotional intelligence be developed? *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(1), 95-111.

Emmons, R. A. (1999). *The psychology of ultimate concerns: Motivation and spirituality in personality*. New York: Guilford Press.

Fabricatore, A. N., P.J. Handal, & L.M. Fenzel (2000). Personal spirituality as a moderator of the relationship between stressors and subjective well-being. *Journal of Psychology and Theology*, 28(3), 221-228.

Folkman, S. & R. Lazarus (1980). An analysis of coping in a middle-aged sample. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 21(3), 219-239.

Folkman, S. & R. Lazarus (1985). If it changes it must be a process: A study of emotion and coping during three stages of a college examination. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 48, 150-170.

Forgas, J. P., G.H. Bower, & S.J. Moylan (1990). Praise or blame? Affective influences on attributions for achievement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(4), 809-819.

Frigda, N. H. (1988). The laws of emotion. *American Psychologist*, 43, 349-358.

Fry, P. S. (2001). The unique contribution of key existential factors to the prediction of psychological well-being of older adults following spousal loss. *Gerontologist*, 42(1) 69-81.

Galen, M. & K. West (1995). Companies hit the road less traveled. *Business Week*, 6/5/95(3427), 82-84.

Gardner, H. (1993). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligence*. New York: Basic Books.

Gemignani, J. (2001). Human lessons from the M&A wars. *Business and Health*, 19(3), 35-39.

George, J. M. & A.P. Brief (1996). Motivational agendas in the workplace: The effects of feelings on focus of attention and work motivation. In B.M. Staw & L.L. Cummings, (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 18, 75-110.

Giacalone, R. A. & C.L. Jurkiewicz (2003). Toward a science of workplace spirituality. In R.A. Giacalone & C.L. Jurkiewicz (Eds.), *Handbook of workplace spirituality and organizational performance* (pp.3-28). New York: M.E. Sharpe.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam.

Goleman, D. (1998a). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review*, 76(6), 93-103.

Goleman, D. (1998b). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam.

Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results, *Harvard Business Review*, 78(2), 78-90.

Goleman, D., R. Boyatzis, & A. McKee (2001). Primal leadership. The hidden driver of great performance. *Harvard Business Review*, 79(11), 42-51.

Harrison-Walker, L. J. & E. Alexander (2002). Stages of the survivor recovery process following corporate M&A. *Journal of Business Disciplines*, 3(1), 15-30.

Harrison-Walker, L. J. & J.R. Tombaugh (2002). The role of employee spirituality in the survivor recovery process following corporate M&A. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications, and Conflict*, 6(1-2), 97-109.

Hathaway, W. L. & K.I. Pargament (1992). The religious dimensions of coping: Implications for prevention and promotion. In K.I. Pargament, K.I.Maton, and R.E. Hess (Eds.) *Religion and prevention in mental health: Research, vision and action*. New York: Haworth Press.

Howard, S. (2002). A spiritual perspective of learning in the workplace. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 17(3), 230-242.

Johnson, H. (2004). Taboo no more. *Training*, 41(4), 22-26.

Jordan, P.J. (2004). Managing emotions during team problem solving. *Human Performance*, 17(2), 195-218.

Jordan, P. J., N.M. Ashkanasy, & C.E.J. Hartel (2002). Emotional intelligence as a moderator of emotional and behavioral reactions to job insecurity. *Academy of Management Review*, 27(3), 361-372.

Jordan, P. J., N.M. Ashkanasy, C.E.J. Hartel & G.S. Hooper (2002). Workgroup emotional intelligence: Scale development and relationship to team process effectiveness and goal focus. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12(2), 195-214.

Kennedy, C. (2002). God and mammon. *Director*, 55(9), 62-64.

Kiefer, T. (2002). Understanding the emotional experience of organizational change: Evidence from a merger. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 4(1), 39-61.

Kim, Y. (2002). Spirituality moderates the effects of stress on emotional and physical adjustment. *Personality and Individual Differences*, June, 1377-1390.

King, S. & D.M. Nicol (1999). Organizational enhancement through recognition of individual spirituality. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 12(3), 234-242.

Lazarus, R. S. & S. Folkman (1984). *Stress, appraisal and coping*. New York: Springer.

Mahoney, M. J. & G.M. Graci (1999). The meanings and correlates of spirituality: Suggestions from an exploratory survey of experts. *Death Studies*, 23(6), 521-528.

Maher, A. R. (1996). Existential-humanistic psychotherapy and the religious person. In E.P. Shafranske (Ed*.), Religion and the clinical practice of psychology* (pp.433-460), Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Marks, K. L. (1988). The merger syndrome: The human side of corporate combinations. *Journal of Buyouts and Acquisitions*, January/February, 18-23.

Marks, M. L. & P.H. Mirvis (1986). The merger syndrome; when companies combine, a clash of cultures can turn potentially good business alliances into financial disasters. *Psychology Today*, 20(10), 36-41.

Marrone, R. (1999). Dying, mourning, and spirituality: A psychological perspective. *Death Studies*, 23(6), 495-519.

Marty, M. E. (1998). Revising the map of American religion. In W.C. Roof (Ed.), *Americans and religions in the twenty-first century* (pp.13-27). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mayer, J. D. & P. Salovey (1997). What is emotional intelligence: Implications for educators. In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional Development, Emotional Literacy, and Emotional Intelligence* (pp.3-31), New York: Basic Books.

Mayer, J. D., P. Salovey, S. Gomberg-Kaufman, & K. Blainey (1991). A broader conception of mood experience. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60(2), 100-111.

Menzel, D. (2001). Should spirituality be taught? *PA Times*, 24(9), 12.

Meyer, J. (1997), *Managing Your Emotions: Instead of your emotions managing you*. Tulsa, Oklahoma: Harrison House.

Mitroff, I. & E.A. Denton (1999). *A spiritual audit of corporate America: A hard look at spirituality, religion, and values in the workplace*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Moore, T. F. (1994). Rightsizing: Living with the new reality. *Healthcare Financial Management*, 48(9), 48-53.

Moos, R. H. & J.A. Schaefer (1986). Life transitions and crises: A conceptual overview. In R. H. Moos (Ed.), *Coping with life crises: An integrated approach* (pp.3-28), New York: Plenum Press.

Morgan, J.F. (2004). How should business respond to a more religious workplace? *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 69(4), 11-19.

Morris, W. N. & N.P. Reilly (1987). Toward the self-regulation of mood: Theory and research. *Motivation and Emotion*, 11, 215-249.

Noer, D. M. (1993). *Healing the wounds: Overcoming the trauma of layoffs and revitalizing downsized organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Noer, D. M. (1994). Healing the wounds. *Small Business Reports*, 19(4), 58-60.

Orr, L. G. (2001), *How emotional intelligence facilitates spiritual formation.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Azusa Pacific University.

Pargament, K. I. (1990). God help me: Toward a theoretical framework of coping for the psychology of religion. *Research in the Social Scientific Study of Religion*, 2, 195-224.

Pargament, K. I. (1996). Religious methods of coping: Resources for the conservation and transformation of significance. In E. P. Shafranske (Ed.), *Religion and the clinical practice of psychology* (pp. 215-240), Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Pargament, K. I. (1997). *The psychology of religion and coping: Theory, research and practice*. New York: Guilford Press.

Peck, M. S. (1995). *In Search of Stones*. New York: Hyperion.

Pfeffer, J. (2003). Business and the spirit: Management practices that sustain value. In R. A. Giacalone and C. L. Jurkiewicz (Eds.), *Handbook of workplace spirituality and organizational performance* (pp. 29-45), New York: M.E. Sharpe.

Pritchett, P. (1985). *After the merger: Managing the shockwaves*. Homewood, Illinois: Dow Jones-Irwin.

Pryor, F. L. (2001). Dimensions of the worldwide merger boom. *Journal of Economic Issues*, 35(4), 825-840.

Ratnesar, R. & E. Mitchell (1997). Teaching feelings 101. *Time*, 150(13), 62.

Richards, P. S. & R. Potts (1995). Spiritual interventions in psychotherapy: A survey of the practices and beliefs of AMCAP members. *Association of Mormon Counselors and Psychotherapists Journal*, 21, 39-68.

Richards, T. A., M. Acree, & S. Folkman (1999). Spiritual aspects of loss among partners of men with AIDS: Postbereavement follow-up. *Death Studies*, 23(2), 105-127.

Roof, W. C. (1993). *A generation of seekers: The spiritual journeys of the baby boom generation*. San Francisco: Harper Collins.

Sala, F. (2001). *Do programs designed to increase emotional intelligence at work - work?* Technical report issued by the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations [online]. Available at: http://www.eiconsortium.org/report.htm.

Salopek, J.J. (2004). Engaging mind, body, and spirit at work. *T+D*, 58(11), 17-19.

Salovey, P. & J.D. Mayer (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*, 9, 185-211.

Salovey, P., J.D. Mayer, S.L. Goldman, C. Turvey & T.P. Palfai, (1995). Emotional attention, clarity, and repair: Exploring emotional intelligence using the trait meta-mood scale.,In J. W. Pennebaker (Ed.), *Emotion, disclosure, and health* (pp. 125-154), Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Spilka, B. (1993). Spirituality: Problems and directions in operationalizing a fuzzy concept. Presented at the *American Psychological Association*, Toronto, Ontario.

Spilka, B., P. Shaver, & L. Kirkpatrick (1985). A general attribution theory for the psychology of religion. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 24(1), 1-20.

Thompson, W. D. (2000). Can you train people to be spiritual? *Training and Development*, 54(12), 18-19.

Tischler, L., J. Biberman, & R. McKeage (2002). Linking emotional intelligence, spirituality and workplace performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 17(3), 203-218.

Trott III, D. C. (1996). *Spiritual well-being of workers: An exploratory study of spirituality in the workplace*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Texas.

Tucker, M. L., J.Z. Sojka, F.J. Barone, & A.M. McCarthy (2000). Training tomorrow's leaders: Enhancing the emotional intelligence of business graduates. *Journal of Education for Business*, 75(6), 331-337.

Tworkov, H. (2001). Contemplating corporate culture. *Tricycle*, Summer, 83-89.

Vernick, L. (2000). *The Truth Principle: A life-changing model for spiritual growth & renewal*. Colorado Springs: Waterbrook Press.

Wolf, E.J. (2004). Spiritual leadership: A new model. *Healthcare Executive*, 19(2), 22-25.

Zinnbauer, B. J., Paragment, K. I., Cole, B., Rye, M. S., Butter, E. M., Berlavich, T. G., et al. (1997). Religion and spirituality: Unfuzzying the fuzzy. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 36(4), 549-564.

Zinnbauer, B. J., K.I. Pargament, & A.B. Scott (1999). The emerging meanings of religiousness and spirituality: Problems and prospects. *Journal of Personality*, 67(6), 889-919.

WHAT'S CTE GOTTA DO WITH IT: ARE CTE GRADUATES EMPLOYED IN THE FIELDS IN WHICH THEY RECEIVED THEIR TRAINING?

C. Justice Tillman, Lander University
Wanda R. Tillman, Capella University

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this quantitative study was to identify those groups of CTE program participants who generally pursue work in the career field in which they have received their training. Career and Technology Education program graduates who were members of the National Technical Honor Society (NTHS; n=1066) from various parts of the Unites States comprised the sample which included members from the various occupational groups identified by the NTHS Occupational Codes. The survey contained questions related to current employment status and unemployment rates among the various occupational groups identified. Findings were that NTHS program graduates who were employed had about 57.1% of the respondents working in the areas in which they received their training. The largest group of those unemployed were persons in the medical/health/social services field.

INTRODUCTION

Anyone who has a true passion to understand the things that have embodied the area of Career and Technical Education will find it necessary to examine its dynamic heritage. When beginning to look at early education history, many immediately think of the agricultural period, move into the industrial revolution, and finally into the information/ technology society we have grown into today (Scott & Sarkees-Wircenski, 2001).

There was a strong political class system in the early days of vocational education, which is now CTE, and many people were educated in the humanities. This period of early education began with roots in the family units and in church. In the early days, family units served as the nucleus for education. The needs of education were served in this way until the advent of the apprenticeship training programs (Scott & Sarkees-Wircenski, 2001). Apprenticeships were designed for the working class who wanted their children to learn a skill or a trade, with the family serving as the center. Apprenticeships were a very integral part of education even as the churches continued to play a major role in education. Apprenticeships are still active today and serve as a vital component in the transfer of knowledge and skills (Scott & Sarkees-Wircenski, 2001).

Career and Technical Education programs offered through schools and by community and technical colleges attempt to provide its participants with the skills and training necessary to compete successfully in the workforce of the millenium and into the future (Cohen & Besharov, 2002). Upon graduation, Career and Technical Education students may enter the employment arena, to include active military, apprenticeship programs, technical college degree programs or other post-secondary training. Career and Technical Education seeks to provide hands-on applied learning experiences that build academic knowledge, problem solving skills, general employment skills, and specific career skills.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Currently, there is limited research focused on Career and Technical Education program graduates. Career and technical education has the ability to benefit students directly by providing earning advantages, both before and after graduation (Brown, 2003). The problem of this study was to assess if CTE program participants were employed in the fields they received their training. This study also sought to determine their current employment status, when the students obtained their employment, how they obtained their employment, and whether their were higher unemployment rates among certain occupational groups.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

While Career and Technical Education (CTE) programs are not the only target of controversy with the No Child Left Behind Act, they are in fact a focal point of this federal legislation. CTE programs provide students with an additional option to the traditional college prep programs, programs that some students may not have the knowledge, skills, or ability to achieve success in (Cohen & Besharov, 2002). If CTE intends to remain a significant alternative for students in secondary schools, it is imperative that leaders in the area be able to demonstrate that these programs are effective in equipping students with valuable workplace skills.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Specifically, this research attempted to answer the following research question:

Will there be substantial agreement between the occupational group a CTE student enrolled in and the occupational group in which a CTE graduate gains employment?

Subsidiary Question

An additional question, subsidiary to the research question was the following:

Do certain occupational groups tend to have higher unemployment rates than others?

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Career and Technical Education

Past

Early in the 20th century, manual training was beginning to be questioned about its effectiveness. During this time period, the Industrial Arts Movement was coming onto the scene along with vocational education. Industrial arts, formerly manual arts, was to be education that was based on industry. It was to teach students about the industry around them, make them aware of career opportunities while giving them options for different jobs in varying fields and continue to be a component of general education. Being an element of general education would mean all students would continue to take industrial arts. It was broken down into the areas of management, communications, power, transportation, and manufacturing (Scott & Sarkees-Wircenski, 2001). Industrial arts continued on this same basic path until it was converted over to technology education sometime in the 1980s.

Vocational education or career and technical education was to teach students skills they would need for entry-level jobs in industry. It began to be implemented with some of the manual training programs that existed in the public schools. Vocational education was thought to better prepare students for life in a modern industrial economy, thus helping themselves and the economy (Gray, 2002).

Present and Future

The field of Career and Technical Education (CTE) has definitely impacted the way our children learn today; however, what about the children of tomorrow? Career and technical education will have to overcome internal and external challenges (Daggett, 2001).

First, the continual education of the public about the mission of CTE is imperative. Individuals often perceive vocational education as a school for students who cannot meet the standards of a four-year university or college. Unfortunately, despite all the efforts put forth by the CTE leadership, despite the name change and wide array of initiatives, CTE is still widely perceived

as vocational education, a great program "for somebody else's child, because my child is going to college" (Daggett, 2001 p.2). The role of CTE was explored through a review of research. It was concluded that the "college for all" myth is shortchanging those young people who are either uninterested or unsuited for college (Cohen & Besharov, 2002) . If the field of career and technical education cannot quickly respond to the cultural perceptions of the public that currently exist, they will become stagnant.

Second, the evolving business environment is demanding that CTE produce workers for today's workforce. The economy has demanded workers to possess a mix of technical-related skills and academic skills (Daggett, 2001). CTE is constantly measuring the academic skills that are needed in the workplace with the state standards in English, math, and science. In addition, CTE analyzes workplace requirements to ensure students are employable when they graduate

Continual studies of workplace skills will be the key in moving CTE forward in the years to come. Improving the proficiency of the students who go through the program will build the credibility of CTE. Studies have been conducted, but the changing environment will keep the CTE field constantly moving towards change and improvement.

Education and Work

Whitehead (1961), believed that the proper goal of education comes through discovery. According to Dewey (1916), discovery is experience. Whitehead felt that education and work should be fused in order to make learning the ultimate goal of both. Whitehead realized that not all people were capable of being successful in careers that may require a four-year degree. It is important to acknowledge that some people would be better suited for manual work or other related occupations. Whitehead felt that for all people there was value in linking knowledge, labor, and moral energy.

The relationship between education and work is continuously evolving. Through the years, the purpose of the career and technical education programs has continued to evolve as well. The traditional function of preparing persons to enter the workforce will not be enough for the 21st century and beyond. One factor that will influence the direction of career and technical education in the next decade are the continuous technological changes in the workplace, both domestically and internationally. Over the next couple of decades, manufacturing will comprise a much smaller share of the U.S. economy while service industries will add millions of new jobs (Johnston & Packer, 1987).

Career and technical education evolved as an educational reform initiative because of the changing needs in the economy and the growing need for a more educated work force (Calhoun & Finch, 1982). Today's world of work is characterized more and more by a continued shift from big industry to information and service work. The 21st century workplace has become more technologically intricate and the ability of technical education programs to continue to equip

workers with the necessary skills is imperative. The goal of education as preparation for work must take these changes into account, especially the technical colleges and career centers.

METHODOLOGY

The primary objective of this study was to examine the extent to which Career and Technical Education program graduates were employed in occupations related to the training received in their secondary and/or post-secondary education. It also examined the relationship between unemployment rates and certain occupational groups.

The Research Hypothesis

Based on the purpose of establishing support for the matriculation of CTE program graduates into their fields, the primary hypothesis that guided this study was stated as follows:

Primary Hypothesis

Hypothesis: *There is no significant relationship between the program of study of a CTE student and the job choice made after graduation.*

Population

The population for this study consisted of all inductees into the National Technical Honor Society at the beginning of the research period. The population was identified by all members who had registered with the organization. The research sample was selected by a convenience sampling procedure. All inductees of the population with electronic mail addresses were selected. The total number of registered members of the NTHS for this study period was approximately 100,000. There were 19,270 obtained through a search of the NTHS data files that have electronic mail addresses on file. The intended sample consisted of 19% of the total population. The sample consisted of members who were above 18 years of age.

To avoid a failure in the study from insufficient data, sample size calculations were done using a web-based template provided by Raosoft, Inc.Ó Sample size calculations using the web-based template mentioned above yielded numbers less than those anticipated. The number of returned surveys ultimately determined the final level of precision the study had.

Information was entered into Raosoft, Inc.Ó to calculate the appropriate sample size for this study. The results were:

Margin of Error:	5%
Confidence Level:	95%
Population Size:	100,000
Response Distribution:	50%
Recommended Sample Size:	383

In terms of the numbers selected above, the sample size n and margin of error E were given by:

$$n \quad = \quad Nx/((N-1)E^2 + x)$$
$$E \quad = \quad Sqrt[(N-n)x / n(N-1)]$$
$$x \quad = \quad Z(c/100)^2 \, r(100-r)$$

Where *N* is the population size, r is the fraction of responses that the researcher was interested in, and Z(c/100) is the critical value for the confidence level c.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which Career and Technical Education program graduates were employed in occupations or career fields related to the training received during their secondary and/or post-secondary education. This section gives an interpretation of the findings of the research, with regard to the main hypothesis, and the subsidiary research question. Discussion of the findings and results is organized in the following manner. First, descriptions of the respondents are included. Second, the results derived from the demographic data are discussed. Finally, an analysis of the stated primary hypothesis and the subsidiary research question are covered.

Description of the Respondents

The population for this study consisted of 19,270 program graduates of technical education programs. From the total of 19,270 emailed questionnaires, 6,510 were undeliverable. Therefore, there were 12,760 questionnaires delivered. From the 12,760 delivered, 1,193 were submitted for a response rate of 6.19%. Of the 1,193 responses, 1066 were usable for data analysis. There were 101 respondents who did not complete the survey because they were less than 18 years of age and currently enrolled in their programs. There were 21 responses that could not be accepted because

of the deadline. There were 5 respondents who had no desire to participate in the study. Table 1 indicates the size of each group.

Table 1: Frequency Table - Occupational Groups				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agriculture	24	2.3	2.3	2.3
Banking/Financial Services	47	4.4	4.4	6.7
Construction Operations/Services	44	4.1	4.1	10.8
Hospitality/Travel Tourism	35	3.3	3.3	14.1
Manufacturing/Production	101	9.5	9.5	23.6
Medical/Health/Social Services	203	19.0	19.1	42.7
Office - Administrative/Clerical Services	119	11.2	11.2	53.9
Public Administration/Legal/ Protective Service	16	1.5	1.5	55.4
Sales & Services	111	10.4	10.4	65.8
Tech Services, Information Technology	176	16.5	16.5	82.3
Technology – Communications	98	9.2	9.2	91.5
Training/Educational Services	52	4.9	4.9	96.4
Transportation Tech./Services	34	3.2	3.2	99.6
ROTC	4	.4	.4	100.0
Total	1064	99.8	100.0	
* Missing System	2	.2		
Total	1066	100.0		
* Missing System indicates respondents who did not answer question				

Demographic Worksheet Analysis

Graduates were asked to provide information regarding the following: 1) the part of the country they received their educational training (Table 2); 2) the respondents' age group (Table 3); 3) the respondents' race (Table 4); 4) the respondents' gender (Table 5). Frequencies and percentages for the data from the demographic worksheet are reported in the following tables and explanations.

The distribution of graduates from various parts of the country is shown in Table 2. The group of graduates from the South represented the largest category of graduates responding, while the graduates from the Midwest was the second largest response group, followed by the Northwest, and finally the West.

Table 2: Frequency Table – Region of Country				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
West	47	4.4	4.4	4.4
Midwest	252	23.6	23.7	28.1
Northeast	155	14.5	14.6	42.7
South	610	57.2	57.3	100.0
Total	1064	99.8	100.0	
*Missing System	2	.2		
Total	1066	100.0		
* Missing System indicates respondents who did not answer question				

The number and percent of respondents from various age groups are reported in Table 3. The largest group was those between 18-21 years of age. The lowest number of responses came from the groups 52-61 years of age and those 62 years and over. Only 6 graduates were included in the final age group.

Table 3: Frequency Table - Age				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
18 - 21 years	477	44.7	45.4	45.4
22 - 31 years	242	22.7	23.0	68.5
32 - 41 years	181	17.0	17.2	85.7
42 - 51 years	108	10.1	10.3	96.0
52 - 61 years	36	3.4	3.4	99.4

Table 3: Frequency Table - Age				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
62 and over	6	.6	.6	100.0
Total	1050	98.5	100.0	
* Missing System	16	1.5		
Total	1066	100.0		
* Missing System indicates respondents who did not answer question				

The graduates of the various programs came from different races, as indicated in Table 4. Not all respondents indicated their race, of those respondents who indicated their race just over 75% or 796 respondents were listed as White. The second largest group was Black or African American representing almost 13% of the respondents or 136. The smallest group was comprised of the Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander representing 0.4% or 4 graduates.

Table 4: Frequency Table – Race/Ethnicity				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
White	796	74.7	75.7	75.7
Black or African American	136	12.8	12.9	88.6
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	4	.4	.4	89.0
American Indian or Alaskan Native	15	1.4	1.4	90.4
Asian	29	2.7	2.8	93.2
Hispanic or Latino	72	6.8	6.8	100.0
Total	1052	98.7	100.0	
* Missing System	14	1.3		
Total	1066	100.0		
* Missing System indicates respondents who did not answer question				

The distribution of program graduates by gender is shown in Table 5. Females represented the largest category of graduates responding at 58.5%, while the male graduates responding represented 41.5%.

Table 5: Frequency Table - Gender				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	436	40.9	41.5	41.5
Female	615	57.7	58.5	100.0
Total	1051	98.6	100.0	
* Missing System	15	1.4		
Total	1066	100.0		
* Missing System indicates respondents who did not answer question				

Current Employment Status

Of the respondents who answered the question concerning employment, 39.4% were employed full-time while 27% were employed part-time (Table 6). With the group that was unemployed, 12.1% were seeking, while 20.1% were students who indicated they were not available for employment. The remaining 1.5% of the respondents were unemployed for several reasons.

Table 6: Frequency Table – Current Employment Status				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Employed Full Time	419	39.3	39.4	39.4
Employed Part Time	287	26.9	27.0	66.4
Unemployed - Seeking	129	12.1	12.1	78.5
Unemployed - Student	214	20.1	20.1	98.6
Unemployed – Homemaker	6	.6	.6	99.2
Unemployed - Disabled	4	.4	.4	99.5
Unemployed – Other	2	.2	.2	99.7
Retired	3	.3	.3	100.0
Total	1064	99.8	100.0	
* Missing System	2	.2		
Total	1066	100.0		
* Missing System indicates respondents who did not answer question				

When Employment Gained

Of the 1,065 respondents who reported information on their employment (Table 7), 21.2% said they became employed while attending college; 17.3% indicated they gained employment after leaving college; 13.2% said they got their job before completing high school; and 12.3% indicated they gained employment after completing high school.

Table 7: Frequency Table – When Employment Gained				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Before completing High School	140	13.1	13.2	13.2
After completing High School	131	12.3	12.3	25.5
Before enrolling in College	84	7.9	7.9	33.4
While attending College	226	21.2	21.2	54.6
After Leaving College	184	17.3	17.3	71.9
Unemployed	299	28.0	28.1	100.0
Total	1064	99.8	100.0	
* Missing System	2	.2		
Total	1066	100.0		
* Missing System indicates respondents who did not answer question				

Employment Related to Training

In all of the occupational areas, 40% of the total respondents indicated their current employment is related to the training they received in their technical education programs (Table 8). There were 31.6% who indicated they were not employed in a related field, while 28.4% were unemployed.

Table 8: Frequency Table – Employment vs. Training Relationship				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	426	40.0	40.0	40.0
No	336	31.5	31.6	71.6
Unemployed	302	28.3	28.4	100.0
Total	1064	99.8	100.0	
* Missing System	2	.2		
Total	1066	100.0		
* Missing System indicates respondents who did not answer question				

How Did You Hear About Your Current Job

Graduates were asked to indicate how they heard about their current employment (Table 9). The majority of respondents, 29.5% said they learned about their current job through personal contacts, while 17.9% said they found out about their current employment through means other than those listed. Only 9.2% indicated they found out about their job through School Career Placement Centers and 7.3% learned of their jobs through the newspapers.

Table 9: Frequency Table – How Job Was Obtained				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Personal Contact	314	29.5	29.5	29.5
School Career Placement Center	98	9.2	9.2	38.7
Employment Agency	30	2.8	2.8	41.5
Flyers and Posters	17	1.6	1.6	43.1
Job Fair	10	.9	.9	44.1
Newspapers	78	7.3	7.3	51.4
Trade Industry Journals	3	.3	.3	51.7
Other	191	17.9	18.0	69.6
Unemployed	323	30.3	30.4	100.0
Total	1064	99.8	100.0	
* Missing System	2	.2		
Total	1066	100.0		
* Missing System indicates respondents who did not answer question				

Analysis of Primary Hypothesis 1

The Null Hypothesis states: There is no significant relationship between the program of study of a CTE student and the job choice made after graduation.

First, a cross tabulation, also called a contingency table, was performed to determine the relationship and association between the occupational groups a CTE student is trained in and the occupational group in which a CTE student is employed. The cross tabulation was performed with unemployed removed. As shown in Table 10, the Pearson chi-square value (X^2) for the table was observed at 2381.283, df=169 with a significance level of less than 0.0001 (p<.0001), which allows the rejection of the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between the independent variables. The cross tabulation also confirmed substantial agreement by indicating that of the 721 people employed, 412 or 57.1% had a match between occupational group trained and the occupational group in which they are currently employed (Table 11). The largest group of graduates who were

working in the area they were trained were those in the Medical/ Health/Social Services group, accounting for 70% with Office-Administrative/Clerical Services close behind. The group found to become employed in their trained field at the lowest rates were those in the Public Administration/ Legal/Protective Services.

Because one of the assumptions needed to use the chi-square (X^2) test is that most of the expected counts must be greater than 5 and none less than 1 further data analysis was completed.

Table 10: Chi-Square Test (X^2)			
	Value	df	Asymp.Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	2405.854 1211.888	169 169	.000 .000
Linear-by-Linear Association N of Valid Cases	185.118 721	1	.000
a. 155 cells (79.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.			

Table 11: Frequency Table – Employed Persons Working in Area Trained			
Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
309	42.9	42.9	42.9
412	57.1	57.1	100.0
721	100.0	100.0	

In the second step, Cohen's kappa (κ) was calculated, this is the amount of agreement in excess of chance; here it is .518, which is highly significant, so the null hypothesis of no relationship can again be rejected, and it will be asserted that there is a relationship and agreement (Table 12).

Finally, another analysis, Cramer's V coefficient (V), was calculated to further confirm the rejection of the null hypothesis. Cramer's V (V) is useful for tables of varying sizes. The results of the Cramer's V coefficient (V) was found to be .504, suggesting there is substantive relationship between the two variables (Table 12).

<table>
<tr><td colspan="6" align="center">**Table 12: Symmetric Measures**</td></tr>
</table>

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	1.827			.000
	Cramer's V	.507			.000
	Contingency Coefficient	.877			.000
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	.507	.038	15.775	.000(c)
Ordinal by Ordinal	Spearman Correlation	.517	.036	16.176	.000(c)
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.519	.021	40.845	.000
N of Valid Cases		721			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.
c. Based on normal approximation.

Analysis of Subsidiary Research Question

The subsidiary research question was: Do certain occupational groups tend to have higher unemployment rates than others?

Support for the subsidiary question was confirmed by the selection of the Log linear Model, which is a goodness-of-fit test that allows the testing of all the effects, the main effects, the association effects and the interaction effects at the same time. Table 13 shows a likelihood ratio chi-square (G^2) value of 25.023, and a significant p-value (p=.023), and a Pearson's chi-square (X^2) value of 24.144, and a significant p-value (p =.030). Obtaining a significant chi-square (X^2) here indicates that the complete independence model is significantly different from the saturated model, suggesting that a model that contains the relationship between at least some of the variables is necessary to obtain a good fitting model. While obtaining a significant chi-square (X^2) value indicates that there is not complete independence among the variables, it does not tell us about the relationship between the variables in the model. Other models will have to be tested to understand the relationship between these variables.

However, the likelihood ratio chi square(G^2) is preferable to Pearson's chi square (X^2) because of two main reasons (Knoke & Burke, 1988). First, in the likelihood ratio chi square (G^2) the expected frequencies are estimated by maximum likelihood methods and, second, because the likelihood ratio chi square (G^2) can produce more powerful test of conditional independence in multiway frequency tables.

Further analysis is of the standardized cell residuals. When looking at the residuals, those greater than 1.96 or less than –1.96 is considered large. The largest unemployment was found

among persons in the medical/health/social services ($z=2.251$). The unemployment rates were better than expected in manufacturing/production ($z=-1.280$), sales and services ($z=-1.254$) and transportation tech/services ($z=-2.083$).

Table 13: Goodness-of-Fit Tests (a,b)			
	Value	df	Sig.
Likelihood Ratio	25.023	13	.023
Pearson Chi-Square	24.144	13	.030
a.　　　Model: Poisson			
b.　　　Design: Constant + employed + grtraine			

CONCLUSIONS

Research Question

The research question addressed in this study was whether or not a relationship existed between the occupational group a student chose to enroll in and the occupational group they were employed in upon graduation. In other words, do students tend to work in the area they were trained? Based on the analysis of data for this research, the conclusions are that overall, 57.1% of the persons employed had a match between their area of training and their current employment. Further analysis indicated the relationship was highly significant. The null hypothesis that no relationship would exist was rejected.

The largest group employed in areas in which they received their training were the Medical/Health/Social Services group, with Office– Administrative/Clerical Services close behind. However, the two groups also had the highest unemployment rates of people employed within the groups they were trained in. It is important to note that the persons in the Medical/Health/Social Services group represented the largest number of respondents to the survey.

According to (U.S. Department of Labor, 2001), when examining graduates of bachelors programs, those graduates who majored in education, business, engineering/architecture, computer science, nursing, other health fields, social work/protective services, and communications/journalism were very likely to be employed in occupations related to their majors. This was especially true for those majoring in nursing and other health fields, among whom 96% and 68% respectively, were employed as medical professionals. Additionally, 74% of education majors worked as teachers, and 60% of engineering majors as engineers (National Science Board, 2000). Similarly, 60% of social work/protective service majors were working in social service fields.

Recommendations

This study focused on the association between the occupational group that a CTE student chose to enroll in as a course of study and the occupational group the student was employed in when entering the workforce. As a result of this study, the following recommendations are made by the researcher. The findings support the need for a greater effort on the part of technical colleges and career centers to engage in more follow-up studies of their graduates.

1. Replicate the study using subgroup analysis and with larger samples.

2. Replicate the study with students who are not involved with the NTHS. Assuming that students who are members of the society tend to have above average academic performance. Conduct the study with students who are may be considered more representative of the population.

3. Conduct a longitudinal study.

REFERENCES

Brown, B. L. (2003). *The benefits of career and technical education*. Trends and Issues Alert Number 49. (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED 99-CO-0013).

Calhoun, C. C., & Finch, A. V. (1982). Vocational Education: Concepts and Operations. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Cohen, M., & Besharov, D. J. (April 4, 2002). *The Role of Career and Technical Education: Implications for the Federal Government*. Paper presented at the meeting of the "Preparing America's Future: The High School Symposium". Retrieved from http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ovae/pi/hs/besharov.doc

Daggett, W. R. (2001). *Future of Career and Technical Education* (Eric Document Reproduction Service no. ED 476 028). International Center for Leadership in Education.

Dewey, J. C. (1916). *Democracy and education.* New York: Macmillan.

Gray, K. (April 4, 2002). *The Role of Career and Technical Education in the American High School: A Student Centered Analysis*. Paper presented at the meeting of the "Preparing America's Future: The High School Symposium". Retrieved from http://www.ed.gov/offices/OVAE/HS/gray.doc

Johnston, W. B., & Packer, A. E. (1987). *Workforce 2000-Work and workers for the 21st century* (Executive Summary). Indianapolis: Hudson Institute.

Knoke, D., & Burke, P. J. (1988). *Log-Linear Models Series: Quantitative Applications in the Social Sciences.* Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

National Science Board (2000). *Science and Engineering Indicators – 2000* (Vol. 1) (NSB-00-1). Arlington, VA: National Science Foundation.

Raosoft, Inc. (n.d.). *Raosoft, Inc. Sample Size Calculator*. Retrieved November 21, 2004, from Raosoft, Inc. Web Site: http://www.raosoft.com

Scott, J. L., & Sarkees-Wircenski, M. (2001). *Overview of Career and Technical Education* (2nd ed.). Homewood, Illinois: American Technical Publishers, Inc..

U.S. Department of Labor. (2001). *Report on the American Workforce.* Washington, DC: Bureau of Labor Statistics. Retrieved February 5, 2005, from http://www.bls.gov.htm

Whitehead, A. N. (1961). *An Anthology. Selected by F. S. C. Northrop and M. W. Gross*. New York: Macmillan.

EMPLOYEE INTERNET MANAGEMENT: GETTING PEOPLE BACK TO WORK

Pamela R. Johnson, California State University-Chico
Claudia Rawlins, California State University-Chico

ABSTRACT

More and more employees are checking stock prices, shopping for travel bargains, gambling, and exchanging personal e-mail at work, and employers are getting angry and getting even. Currently 122 million people have Internet access at work and by 2004 the number will rise to 272 million. With more people online, organizations are finding that employees are spending more than an hour a day on the Internet doing personal business. This activity is costing American corporations billions of dollars a year in lost productivity, network crashes, and legal liability. This paper will describe Internet use and abuse, delineate the costs to organizations,, detail how employees "cover their tracks" while surfing, describe EIM, and discuss what managers have done to manage employee use of the Internet while on company time.

INTRODUCTION

The cubicle reverberates with the sound of a keyboard clicking and, whenever the boss looks in, the worker is peering intently at a spreadsheet on his computer screen. But behind this industrious facade lies the sophisticated machinations of a high-tech goof-off artist, who plays video games on the Internet and presses an on-screen panic button that brings a business document to the screen and the sound of prerecorded typing to his speakers as soon as his boss approaches (Marron, 2000). Bosses are beginning to take a dim view of all this virtual goldbricking. They see it as an insidious, profit-eating virus, costing corporate America billions of dollars a year in wasted computer resources (Naughton, 1999). More and more employees are checking their stock prices, shopping for travel bargains, and exchanging personal e-mail via the Internet while at work, even though their companies prohibit these activities (Marsan, 2000). In order to combat the use of the Internet by employees during business hours, a new industry has recently emerged called Employee Internet Management (EIM). This paper will describe Internet use and abuse, delineate the costs to organizations, detail how employees "cover their tracks" while surfing, describe EIM, and discuss what managers have done to manage employee use of the Internet while on company time.

INTERNET USE AND ABUSE

Bosses live in fear of a meltdown like the one Lockheed Martin suffered. The defense contractor's e-mail system crashed for six hours after an employee sent 60,000 coworkers an e-mail (with e-receipt requested) about a national prayer day. For a company that posts 40 million e-mails a month, the crash cost hundreds of thousands of dollars. A Microsoft rescue squad had to be flown in to painstakingly dismantle the computer code gridlock the employee's e-mail had created (Naughton, 1999). In addition, a Washington County sheriff faces discipline for sending a lewd e-mail about "The Rules for Bedroom Gold" to county employees, including a county commissioner. In another case, an employee at a Portland software-maker was fired after accidentally shipping an unflattering e-mail about a colleague companywide (Rose, 1999). Not only are employees sending inappropriate e-mails, they are reading the news (72%); developing travel plans (45%); shopping (40%); job searching (37%); checking stocks (34%); downloading music (13%); gambling (11%); and viewing pornography (4%); all on company time (Bosses disapprove, 2000). According to a survey on Internet use, 56% of the people openly admitted to using the Internet for personal reasons while at work. This reinforces recent surveys from Nielsen-NetRatings showing that Americans spent on the average 21 hours a month (more than one hour per day) conducting personal Web surfing at work (Cyberslacking at work, 2000). Currently, 122 million people have Internet access at work. Predictions say that number will rise to 272 million by 2004 ('Cyberslackers' taking toll, 2000). With this rise of Internet access, there is a developing trend toward Internet Addiction. Addicted internet users skip sleep, ignore family responsibilities, and show up late for work. The consequences are severe. Many suffer from marital problems, have failed in school, lost a job, and have accumulated debt (Holliday, 2000). In addition, there are the costs to organizations.

COSTS TO ORGANIZATIONS

One major cost to organizations is lower productivity. When employees use workplace PCs for personal reasons, their productivity decreases. In general, most companies expect that the internet will be used for a small amount of personal use such as checking e-mail or occasionally ordering personal items. This is comparable to allowing employees to use the company telephone to make a quick personal call (Mills, et. al., 2001). But this is not the case. The U. S. Treasury Department recently monitored the Internal Revenue Services (IRS) Workforce's Internet use. They found that activities such as personal e-mail, chat, online shopping, and personal finance and stocks accounted for 51% of employees' time spent online. The top non-work Web activity favored by IRS officials was surfing financial websites. Chat and e-mail ran a close second, followed by miscellaneous activities including visiting adult sites, searching requests, and looking at or downloading streaming media (Cyberslackers threaten, 2002).

Another major cost is legal liability. E-mail abuse and internet misuse can cripple communications, disrupt operations, or embarrass a business. It also increasingly leads to real legal

liabilities. Inflammatory or abusive content, off-the-cuff jargon, ambiguous instructions, imprecise memos, embarrassing gossip, unprofessional language, or breaches of confidentiality are all sources of concern for e-mail writers and their employers (Eyres, 2002). Internet abuse also includes the transmission of sensitive customer data such as Social Security numbers, the dissemination of pornography, and the forwarding of hate mail (Marron, 2000).

Executives worry that surfing and e-mailing can also seriously strain a company's computer network. And workers who consume a steady diet of porn in their offices may expose their employers and themselves to sexual harassment lawsuits. Even short of lawsuits, many coworkers are being placed in uncomfortable situations when they walk in on colleagues who are viewing pornography (Naughton, 1999). Thus, companies can incur legal liability under various legal doctrines that hold an employer accountable for employees' use of the internet. An employer may face liability for defamation, negligent hiring, sexual harassment, and wrongful termination resulting from employees' misuse of the company network (Mills, et. al., 2001).

American workers using employers' computers to surf Internet sex sites on company time are learning a tough lesson: the electronic surf may be up, but the waves could be dangerous. Viewing sex sites and other entertainment venues is pushing more and more corporations to monitor Net habits. And with a smattering of state court rulings in their favor, firms have begun firing and even calling police agencies, when they can document inappropriate or illegal activity on their computer systems (Bedell, 2000). In addition, a 2001 American Management Association survey reported that 77% of major U. S. firms now monitor employee communications, including phone calls and e-mails. Similarly, The Privacy Foundation estimates that 14 million people, or 35 percent of the U. S. workforce, are monitored every time they use e-mail or the Internet – a figure that has doubled since 1997 (Hardin, 2002).

A recent Newsweek article on slacking at work cited a figure of $1 billion a year in wasted computer resources and billions of dollars more in lost productivity in the wired workplace (Rose, 1999). Extrapolating full-burdened costs, a company with 1,000 Internet users conducting personal Web surfing only one hour per day can cost a company upwards of $35 million each year. Taking this a step further, the impact of Internet distractions on Today's Fortune 1000 is in the multi-billion-dollar range (Cyberslacking at work, 2000).

WEBSITES

In order to hide their activities on the Internet, workers have developed some strategies. Web sites now exist that encourage time wasting at work. These sites feature jokes, slacking tips, and chat rooms where workers can compare their slacking activities with each other. For example, at www.IShouldBeWorking.com ., which receives an average of 50,000 hits daily, workers can check out slacking tips. This site comes equipped with a panic button to erase quickly screen contents if need be. At www.donsbosspage.com, which receives 5,000 visitors daily, employees can download sound effects of someone typing or at one click a spreadsheet materializes as soon as the boss

appears (Mills, et. al., 2001). Don Pavlish, the owner of www.donsbosspage.com , says his web site is devoted to "helping employees fool their bosses into thinking they are hard at work when they are actually cruising the Web" (Marron, 2000).

Then there is www.Gamesville.com, a game-playing site with the slogan "Wasting your time since 1996." Dilbert, of course, has his own dot.com, and his cartoonist creator, Scott Adams, says working stiffs can now use the Internet to transform their cubicles into virtual Vegas gaming houses. (Cyberslacking on the job, 1999).

EMPLOYEE INTERNET MANAGEMENT (EIM)

Cyberloafers and cyberslackers are becoming such a big enough problem in the corporate world that many companies are beginning to crack down. In some cases, they are putting sophisticated monitoring systems in place. In other instances, they are suspending and firing workers for Internet abuse. Not surprisingly, almost everyone is grappling with developing a policy to deal with the problem (Greengard, 2000). The EIM industry is expected to grow to $600 million by 2004. Companies have developed software that either monitors employee Internet usage or filters out inappropriate web sites. One such company, Websense, Inc., serves more than 12,000 customers, ranging in size from 100-person firms to global-sized corporations. Websense customers include 239 of the Fortune 500 companies (Davis, 2001).

Pearl Software's "Pearl Echo" Internet Management Software is designed to provide employees with unfettered access to the Internet. A report can later be run showing the sites they have visited. In addition to monitoring Web browsing, Pearl Echo monitors most common forms of Internet communications including the content of e-mail, chat rooms, file transfers, news group postings and instant messaging. The software can also be set to monitor and filter for keywords and phrases that would indicate the transmission of personal data. This feature is designed to protect privacy and the dissemination of confidential information (Fertell, 2002).

In addition, eSniff, Inc. has new patent pending monitoring technology. Unlike blocking and filtering solutions, the eSniff device sits passively on a computer network and does not restrict communication or access to information. Rather, the eSniff 1100 uses advanced linguistic analysis to analyze all network traffic (including Internet, intranet, e-mail, and chat) and only identifies, isolates, and stores the activity predefined by the individual company as inappropriate (The end of cyberslacking, 2001). eSniff promises such benefits as increased productivity, safer environments, diminished legal liability, and fewer security concerns.

According to an annual study by the American Management Association, 63% of large and mid-sized companies monitor Internet use, and 46.5% store and review e-mails. Writing e-mails and roaming the Web feels private. Many workers would rather research a health issue online than call a doctor, or will flirt with a coworker via e-mail but not in front of the boss. But this perceived anonymity is an illusion. When an employee is at the office, s/he is working on company time and using company equipment. Every individual e-mail account is technically company property. And,

an employee cannot expect to find help from the courts. The case law is overwhelmingly on the side of the employer (Kersten, 2002).

Civil libertarians and privacy advocates bristle at the thought of ever-expanding corporate monitoring, even if it is perfectly legal. They argue that the answer doesn't lie in draconian rules and limitations on what an individual can view, but in establishing ways to measure each employee's overall performance. In addition, there is some evidence that personal use of the Internet might actually provide a positive benefit. In a recent study, it was found that 56 % of employees who use the Internet for personal reasons report that it helps them do their jobs better or simply makes them happier or less stressed-out employees (Greengard, 2000).

WHAT SOME MANAGERS HAVE DONE

Last year, Xerox fired 40 workers for wasting company time by online gambling, gaming and visiting sex sites. In the fall of 1999, the New York Times fired more than 20 employees for sending "inappropriate and offensive" e-mails. Another company now occasionally shames employees by posting a list in the office kitchen of sites visited during the previous week. No names are attached, but the company claims the strategy has been far more effective than simply warning the staff that its online habits are under surveillance by a software program called "Little Brother" (Sloan, 2000). And finally, in a company in Vermont, employees can go ahead and click that mouse as long as the website does not fall into any of the following categories: sex drugs, hate, nudity, gambling, sports, games, humor, MP3s, dating cults, chat and art. If the desired website is considered, it is blocked. Since the company began filtering websites, more than 2,000 attempts from its 70 employees have been blocked (Surmacz, 2002).

CONCLUSION

Bosses are beginning to take a dim view of "virtual goldbricking." In addition e-mail abuse and internet misuse can cripple communications, disrupt operations, and embarrass a company; it can also lead to real legal liabilities. Although employees have developed strategies to hide their activities, companies are now using Employee Internet Management systems to bring their employees back to work. Employees are now confronted with two choices: reduce their personal Internet surfing or risk losing their jobs.

REFERENCES

Bendell, D. (2000). Employers get tough on web surfing. *Richmond Times-Dispatch,* March 20, D19.

Bosses disapprove, but employees still surf. (2000). *eMarketer.com*, October 30, http://www.websense.com/company/news/features/00/103000b.cfm

'Cyberslackers' taking toll on US employers. (2000). *ZDTV.*March 10, http://www/websense/com/
        company/news/features/00/031000c.cfm

Cyberslackers threaten the workplace. (2002).   http://server1.techiwarehouse.com/Articles/2002-05-06.html

Cyberslacking at work continues to threaten productivity: Survey zeroes in on newest 'internet distractions.' (2000).
        Business Wire, March 6, Business/Technology Editors.

Cyberslacking on the job. (1999).   November. http://www.loper.org/~george/trends/1999/Nov/66.html

Davis, R. A. (2001). Cyberslacking. Internet abuse in the workplace. http://www.internetaddiction.ca/
        cyberslacking.htm

Eyres, P. (2002). Avoiding costly e-mail disasters. *Journal of Property Management,* 67(1), January/February, 74-75.

Fertell, D. (2002). Cyber-slacking kills productivity. *National Underwriter,* 106(38), September 23, 41-42.

Greengard, S. (2000). The high cost of cyberslacking. *Workforce,* 79(12), December, 22-24.

Hardin, K. (2002). Active management is the key to mitigating harassment liability. *TechRepublic,* November 8,
        http://www.websense.com/company/news/feature/02/110802.cfm

Holliday, H. (2000). Hooked on the Net. *Psychology Today,* 33(4), July/August, 10.

Kersten, D.   (2002).   Feel   like   someone's   watching?   You're   probably   right.   *USA   Today,*
        http://www.websense.com/company/news/features/02/020602.cfm.

Marron, K. (2000). Attack of the cyberslackers: Firms tighten up on on-line lollygagging, but some say it can boost
        productivity. January 20, http://www.globetechnology.com/archive/20000120/TWSLAC20.html

Marsan, C. (2000). Employee study cites rampant Internet abuse. *Network World*, 17(17), April 24, 38.

Mills, J., et. al. (2001). Cyberslacking! A liability issue for wired workplaces. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant
        Administration Quarterly,* 42(5), October/November, 34-47.

Naughton, K. (1999). Cyberslacking. *Newsweek,* 134(22), November 29, 62-65.

Rose, J. (1999). Abuses prompt nation's employers to crack down on e-mail offenders.*The Oregonian*, December 4, C01.

Sloan, P.   (2000).   New   ways   to   goof   off   at   work.   *U.S.   News   &   World   Report.*   September   4,
        http://www.websense.com/company/news/features/00/090400.cfm

Surmacz,   J.   (2002).   More   and   more   workers   are   going   online   while   on   the   job.
        http://www/websense.com/company/news/features/02/100102.cfm

The end of cyberslacking: eSniff lets companies define e-boundaries: Announces availability of eSniff1100 for
        computer network monitoring. (2001). *Business Wire*, January 3, Business/Technology.

LEADER-EFFECTIVENESS ACROSS CULTURAL BOUNDARIES: AN ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE PERSPECTIVE

James Reagan McLaurin, American University of Sharjah

ABSTRACT

This paper demonstrates that leaders need not adopt a dynamic or constantly changing style as suggested by some of the earlier research (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006). Leaders should create a strong organizational culture that has values and norms that supersede national culture values and norms in order to minimize the adverse effects of cultural diversity. By following certain techniques, leaders should be able to "undo" the individual's previously held goals and orientations and create new ones that are close to how the organizational culture should look like (Gibson et al, 2003).. Answers the following questions are suggested:

1. *What role Organizational Culture plays in overcoming the obstacles created by differences in national cultures? (the importance of the socialization process)*
2. *The role of leadership in fostering, transmitting, and integrating an appropriate organizational culture that minimizes the adverse effects of national culture differences?*

INTRODUCTION

With the ample evidence on the importance of organizational culture on the effectiveness of organizations, and as companies, markets, and competition are becoming increasingly diverse, one realizes that understanding the concept of diversity and how it relates to national culture and organizational culture has become an important precondition to organizational effectiveness (Owen and Lambert, 1998; Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly and Konopaske, 2003). Capitalizing on diversity while overcoming cross-cultural barriers in order to utilize the powerful pool of talents and skills that come with diversity has become a "valued competence of today's leaders within organizations" (Gibson et al, 2003, p. 49). As opposed to working within the confines of organizational culture, leaders are concerned with "redesigning [organizational culture] to maximize performance" (Owen and Lambert, 1998, p. 358). Leaders should learn about the unfamiliar cultures from which employees come and about the rewards that motivate them the most. They should handle language barriers, training, cultural awareness, and career development programs that are consistent with the values of employees. House tells us that "what is expected of leadership, what leaders may or not

may do, and the status and influence bestowed upon them vary considerably as a result of the cultural forces in the countries or regions in which the leaders function." (Zagorsek, Jaklic, & Stough, 2004, p.20). However when considering cultural diversity within an organization, is it reasonable to assume that a leader would be able to adjust his/her style in response to individual cultural differences (i.e. diversity) in the workforce in order to be effective?

Definitions of diversity abound, and the concept is sometimes confused with equal employment opportunity or affirmative action. Moreover, the concept itself is rather broad as it encompasses the "vast array of physical and cultural differences that constitute the spectrum of human differences" including ethnicity, age, gender, physical attributes, race, and sexual orientation as core dimensions that influence people's behaviours and attitudes throughout their lifetime (Gibson et al, 2003, p. 47). Other aspects of diversity that can be changed include educational background, marital status, and religious beliefs among others (Gibson et al, 2003). However, of particular importance for the discussion on overcoming cross-cultural differences is *cultural diversity* or *cultural variation* reflected in the differences in the sets of values, attitudes, beliefs, and norms shared by subordinates coming from a certain country or nation. Such differences have direct implications for effective leader behaviours and styles of leadership (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006). These implications are very important because dynamic and globalized markets necessitate a "broadened pool of experience and knowledge found in an effectively managed diverse workforce" (Pless and Maak, 2004, p. 130).

In this paper, it is demonstrated that leaders need not adopt a dynamic or constantly changing style as suggested by some of the earlier research (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006). It is proposed that leaders should create a strong organizational culture that has values and norms that supersede national culture values and norms in order to minimize the adverse effects of cultural diversity. By following certain techniques, leaders should be able to "undo" the individual's previously held goals and orientations and create new ones that are close to how the organizational culture should look like (Gibson et al, 2003). Furthermore, to compliment this proposition a model of how leaders is presented to create such a culture. In other words, this paper attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What role Organizational Culture plays in overcoming the obstacles created by differences in national cultures? (the importance of the socialization process)
2. The role of leadership in fostering, transmitting, and integrating an appropriate organizational culture that minimizes the adverse effects of national culture differences?

The paper first covers the existing literature on organizational culture and national culture differences. Then it examines what earlier authors said about influencing organizational culture and

transmitting values and norms. Finally, the model for minimizing national culture differences is presented.

NATIONAL CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

"Not only [management] practices, but also the validity of theories may stop at national borders" (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006, p.234). With this statement, Hofstede establishes that no one leadership style is fully applicable across all cultures, and that leadership as a practice can only be considered as part of a complex system of societal processes (1980). To Hofstede, culture is "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes [one nation] from another" (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006, p.240). National culture differences, and thus cultural diversity in a group of people coming from different cultures, can be described and understood based on each culture's configuration on five bipolar dimensions (i.e. power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and time orientation). Each configuration helps us predict and explain the behaviours, attitudes, and motivations of people who belong to the culture that has that particular configuration (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006). What Hofstede was trying to point out is that taking one leadership style that fits an American culture and applying it elsewhere wouldn't result in high performance, because other culture's different configuration on the five dimensions makes its members less at ease with the leader's practices.

Dorfman, Hibino, Lee, Tate, and Bautista further developed Hofstede's propositions by proposing that an effective leader would react to the different cultural configuration of the individuals working for him/her by displaying behaviours that result in higher motivations and positive attitudes in followers, which in turn are likely to foster better performance (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006). These authors viewed national culture of subordinates to be a situational factor to which a leader must respond in terms of behaviour. Whereas some leader behaviours proved to be universally applicable across cultures (i.e. across different situations), other behaviours need to be tailored to appeal to the cultural differences of employees if they are to be effective (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006).

Both studies stress the fact that national culture differences call for different leadership styles that are more suitable to each particular culture. Thus, as markets move more into globalization, and companies respond by following multinational, international, or global strategies, the workforce of most of the companies would continuously diverse. Companies are faced with the need to employ indigenous workers, while sending staff from the home country. In addition, opening the doors of immigration between countries as part of the globalization era makes the workforce even more diverse, as companies find themselves employing third-country nationals not only in the countries of international operations, but also in their own home country (Gibson et al, 2003). Therefore, a leader in today's world should be able to lead while being sensitive to the radically different cultural needs of a Japanese engineer, a European finance manager, and Arab marketing executive, an

African owner, and Chinese employees, as an example. Unless these needs are assimilated and dilute it somehow, the leader's task is rather a very complex one.

Organizational Culture

The concept of culture is a complex topic that evolved throughout history. At the beginning, this concept was defined from a sociological and anthropological perspective as the group of characteristics that human held in common. As Edgar Schein suggested, culture was related to "the customs and rituals developed by societies over the course of their history" (2004, p7). Later, the concept of culture took another perspective when organizational researchers and managers started to use it. At the early attempts to apply the term culture to the world of organizations, culture was defined simply as "the unconscious shared beliefs at work in organizations" (Shankleman, 2000, p.7). Later, when theorists discovered the relationship between culture and performance, the concept of organizational culture was taken seriously, especially with the discovery of its complexity and its power in framing a successful organizational strategy".

In the present, organizational culture has become a standard vocabulary of management because of its importance in understanding the practices that organizations should develop to deal with their people as a way to increase the effectiveness of their performance. So, what is organizational culture?

Because of its importance in organizational effectiveness, so many organizational theorists tried do define it (McAleese and Hargie, 2004). However, because of its complexity, this concept was found to be the most difficult to define of all organizational concepts. Thus, we realize that there are various definitions to organizational culture. For instance, culture was defined as "a system of publicly and collectively accepted meanings operating for a given group at a given time" (Pettigrew, 1979, p.574), "the glue that holds an organization together through a sharing of patterns of meaning"(Siehl and Martin, 1984, p.227), " the knowledge members of a given group are thought to more or less share"(Van Maanen, 1988, p.3), "[the] collective phenomena that embody people's responses to the uncertainties and chaos that are inevitable in human experience"(Trice and Beyer, 1993, p.2), also, " distinctive social units possessed a set of common understandings for organizing action" that comprise organizational culture (Louis, 1983,p.39).

Nonetheless, by looking at the multiple definitions of those theorists, it was assumed that these definitions agree on the fact that organizational culture refer to the set of shared beliefs and assumptions which are unique to the organization and which shape the way organizational members think and act.

The following section reviews some of the most prominent perspectives on organizational culture.

Unity View

The prominent organizational theorist Edgar Schein developed the most influential model of organizational culture. According to this theorist, culture refers to the accumulated learning shared by a set of members of an organization. Thus, for Edgar Schein, organizational culture is "the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to these problems" (1992 p.6). This new model, which was generally perceived to have resolved the confusion behind the complex concept of culture, came up with three different levels that form organizational culture. These three levels are artefacts (on the surface), values and behavioural norms (underneath artefacts), and beliefs and assumptions (at the deepest level). According to Schein "These levels range from the very tangible overt manifestations that one can see and feel to deepest embedded, unconscious, basic assumptions that I am defining as the essence of culture" (2004, p.25).

To begin with, *artefacts* which come on the surface of culture refer to the visible and tangible product of the group behaviour. It includes all the physical manifestations created by members of a group such as the architecture of buildings, the design, the logo, and the appearance. It also includes the behavioural manifestations of the group such as traditions, customs, ceremonies and rituals, and also the verbal manifestations such as the group's written and spoken language. This level of organizational culture is important because "it is easy to observe but very difficult to decipher" (Schein, 2004, p.26). For instance, it is easy to observe the architecture of the physical environment but it is difficult to decipher the meaning behind this architecture. This suggests that artefacts are a mean by which one can identify the major images and roots that reflect the deepest level of culture if one can identify their meaning.

The second level of culture is the *beliefs and values*. This level, according to Schein, forms the core of the organization's culture. They refer to what members believe as real and truth. They represent the normative or moral guidance for the members of the group and serve as a tool to deal with the uncertainties and problems facing them. They also influence the way people think, their feelings and what they perceive as real. Moreover, as people continue to use them in their daily life, they become no discussible assumptions. "From the perspective of the members of a culture, the set of basic assumptions is truth, and what they assume or believe to be real is generally not open for discussion (Hatch, 1997, p.210). These beliefs and assumptions are important because they allow one to predict the behaviours that can be seen in the artefact level of culture. However, not all values and beliefs can predict this behavioural aspect of artefact. To be considered as values and assumptions, they have to be reliable in solving the problem of the group, socially valid by being confirmed only by the shared social experience of a group, and taken for granted. Otherwise, these values and assumptions will only predict what will be said and not what will actually be done.

Finally, the last level of culture which is "the deepest level of culture and its essence" (Schein, 1992, p10) is the basic *underlying assumptions*. These are the unconscious, taken for granted beliefs and feelings about the organization. When they are discovered, they allow deciphering the culture under consideration and thus the way the other two levels of the organizational culture can be assessed and interpreted. As Edgar Schein argued, "When we see the essence of a culture, the paradigm by which people operate, we are struck by how our insight into that organization now is, and we can see instantly why certain things work the way they do, why certain proposals are never bought, why change is so difficult, why people leave and so on" (1992, p.207). These basic assumptions are important because they allow the group to build its own integrity, identity, and autonomy and thus differentiate itself from the other groups. They also allow the group to prevent uncertainty because they allow predicting the hidden aspects of artefacts and adopted values. However, these basic assumptions restrict the group to certain ways of behaviour and thinking and they are difficult to change because they are hidden and very rarely confronted.

Therefore, the organizational model of Schein is very important because it shows how culture works by presenting the culture of an organization at three levels. Moreover, Schein model shows that culture is driven from the deep basic assumptions, values and norms to the surface where artefacts can be seen. However, this model of organizational culture presents the culture as an organizational unity. In fact, he sees culture as a set of shared meanings and values. While outlining the features of a particular culture, it is important also to emphasize that culture is far from being a unitary, cohesive, static or stable whole. Culture is more complex than Schein's unitary framework often leads one to believe. Moreover, what Schein did not examine in his organizational model is how the culture can be used to explain the differences between the various subgroups of the organization. This diversity aspect of culture is manifested by the different subcultures that exist in an organization. In fact, culture not only deals with things that group members share or hold in common but also with differences that exist among group members within the organization. As the author of organization theory argued "Culture depends on both community and diversity" (Hatch, 1997, p.206). In fact, Schein emphasized the need to "be sensitive to the presence of subcultures and…to determine their relevance to what the organization is trying to do" (2004, p.362). In exploring a particular organization, one should not only attempt to identify the unifying culture but also be aware of the existing subcultures which fragment the organizational unity.

Fragmentation View

The conclusion of the previous section leads us to talk about the theories that focus on subcultures (i.e. the subculture and fragmentation view) instead of those that focused on the culture as a set of shared meanings and values (the unity view). Among those theorists who focused on subcultures, is found the theorist Geert Hofstede who examined the idea that organizations are manifestations of larger cultural systems. Hofstede's first step to analyze subcultures was to examine the national cultures in IBM , the large and multinational corporation in US. By doing so,

he came up with the evidence of cultural differences within IBM's organizational culture. These cultural differences are manifested by the different attitudes of the managers across IBM's different affiliates. So, to explain these differences of behaviours across cultures, Hofstede used five dimensions that he called power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, and time orientation as pointed out in section 2.1. These dimensions are useful in explaining the differences among subgroups within the organization.

To begin with, *power distance* according to Hofstede refers to "the extent to which members of a social system are willing to accept an unequal distribution of power" (1980). For instance, power distance is low in countries like Denmark which means that unequal distribution of power is difficult to accept by members of the Danish society. "When Danes try to put themselves forward as more prestigious or powerful than others, they are quickly reprimanded by peers" (Hatch, 1997, p.207). However, power distance is high in other countries. In the organizations of those countries in which authority forms a hierarchy, members accept the unequal distribution of power and find difficulties to live in a low power distance organization.

The second dimension that explains differences across cultures is *uncertainty avoidance*. This dimension refers to the degree to which members of a culture feel threatened by uncertainty, ambiguity, and risk (Fu, Kennedy, Tata, and Yukl, 2004). In fact, evidence suggests that the way people cope with uncertainties differ among different countries. For instance, in countries like Singapore, Hong Kong, and Sweden, uncertainty avoidance is low because in those countries people are more accepting of new ideas and new behaviours. However, in countries like Greece, Japan, and Portugal, uncertainty avoidance is high. Thus, in those countries, people resist to innovative ideas and behaviours. Despite that, uncertainty avoidance is a changeable dimension as technology, law, and religion can lower the degree to which members of a given culture perceive uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede, 1980).

The third dimension is *individualism* which Hofstede opposed with *collectivism*. This dimension refers to "the degree to which individuals in a culture are expected to act independently of other members of the society" (Hatch, 1997, p.207; Fu et al, 2004). Individualism is high in cultures like the US. In the US, individualism is seen as a source of well being. However, Individualism is low in countries like China and Mexico because in those cultures, it is considered to be alienating while collectivism is considered to be important in giving identity, belonging, and security to the members of the society (Hofstede, 1980).

The fourth dimension provided by Hofstede to explain cultural differences across nations is the concept of *masculinity*. This dimension which refers to "the clear separation of gender roles in society" varies across cultures (Hatch, 1997, p.207). For instance, masculinity is high in cultures like the ones in Japan, Austria, and Venezuela. In such cultures which are more tasks oriented, men are expected to be more assertive, while women are more intuitive and thus gender role stereotypes are expected to be high. Moreover, in such countries, because of the high separation of roles in the society, women leaders are expected to face difficulties in assuming their leadership role as was argued by Eagly and Johnson in 1990 (Pierce & Newstrom, 2006). However, Masculinity is low in

cultures like Sweden, Norway, and Netherlands. In such countries which are more relationship oriented, separation of gender roles is considered to be low.

The last value dimension is *time orientation*. A long tome orientation which characterizes Pacific Rim Countries refers to "a long range perspective coupled with a concern for thrift and weak expectations for quick returns on investments" (Hofstede, 1980, p.53-61). As for the short time orientation, it is characterized by demands for immediate results and a low propensity to save and it is specific to cultures like Canada and the US.

These value dimensions identified by Hofstede constitute evidence about the diversity aspect of culture and support the idea that organizational culture is a manifestation of large national cultures. Therefore, the work of Hofstede is important because it showed the existence of these cultural differences between nations and the fact that "organizational culture is an entry point for social influence on organizations" (Hatch, 1997, p.210). Hofstede's work is also complimentary to Schein's work because the dimensions identified by Hofstede provide information about the deep level of culture labelled as beliefs and assumptions that was identified by Schein in his model of organizational culture.

Types of Organizational Culture

Gibson asserts that employee-culture fit is extremely important, because if an employee has orientations radically different from those of the work environment, stress results, eventually possibly causing the employee to leave the organization (Gibson et al, 2003). The orientations the employee brings with him/her to the work place, we believe, are likely to be the product of his configuration on Hofstede's cultural dimensions discussed in the previous section. In clarifying his point, Gibson identifies 4 types of organizational culture: Bureaucratic, Clan, Entrepreneurial, and Market cultures. This typology is consistent with Lund's typology of Hierarchy, Clan, Adhocracy, and Market respectively (Lund, 2003). Before we proceed into explaining the major properties of each culture, we need to point out that an organization may or may not have a dominant organizational culture. In fact, the typology presented below may exist at the departmental or even at the project level.

A Bureaucratic culture is one in which decision making is centralized, with structured rules, policies, and procedures for almost every activity. The chain of command and the position a person occupies in the organization is the source of power. It's characterized by hierarchy, strictness, and certainty, with mainly autocratic leaders (Gibson et al, 2003).

On the other extreme comes the *Clan Culture*, in which collaboration and participation is the norm. Decision making is decentralized, and people tend to manage themselves. In contrast with bureaucratic cultures, clan cultures emphasize traditions, rituals, and social influence. Members feel as part of the group and "celebrate success together" (Gibson et al, 2003, p. 36).

Somewhere between these two extremes lies the *Entrepreneurial Culture*, which stresses such values as creativity, innovation, flexibility, risk taking, exploiting opportunities, and individual

initiatives. Autonomy is the main characteristic of this culture. Also in this in-between area lies the *Market Culture,* in which cooperation is emphasized only when necessary for achieving well-established organizational goals. The relationship between the employee and the organization is rather "contractual" with little regard for affections and cohesiveness (Gibson et al, 2003, p. 37). In section 3.0, we present figure 2, in which these 4 organizational culture types are summarized as illustrated in Gibson's book (2003).

Influencing Organizational Culture

Very rarely are leaders engaged in creating organizational culture from scratch. Most of the time, leaders are hired to take over existing organizations and achieve effectiveness targets. Therefore, we are primarily concerned with ways by which leaders can influence an existing culture as opposed to creating culture. Whereas creating culture is generally viewed as a complex task, influencing or changing it is even harder (Gibson et al, 2003). In fact, organizational culture evolves over time as described by Schien:

> *The culture that eventually evolves in a particular organization is… a complex outcome of external pressures, internal potentials, responses to critical events, and, probably, to some unknown degree, chance factors that could not be predicted from a knowledge of either the environment or the members (Gibson et al, 2003, p.27).*

Given this complexity of culture formation, several arguments against attempts to change organizational culture include considering it to be too elusive and hidden for leaders to identify and change (Harris & Ogbonna, 1998). Also, the very function of organizational culture is to be stable and sustaining so that it could unify employees and provide guidelines for action in different situations. This necessitates unique skills on the parts of leaders and a long time frame for making changes, making such attempts impractical (Sathe, 1983). In fact the amount of research on the issue of organizational culture change is rather very limited (Duck, 2001).

However, evidence exists that culture can be changed. When viewed as a process, organizational culture is "continually renewed as changing circumstances force assumptions to be reassessed, and recreated as new members are introduced to, and question, old assumptions" (Shankleman, 2000, p.12). Gibson provides that leaders who are "courageous" and would like to attempt organizational culture change should go through the following steps, borrowed from V. Sathe (1983).

1. Changing behaviours of subordinates, because that's the most effective way of changing people's beliefs (Harris & Ogbonna, 1998)

2.   Justifying the new behaviour to employees so that they can see its worth, because changes in behaviour alone do not guarantee commitment and cultural change

3.   Motivating the new behaviours through cultural communication via announcements, memos, rituals (i.e. the recurring activities that reflect what the underlying culture values most), stories (i.e. anecdotes that get passed down about the values underlying the organization), dress, etc.

4.   Socializing new employees and teaching them the target cultural values

5.   Removing members of the organization who misfit the target culture if the cost of training them for it exceeds the value their skills and experience adds to the organization.

Another model of influencing organizational culture was proposed by Gagliardi, who built his model on Schien's levels of culture. Gagiliardi asserts that different strategies affect organizational cultures differently (Gagliardi, 1986). Some strategies can aim at changing the artefacts level of organizational culture. He termed these changes as *Apparent Changes*. Such changes do not alter the foundations of the existing organizational culture, but only presents the same culture to new problems and challenges and responds to them by techniques that are consistent with existing values. On the other hand, *Incremental Changes* allow the extension of organizational culture to include new values, while keeping the existing ones. Strategies that result in such changes ultimately reach the deepest levels of culture represented in values and assumptions. The third type of change is a *revolutionary* one, wherein the used tactics are incongruent with at least some of the values and assumptions in the existing organizational culture. Old symbols are destroyed, and new ones are created. Such changes can be used when organizations need to be transformed, or in cases of mergers and acquisitions (Gagliardi, 1986). The ultimate result of this influence attempt is the destruction or replacement of the existing culture with a new one. Of particular interest to our discussion is *incremental change*, as it seems to be consistent with the previous model provided by Gibson. It's these changes, which extend rather than disturb the organizational culture, that strike us as relevant when talking about using organizational culture to minimize the negative effects of national culture differences within the organization.

The Role of Socialization

Socialization, in terms of its dictionary meaning, refers to the "process by which an individual learns the appropriate modifications of behaviour and the values necessary for the stability of the social group of which he is a member" (Danielson, 2004, p.354). As mentioned above, socialization is a process applied by the organization on *new* members for the purpose of teaching them the organizational culture. Through socialization, the leader can transmit to followers the organizational values, assumptions and attitudes in an attempt to change their own in order to

maximize the fit between new employees and the organizational culture. However, socialization is not restricted in application by leaders to new employees, as it is a process that is continuous across a person's career. In other words, then the organization faces new demands or wishes to go in new directions (i.e. undergo change), employees need to be socialized to orient themselves and their behaviours accordingly. The fact of the matter is that socialization tends to be more important when a new employee joins the organization, or when employees change positions within the organization (Gibson et al, 2003).

Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly, and Konopaske explain the various steps of the socialization process (2003). Reviewing the model is useful for laying the grounds of viewing socialization as a process for implementing a "change" in Organizational Culture itself, wherein one can view socialization as one of the ways that leaders can use to minimize cultural differences as opposed to only teaching newcomers about the existing Organizational Culture.

TRANSMISSION AND INTEGRATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

In the previous sections, we tried to give a general picture of what organizational culture is, the different levels at which culture manifests itself, and the diversity aspect of culture which manifests in the subcultures that exist in an organization. It is seen that leaders can influence organizational culture through certain intervention points.

In this section, the "how" aspect is examined through which leaders reinforce the adaptation of intended beliefs, values, and assumptions. In other words, the *mechanisms* are examined that leaders use to foster and integrate an effective organizational culture. This task is not an easy one because leaders have to get to the core and deep level of culture, understand how these deep assumptions function, and know how to change these assumptions according to their intended or target beliefs, values, and assumptions. As was argued by Caterina Lucia Valentino in her article *the role of managers in the transmission and integration of organizational culture*,

> *"The role of the middle manager as an agent of change is to make sense of, unite, and transmit the organization's culture. This process is complicated because a manager must get deep inside a new organization's culture and come to know its needs, processes, and people in a relatively short period of time to weld them all together into a smoothly functioning entity"(Valentino, 2004, p.393).*

Although Charisma can be used by leaders as an effective tool to communicate their beliefs and values to group members, it is not considered among the common mechanisms used to integrate an effective organizational culture. The reason is that there is not enough evidence that charisma is a core trait of effective leaders and because few leaders possess this trait. Therefore, Schein suggested that leaders can change cultures by attempting to change the value set of the organization (Gagliardi, 1986). According to him, there are many mechanisms that constitute a tool used by leaders to communicate their own values and beliefs to the group and influence the way they behave.

His model can be seen as a way to carry out the *incremental change* suggested by Gagliardi. According to Schein, these mechanisms are visible artefacts of the emerging culture and they directly create what would typically be called the "climate" of the organization" (Schein, 2004, p.246). These mechanisms are divided into two categories; the primary *Embedding* mechanisms and the secondary *Articulation and Reinforcement* mechanisms.

So, in order to *embed* what they believe into the group members, leaders have to be systematic in paying attention to certain things. This enables them to communicate their messages effectively to their followers because if they are inconsistent to what they pay attention to, followers will not understand the meaning of their leaders' behaviour and the message they are trying to communicate. Moreover, the reactions of leaders to critical incidents and organizational crises constitute an effective way to communicate their values to their followers. As Schein argued, " when an organization faces a crises, the manner in which leaders and others deal with it creates new norms, values, and working procedures and reveals important underlying assumptions" (2004, p.254). In addition, the way leaders allocate the recourses and create budgets constitute another way that reveals leaders assumptions and beliefs. For instance, by making decisions related to investments and financial crisis, followers can decipher their leader's beliefs about these issues and thus they know what goals to choose and the means to achieve them.

Furthermore, the informal messages that leaders communicate to the newcomers in the organization were shown to be "the more powerful teaching and coaching mechanism" (Schein, 2004, p.258). Moreover, how leaders allocate rewards and status allows communicating the leader's message to his followers. In fact, from the discussion with their leader about the things that the organization values and the things that it dismisses and from their experience with promotions, performance evaluation, followers can decipher the message of their leader. In addition, the way leaders recruit, select, and promote is considered to be an effective way in which the leader's assumptions can be embedded. For instance, these assumptions can be detected through the criteria used to hire or promote, or fire people in the company.

In addition to these primary embedding mechanisms through which leaders can communicate their assumptions to followers, Schein identified secondary *articulation and reinforcement mechanisms*. These mechanisms come with a growing organization as opposed to the primary mechanisms that come once the organization has matured and stabilized. They begin to work only when the primary embedding mechanisms are consistent. These secondary mechanisms are the artefacts which are the visible aspect of a culture but the difficult one to interpret. So, to begin with, organizational design and structure are considered to be cultural re-enforcers. Second, organizational systems and procedures are also cultural re-enforcers because they allow predicting the future and reducing uncertainty. Moreover, rites and rituals, design of the physical space of the organization, stories about important events and leadership behaviour, and the formal statements of the leader's philosophy are all mechanisms of articulation and reinforcement of organizational culture.

Therefore, leaders can communicate their beliefs, values, and assumptions to their group members by using those mechanisms. However, the primary embedding mechanisms are considered

to be the more efficient because they enable leaders to "communicate both explicitly and implicitly the assumptions they actually hold" (Schein, 2004, p.270). As for the secondary mechanisms, they are efficient in the articulation and reinforcement of the primary mechanisms if the leader can use them efficiently, as they are obviously more complex and difficult to use. In other words, changing organizational design or business process procedures is not as simple or fast to implement as a change in reward policy, or recruitment criteria.

Worth noting is that these mechanisms are more efficient for use with newcomers to the organization. However, in the case of merging organizations wherein the responsibility of the leader is to change the culture of the organization, those mechanisms will no longer be efficient and effective. The reason for this is that the intended purpose for their use is not to change the culture in hand (Schein, 2004).

In addition to these transmission techniques, Bennis suggested four competencies that leaders must have to transmit and integrate a new organizational culture (1998). According to Bennis, the first competency that leaders must have is the *management of attention*. In fact, leaders must create a vision and arouse the enthusiasm of their subordinates about this vision. The second competency that leaders can use is *the management of meaning*. This competency represents the way that leaders use to communicate their vision to their subordinates which can be summarized in leader's actions and behaviours in demonstrating their vision. The third competency to have is the *management of trust*. "Management of trust rests on the way that leaders and managers demonstrate reliability and consistency" (Bennis, 1998; Hennessey 1998). By being Honest, leaders can gain the trust of their subordinates who will "know always where they stand" (Hennessey, 1998, p.525). Finally, leaders must use *the management of self*. This competency consists of "knowing one's skills and deploying them effectively" (Valentino, 2004, p.399). Also, by being confident, leaders can easily confront all the problems and crises. They can also engage in risky operations and make successful decisions across organizational departments. Therefore, by possessing all these competencies, leaders can translate and integrate successfully the new organizational culture.

UTILIZATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN HANDLING CULTURALLY DIVERSE SITUATIONS

In this section, we try to identify and explain the steps that a leader should take to influence the existing Organizational Culture for the purpose of minimizing the adverse effects of national culture diversity. The interventions examined could be tailored in such a way to change people's configuration on power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity-femininity, and individualism-collectivism in a manner that creates a workforce characterized by homogeneity and the absence of cultural clashes and inefficiencies. This proposition is based on the assertion that an employee's preferences, possibly resulting from his/her national culture influences, affects the employee's fit and harmony with the organizational setting and colleagues (Gibson et al, 2003).

Influencing the value set of organizational members as suggested by Schein, is an attempt to reduce the effect of national culture values that create collision with the organizational climate and its constituents (i.e. other members and groups). The kind of culture change needed is an *incremental* one, wherein one can reach to the deepest level of culture (i.e. values and assumptions). That's why there is a need to audit the existing culture so that any proposed changes do not clash totally with existing values and assumptions. In other words, it's not revolutionary change that is sought. Rather an incremental one wherein members and subcultures in the organization incorporate new values and assumptions of cultural tolerance and awareness. The steps in the model are as follows:

1.   Audit the Existing Organizational Culture

This could be done by such tools as Organizational Culture audits and history mapping and value mapping (Owen and Lambert, 1998). These auditing tools would help the leader identify the type of culture that exists in the organization.

Identifying the type of organizational culture in place is an important step for the leader not to propose radical changes to the existing culture that would jeopardize the success of the initiative. Also, this step helps the leader determine whether or not changes are needed in the culture of the organization to best achieve its goals in its competitive markets before employees are socialized to the wrong culture. The type of culture (whether existing or target) would allow the leader to identify the best-fit configuration on Hofstede's value dimensions. In other words, the leader attempts to seek an answer to the question: Which employee in terms of cultural configuration would best fit the existing culture and have the highest level of performance? Answering this question identifies the "ideal" or "best fit" employee, so that organizational members could be influenced to come close to that ideal. Of course, the aim is not to abolish individual differences and create identical actors in the organization. To the contrary, the aim is to attempt to minimize the national cultural differences that highlight and stress in the eyes of employees areas of incompatibility with the organization and other members.

2.   Identify the Best-Fit Cultural Configuration

How can leaders determine the employee-organization fit in the first place? According to Jackofsky, Slocum, and McQuaid (1988), social settings that prefer less centralization, flatter organizational structures, less control, equity of compensation, and equity in recognition are characterised by low power distance orientation. Meanwhile, preferring less structure of task assignments, less formalization, general directions, and variety of tasks reflects low uncertainty avoidance orientation. Also, viewing the group as a family, caring for the welfare of members, and preference for participation reflect low individualism (i.e. high collectivism) orientation. Finally, preference for self-management, social benefits and rewards, and focus on soft skills are an

indication of low masculinity orientation (i.e. high femininity). All of these characteristics or conditions are available in a Clan Culture. This means that people with these cultural orientations are most comfortable working in a clan organizational culture. Thus, cell entry 1 is justified on these grounds.

Jackofsky, Slocum, and McQuaid (1988) tell us that social settings characterized by low power distance would have less supervision and thus higher autonomy. Meanwhile, settings characterized by very low uncertainty avoidance would have very low structure, flexible and few rules and constraints to respond for dynamic change, general directions that allow people a space for innovation, and a tendency to take high risks. Also, social contexts characterised by high individualism would give people space and power to act as they please, and would employ practices that encourage personal initiatives. Finally, settings characterized by high masculinity encourage aggressiveness in work accomplishment and a competitive spirit. All of these attributes are consistent with Gibson's definition of an Entrepreneurial Culture. This suggests that people that have the configuration illustrated in cell 2 are more comfortable working in an Entrepreneurial Culture. Explained also by the study Jackofsky, Slocum, and McQuaid (1988)are social settings that are characterized by high power distance emphasize greater centralization, hierarchy, more supervision and control, huge differences in compensation, and structure. In addition, settings of high uncertainty avoidance would be reflected in more structure, rules, division of labour, standard procedures, conservativeness, and low risk taking. Individualism would manifest in "impersonal" organizations, while masculinity would cause the organization to interfere to protect its interests. We find that all of these settings map to Gibson's definition of a Bureaucratic Culture. In other words, people who score high on power distance, high on uncertainty avoidance, high individualism, and high masculinity would be most comfortable working in this type of culture.

Jackofsky, Slocum, and McQuaid (1988) tell us that social settings relatively high on power distance would emphasize formal authority and stress contractual agreements. Also, settings that are characterized by relatively low uncertainty avoidance would specify general guidelines and objectives, and then define less structure for work procedures and activities, which enables people to choose the most appropriate level of cooperation for goal achievement. In addition, social settings characterized by high individualism would have impersonal communication, less collaboration and cohesiveness, little feelings of teamwork. Finally, social settings characterized by high masculinity would place less emphasis on the quality of work relationships, more emphasis on achievement and end results, and material achievement. This is consistent with Gibson's definition of a market culture. Thus, one can believe that employees who have this configuration on the four cultural dimensions would be best fit to market organizational cultures.

What this discussion implies so far is that employees who come from national cultures with configurations that are different from the general organizational culture would face more difficulties, conflicts, and stress than those who fit better with the organizational culture, most likely resulting in inefficiency (Silverthorne, 2004). To minimize such national culture effects, employees' configurations need to be altered to become consistent with that of the organizational culture.

Nevertheless, instead of suggesting individualized training programs that tackle each individual's cultural configuration, leaders should utilize employees' identification with and regard to organizational values. Leaders need to encourage organizational behaviours and values emphasizing a unified *organizational culture identity* as opposed to multiple and sometimes clashing *national culture identities.* For companies that have no dominant organizational culture, the same should be carried out at the departmental or project level, if different organizational sub-cultures exist at those levels.

More specifically, the next step for leaders according to the model is to identify and disseminate values and assumptions that encourage employees not only to become aware of their own cultural configurations, but also encourage and enable them to change those configurations by prioritizing other values in a manner that maximizes their fit with organizational culture. Research supports the proposition that value systems of individuals can be changed or reshaped by accepting organizational values (Karahanna, Evaristo & Srite, 2005). "[Values] are unstable enough to permit rearrangements of values priorities as a result of a change in culture" (Grojean, Resick, Dickson and Smith, 2004, p.226).

3.   Identify New Values:

Identification of new values is important because "they influence behavioural choices as people are motivated to act in a manner that is consistent with those things that are valued … values motivate behavior by providing direction and emotional intensity to action. " (Grojean et al, 2004, p.225-226). The major value that needs to be emphasized and transmitted is *sensitivity to cultural differences* as well as *awareness of one's own cultural configuration or personal profile.* Such values and the resulting awareness is more likely to make employees more tolerant to other people's behaviours and attitudes. In addition to those two values, *culture-type-specific values* need to be identified.

For example, a leader who identifies *a clan culture* would need to disseminate, make explicit, and reward behaviours consistent with such values as equality, courage and initiative, collective performance and collaboration, nurturing and not disturbing the good work relationships and the pleasant atmosphere, and caring for the welfare of colleagues (Grojean et al, 2004). Lund adds to this list values of cohesiveness, teamwork, and a sense of family (2003). For an Entrepreneurial culture, leaders need to strengthen and further disseminate values of creativity and adaptability, whereas for a market culture, values of competitiveness and goal achievement should be emphasized. Finally, a bureaucratic culture needs an emphasis on such values as order, discipline, and uniformity and conformance (Lund, 2003).

4.   Implementing Change

In fostering the new cultural sensitivity and personal awareness values as well as strengthening the culture-type specific values, leaders can use the *embedding mechanisms* discussed earlier in this paper. We believe that Schein's approach of moving from inside to outside of culture is more effective. If only artefacts re changed such as dress and rituals, the effect of the initiative would be limited. Through their reactions to critical incidents and crises, leaders create norms, values, and ways of doing things that transmit to the employees important assumptions that in turn direct their own behaviour. Resource allocation decisions, informal messages, reward distribution, promotions, performance evaluations, and recruitment, selection and socialization are all tools through which the leader can communicate and embed the new or emphasized values at the deepest levels of the enhanced organizational culture (i.e the underlying assumptions and values and beliefs). For example, leaders who want to use and emphasize a clan culture to minimize the adverse effects of cultural diversity would normally resolve to group decision making when critical incidents arise, compliment those who respect and excel at group work, aid those who are highly individualistic by training or by adjusting the reward program to acknowledge and reward that individual's attempt to excel at group work. Adding "team player" to the recruitment criteria indicates to members in the organization that this is a highly valued trait, and thus induces their behaviours in that direction. Finally, during performance evaluation, human resource specialists could talk to employees on a case-by-case basis about performance problems possibly related to cultural orientations. Employees high on uncertainty avoidance can be assured that taking risk is highly valued, that assuming the authority to make decisions is highly regarded, and that failure would be tolerated.

Once such values are embedded and the embedding techniques are in place, the next step for leaders is to *articulate* these values through organizational structure and procedural changes. Also, periodic celebrations of cultural diversity, rituals, stories on the adverse effects of cultural clashes, and presentations or workshops on cultural sensitivity to reflect on experience and challenge dominant assumptions would all enforce the values embedded at the beginning of the initiative (Pless and Maak, 2004). Similarly, designing the physical place in a way consistent with the organizational climate as well as leader's statements of philosophy through announcements and memos would help enforce and strengthen the culture-type specific values. Of particular importance here is the leadership style adopted to enforce the new values and alter existing beliefs. The leader can engage in role playing or modelling during which the leader verbalizes the new beliefs or values. In addition, the leader can help subordinates overcome their own cultural biases and orientations by seeking alternative explanations of why an employee behaved or would behave in a certain way, examining how employees create the cause-and-effects relationships in their minds, fostering critical thinking in order to make employees more open to other possible conclusions than their own, as well as identifying and ruling out "assumptive" information stemming from cultural dispositions and that is not supported by evidence (Friedmand, 2004).

Could socialization be used in implementing this change? What we see is that socialization can be used to teach new employees about the values and attitudes most important to the firm, and to motivate employees to make these firm-valued values take precedence over their own values, at least in the work place. "Values are acquired both through socialization activities and an individual's unique experiences" (Grojean et al, 2004, p.226). This suggests that new employees can be subjected to orientation and training that adjusts their preferences and configurations on Hofstede's dimensions in a way that makes them fit the organization. For example, a new employee who is high on uncertainty avoidance and power distance might find it very difficult to work in a clan culture. However, through proper socialization and orientation, the employee would visualize the needed change, and carry it out with the help of the company if he/she wishes to be part of it.

On the other hand, as mentioned in section 2.3.1, socialization to dilute national culture changes is not limited in application to new employees. It can also be used with existing employees, if we view the strengthening and extension of organizational culture as a "change" in the organization that employees need to be oriented with. Socialization tactics that could be used are not limited to individualized orientation programs, but should expand to include more possibilities for exchange and learning from peers or leaders who already know the target culture. Professional counselling and person-oriented leaders seem to be necessary at this stage (Gibson et al, 2003).

Worth noting is that by socialization, we do not mean an aggressive attempt to eliminate the individuality of employees in a manner that precludes their ability to express their pride in their origins and national cultures. As a matter of fact, research indicates that strong socialization for acculturation would create organizations with no room for innovativeness and cultures that inhibit responding to environmental changes. In other words, individuals should "incorporate fewer non-relevant organizational habits" than relevant or conforming organizational habits (Danielson, 2004).

CONCLUSION

"Organizational leaders are expected to be sensitive to local cultures and traditions, yet at the same time become initiators of change" (Kbasakal and Dastmalchian, 2001). The change introduced in this paper is one that is incremental and enforcing so to speak. To minimize the adverse effects of national culture differences in the ever diversifying workforce of today's global business environments, leaders need to focus on and strengthen organizational culture with the purpose of making its values supersede to an extent those diverse values that employees bring with them to the job. Values need not only be consistent, but also cohesive across the organization if work is to proceed with minimum disruption. In addition, incremental change is opted for incremental rather than radical change in organizational culture, as radical transformations destroy rather than enhance organizational cultures (Harris & Ogbonna, 1998).

The model provided has few limitations that can be tackled by future research efforts. For instance, it is not shown how the matrix for determining the employee-culture fit and the subsequent implementation tips could be used at the level of sub-cultures (i.e. orthogonal, enhancing, and

counter subcultures). Also, the attempt to identify the dominant cultural configuration on Hofstede's dimensions under each type of organizational culture was limited to 4 dimensions out of Hofstede's 5 dimensions due to the lack of evidence, caused by time limitations, on the time orientation dimension. Finally, the steps of disseminating values and implementing change could be further developed and elaborated for each type of culture. Again, this could not be accomplished within the scope and time of this project.

REFERENCES

Bennis, W. (1998). *Why leaders can't lead*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Danielson, M. (2004). A Theory of Continuous Socialization for Organizational Renewal. *Human Resource Development Review.* December, 3 (4): 354-385.

Duck, J. (2001). *The change monster: the human forces that fuel or foil corporate transformation and change.* New York: Crown Business.

Friedmand, S. (2004). Learning to make more effective decisions: changing beliefs as a preclude to action. *The Learning Organization*. 11 (2/3):110-128

Fu, P., Kennedy, J., Tata, J., & Yukl, G. (2004). The impact of societal cultural values and individual social beliefs on the perceived effectiveness of managerial influence strategies: a meso approach. *Journal of International Business Studies,* 35 (4): 284

Lund, D. (2003). Organizational culture and job satisfaction. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing.* 18(2/3): 219-236.

Gagliardi, P. (1086). The creation and change of organizational culture. *Organization Studies,* 7: 117-134.

Gibson, J., Ivancevich, J., Donnelly, J., & Konopaske, R. (2003). *Organizations: Behavior, Structure, Processes,* 11th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Grojean, M., Resick, C., Dickson, M., & Smith, D. (2004). Leaders, Values, and Organizational Climate: Examining Leadership Strategies for Establishing an Organizational Climate Regarding Ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 55: 223-241.

Harris, L. & Ogbonna, E. (1998). Employee responses to culture change efforts. *Human Resource Management Journal,* 8 (2): 78-93.

Hatch, M. J. (1993). The Dynamics of organizational culture. *Academy of management review*, 18, 657-63.

Hatch, M. (1997). Organizational theory: Modern, Symbolic, and postmodern perspectives. *Oxford university press.* 200-235.

Hennessey, J. (1998). Reinventing Government: Does leadership make the difference? *Public Administration Review*, 58 (6): 522-32.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture consequences: International differences in work-related values*, 2nd ed. Beverly Hills, CA Sage.

Jackofsky, E., Slocum, J., & McQuaid, S. (1988). Cultural Values and the CEO: Alluring Values?. *The Academy of Management Excellence*,11 (1):39-49.

Karahanna, E., Evaristo, R., & Srite, M. (2005). Levels of Culture and Individual Behaviour: An Integrative Approach. *Journal of Global Information Management,*13 (2): 1-20.

Kbasakal, H. & Dastmalchian, A. (2001). Introduction to the Special Issue on Leadership and Culture in the Middle East. *Applied Psychology: An International Review,* 50 (4): 479-488.

Louis, M. R. (1983). *Organizations as culture-bearing milieux*. In L. Pondy, P. Frost,G.

McAleese, D. & Hargie, O. (2004). Five guiding principles of culture management: A synthesis of best practice.*Journal of Communication Management,* 9 (2): 155-170.

Owen, J. & Lambert, F. (1998). Evaluation and the Information needs of organizational leader. *American Journal of Evaluation,* 19 (3): 355-366.

Pettigrew, A. (1997). On studying organizational culture. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24, 570-81.

Pierce, J. L. & Newstrom, J. W. (2006). *Leaders and the leadership process*, 4th ed. New York: Mcgraw-Hill.

Pless, N & Maak, T. (2004). Building an Inclusive Diversity Culture: Principles, Processes, and Practice. *Journal of Business Ethics,* 54: 29-147.

Sathe, V.(1983). Implications of Corporate Culture: A Manager's Guide to Action, *Organizational Dynamics,* pp. 4-23

Schein, E. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership*, 2nd ed. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Schein, E. (2004). *Organizational culture and leadership*, 3nd ed. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Shankleman, L. K. (2000). *Inside the BBC and CNN: managing media organizations*, London: Routledge.

Siehl, C. & Martin, J. (1984). *The role of Symbolic management: how can managers effectively transmit organizational culture?* In J. D. Hunt, D.

Silverthorne, C. (2004). The impact of organizational culture and person-organization fit on organizational commitment and job satisfaction in Taiwan. *Leadership & Organizational Development Journal*, 25 (7/8): 592-599

Trice, H, & Beyer, J. (1993). *The cultures of work organizations.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Valentino, C. L. (2004). The role of Middle Managers in the Transmission and Integration of Organizational culture. *Journal of healthcare management*, 49 (6): 393-404.

Van Maannen, J. & Barley, S. (1985). Cultural organization: fragments of a theory. In P.J. frost, L. F. Moore, M. R. Louis (eds), *Organizational culture.* Beverly Hills: Sage, 31-54.

Zagorsek, H., Jaklic, M & Stough, S. (2004). Comparing Leadership Practices Between the United States, Nigeria, and Slovenia: Does Culture Matter?. *Cross Cultural Management,* 1 (2): 16-35.

EMOTIONAL AND INFORMATIONAL SOCIAL SUPPORT: EXPLORING CONTRASTING INFLUENCES ON HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT INNOVATION

Millicent Nelson, Middle Tennessee State University
Jeff Brice, Jr., Texas Southern University

ABSTRACT

Prior research has primarily studied the emotional aspect of social support and limited its role to coping assistance (mental wellness). However, this study utilizes both emotional and informational social support to investigate the interpersonal aspects of organizational innovation, specifically human resource management innovations (creativity and problem-solving acuity). It is hypothesized that the innovator receives informational social support necessary to make decisions on the innovation from sources outside the organization rather than from inside the organization. In addition, emotional social support is hypothesized to moderate the relationship between the receipt of informational social support and the decision to become personally involved in the innovation process.

Primary findings indicate that the innovator does indeed receive informational support both externally and internally. This is significant because it implies that social support may influence problem-solving processes and lead to heightened organizational decision-making. Some support was also found for the moderating effect of emotional support which demonstrates that too much of this type of social support may actually decrease individual productivity. Further findings and implications are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Previous research has chiefly studied the emotional aspect of social support and limited its role to coping assistance, which is defined as actions taken by significant others to help individuals deal with stressful events. This positive effect of social support has been demonstrated in numerous studies in the areas of medicine and health (Dormann & Zapf, 1999; Uchino, Cacioppo, & Kiecolt-Glaser, 1996). However, relatively few studies have investigated the effect(s) of social support in the work environment. In this vein, some studies have shown that social support helps to reduce stress and the ancillary effects of stress in the workplace (Jonge, et al, 2001; Ducharme & Martin, 2000).

This study proposes that the benefits of social support may go well beyond coping. When people have problems they often seek help from other people. We examine both emotional and informational social support in the investigation of the interpersonal aspects of organizational innovation, specifically human resource management innovations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

McIntosh (1991) defines general social support as the resources a person receives, actual or perceived, that increase the sense of well being of the receiver. This definition assumes people must rely on one another to meet certain needs. Similarly, Shumaker and Brownell, (1984) defined social support as an exchange of resources by two individuals, a giver and a receiver, to increase the well being of the receiver.

House (1981) delineated two types of social support, or supportive behaviors, as emotional and informational support. Emotional support is defined as behaviors that show care for the employees and their work (House, 1981). Listening, providing empathy, and showing concern are acts of emotional support. Conversely, informational support means providing a person with information that can be used to handle personal and environmental problems (House, 1981). Informational support, unlike instrumental support, involves providing employees with information that they can use to help themselves (House, 1981). Examples of informational support include advice, guidance, suggestions, directives and information. The relevance of the source and types of support is dependent upon the persons involved and the kind of support required by them.

The interpersonal aspects of organizational innovation have been mainly ignored in the literature. The Academy of Management Journal's (1996) special issue on innovations and organizations curiously had no articles addressing the behavioral aspects of innovation. Most research on innovation has focused on the adoption or diffusion of innovations (Abrahamson, 1991; Abrahamson & Rosenkopf, 1993; Rogers, 1962; 1995). Rogers (1962) defined the diffusion process as the spread of a new idea from the initial awareness of an innovation to its adoption by users. However, the essence of the diffusion process is the human interaction in which one person communicates a new idea to another person. When faced with problems, people turn to others as one of their sources for information. People are influenced by their relationships with others; therefore the social relationship between people may be instrumental in the decision that is made. This relationship should also influence decisions that are consequently made about the innovation. The theory of problem solving behavior (Tallman, Gray, & Stafford, 1993) addresses the process of problem solving by explaining how a person becomes aware of a problem, and addressing when and why people choose certain actions to solve a problem. Thus, the theory of problem solving behavior also differentiates between coping with a problem and solving it.

Although not all innovations are the result of pending problems, this research is limited to those innovations resulting from decision-makers' uncertainty regarding how to resolve problems. Numerous authors have argued (Pfeffer, 1995; Capelli & Crocker-Hefter, 1996; Hitt, Keats, & DeMarie, 1998) that human resource (HR) policies, practices, and methods can create a source of

competitive advantage for organizations that is difficult to replicate. Specifically, this research focuses on the innovations process as it relates to human resource management (HRM) functions since the way a company manages its workforce could determine whether it will be able to establish and maintain a competitive advantage (Huselid, 1995; Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Becker & Gerhart, 1996).

Damanpour's (1991) meta-analytic review of organizational innovations described the field of innovation as extensive and, therefore, required a definition that included innovations from all aspects of the organization. He defined innovation as a product, service, process, program, or device that is new to the organization adopting or implementing it. Human resource management innovation (HRMI) is defined as an idea, policy, program, practice, or system that is related to the human resource management (HRM) function and is new to the adopting organization (Kossek, 1989; Wolfe, 1995). Wolfe (1995) categorized HRM as having six functions: recruiting and selection; appraisal; training and development; rewards and benefits; organizational design; and communication.

Social Support and HRM Innovations

Barnard (1938) described the organization as a system of cooperative efforts. Individuals must work together to accomplish the goals of the organization. People are generally social individuals in that they live and work with others and their lives are interdependent upon each other. Understanding the effects of social relationships bring us closer to determining the psychological and behavior processes that are necessary to be productive at work. The provision of social support is a means by which interpersonal communication occurs among employees within the organization. All communication about the innovation facilitates the problem solving process and leads to the adoption or rejection of the HRMI.

Aiken and Hage (1971) concluded that an organic organization with an effective interpersonal communication channel is vital for successful innovation. They suggested the implementation of mechanisms that would encourage formal and informal communication throughout all levels of the organization. House (1991) also argued that an organic organization has more innovations because the weak structure in the organization would allow for the manifestation of individual behavior. Likewise, Rogers (1995) proposed that although mass media is the fastest way to communicate a new idea to potential adopters, interpersonal channels are more effective in persuading an individual to accept the new idea.

Kirton (1976) individualized the innovation process and described the cognitive style of adopters of innovations based on the amount of structure needed to solve a problem. He argued that everyone can be located on a continuum ranging from an ability to do things better to the ability to do things differently, called adaptive and innovative, respectively. This classification scheme is based on adaptation-innovation as a basic dimension of personality relevant to the analysis of organizational change. Kirton (1976) believed that there are personality differences between

innovators and adaptors. He developed the Kirton Adaption-Innovation Inventory or KAI to evaluate whether an individual is an innovator or an adaptor. Kirton (1990) suggested that both innovators and adaptors are needed for organizational effectiveness. Adaptors are characterized as precise, reliable, efficient, and methodical. Innovators, on the other hand, are seen as undisciplined, thinking tangentially, and approaching tasks from unexpected angles. Innovators bring needed change to the organization while adaptors provide stability.

Some forms of social support may be more important than others in the innovation process. According to the theory of problem solving behavior, the extent of the information search depends upon the perceived difficulty of the problem (Tallman, Gray, & Stafford, 1993). As the problem becomes more complex, there is a need for more information, and likewise more informational support. In addition, the problem solving style of the decision-maker may affect the information one receives. Adaptors are concerned with the more traditional problems of the organization while innovators are known for looking outside the current paradigm (Kirton, 1994).

Keller and Holland (1978) conducted a study of research and development departments and found that adaptors were knowledgeable of internal company policies and procedures, while innovators were more familiar with the latest technology, especially from outside the company. Adaptors make decisions that are less risky and more a part of the status quo, therefore, decisions are being made using heuristics and other established mental maps. The innovator, on the other hand, makes decisions about new ideas that may challenge the accepted way of doing things in the organization. The innovator will want information, such as, how the innovation works, whom else has implemented it, and with what results, as well as the impact the innovation may have in this situation. Their decisions bring about more radical change in the organization and involve more risk.

Employees may also receive social support outside the organization. For example, an employee needing assistance may seek information, as well as emotional support, from external colleagues who are knowledgeable about the innovation. Sometimes the person who has experienced the same problem is not going to be a coworker from the same organization. Instead the innovator may have to go outside the organization and utilize their personal network of colleagues to get information and reduce uncertainty about the innovation. In addition, internal colleagues view the innovator as a maverick and are unwilling to provide support for his/her ideas (Rogers, 1995).

Dougherty and Hardy (1996) found that individuals lacking organizational support utilized their own networks to spread information about innovations. Abrahamson and Rosenkopf (1997) conducted computer simulations to show the effect of social networks in the innovation process. They concluded that the innovator received information about innovations through his/her network and this information influenced whether an innovation was adopted. These studies suggest,

> *Hypothesis 1a:*   *The innovator problem solving style is positively related to informational support received from outside the organization.*

> *Hypothesis 1b:*   *The innovator problem solving style is negatively related to*
> *informational support received from within the organization.*

Because an innovation is something new for the organization, it is inherently associated with some risk. Albrecht and Hall (1991) argued that new ideas are risky because they are a change to the status quo and because they allow other organization members an opportunity to evaluate the merits of the idea. No one can be certain of the outcome when implementing something new, even if the current situation has problems. There is also no guarantee that the new idea will improve the current situation. Consequently, not all innovations will be implemented and some of those that are implemented will not be beneficial to the organization (Abrahamson, 1991; O'Neil, Pouder & Buchholtz, 1998).

Information about an innovation decreases its risk by reducing uncertainty about changes in the organization. As the innovator receives information from sources where the innovation has been adopted, he/she becomes more confident about implementation in his/her organization. This confidence may even lead to the innovator becoming a champion for implementing the innovation. This means he/she is willing to recommend the adoption of the innovation as well as defend any opposition to its implementation. . Ideas that are adopted almost always have an individual who champions the idea and supports its implementation.

Wolfe (1995) discussed the role of an innovation champion who advocates and promotes human resource management innovations. The innovation champion counters inherent resistance to change found in the organization and pushes the innovation. Meyer and Goes (1988) concluded from their interviews of hospital administrators, physicians, board members, and nurses that CEOs provide considerable influence by championing the assimilation of innovations. Howell and Higgins (1990) developed a model that included the personality characteristics of champions. They argued that innovation champions are risk takers, have a high need for achievement, and are persuasive, persistent, and innovative. They used information-technology innovations to support their hypothesis that innovation champions were willing to take more risk and were more innovative than non-champions. Information is important to the decision to champion an innovation. Thus,

> *Hypothesis 2:*   *Informational social support is positively related to personal*
> *involvement in the adoption of the innovation.*

During the decision-making stage of the innovation process, the innovator must decide, based in large part on the information search, whether to accept or reject the innovation. It is psychologically difficult to separate the message from the messenger. When the idea is being considered, the messenger bringing the idea is also evaluated. At this time, the innovator will be selective in seeking emotional support. The person(s) chosen will have to be someone the innovator feels comfortable talking to as well as someone he or she can trust. Albrecht and Hall (1991) conducted two studies on the role of interpersonal communication and personal relationships on

organizational innovation. They found that people discussed new ideas with others they perceived as being trustworthy and supportive. In addition, relationships that went beyond work and included some type of social or personal attachment yielded more discussion of innovations.

Additional support for the positive benefits of emotional support can be found in studies of both children and adults. When middle and high school children received emotional support from parents and teachers, they were more satisfied with school and spent more time studying (Richman, Rosenfeld, & Bowen, 1998). Likewise, Ford (1985) investigated the effects of emotional support in interpersonal relationships for work outcomes and found that emotional support was more important than other types of social support for positive work outcomes and for satisfaction with coworkers. These studies suggest the importance of emotional support for a sense of satisfaction. When a person is making an important decision with unpredictable outcomes, such as the adoption of a new idea, he or she will look to others for support. If that support is in favor of the decision, he or she is more likely to adopt the idea. Consequently,

> *Hypothesis 3:*   *Emotional support moderates the relationship between informational support and personal involvement in the innovation, such that when emotional support is low, increased information is positively related to more personal involvement in the innovation.*

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The design of this study was cross-sectional using a self-administered questionnaire. The sample consisted of professional members of the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) from Area IV. Using the SHRM website, which lists the president's name for each chapter, HR chapters in Area IV were contacted by telephone and/or email and requested to participate in the research. A cover letter, briefly explaining the purpose of the research, and a questionnaire was mailed or emailed to the president of each chapter. (Due to privacy concerns, chapter presidents would not provide the authors with the email or home addresses of their members.)

Chapter presidents agreed to distribute the questionnaire via email, newsletter, or during their chapter meetings, however there was no way to verify that questionnaires were actually distributed. Those who received the questionnaire could respond by mail, fax, or email to the author. In addition, most respondents could also complete and submit the questionnaire online. A follow up letter and another copy of the questionnaire were sent to chapter presidents approximately two weeks later. A total of 169 questionnaires were received from all sources with 100 usable for this study.

Measures

Problem Solving Style

In this research, problem solving style was measured using the modified Kirton Adaption-Innovation Inventory or KAI (Kirton, 1976), which evaluates the characteristic approach a person has towards problem solving and decision-making and their propensity to innovate. The Adaption-Innovation theory underlying the KAI posits that a person can be located on a single dimension of cognitive style, with the end points labeled as Adaptors and Innovators. The original KAI consist of 32 items and produced a score that distinguishes adaptors from innovators on a continuum. The modified KAI has 13-items with each item scored on a scale from 1 (very difficult) to 5 (very easy). Respondents were asked to describe how easy or difficult it is to do and maintain a set of behaviors such as "have original ideas, enjoy detailed work, and never act without proper authority." The Cronbach alpha was .80.

Emotional Social Support and Informational Social Support

This variable was measured by an index adapted from previous research (i.e., House, 1981; Dormann & Zapf, 1999). The items were slightly rephrased to be more specific to this sample of human resource management professionals. Sample items included "I can talk to my colleagues if I have a problem at work" and "I value the advice I receive from my colleagues." The same information was requested regarding internal colleagues and external business associates. Social support was measured on a Likert scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree. The Cronbach alphas ranged from .84 to .88.

Personal Involvement in the Innovation

This assessment was accomplished by asking respondents a series of questions about a problem that may have resulted in the adoption of an innovation as the solution. First, the respondents were given the definition of HRMI as defined in this research. Then they were asked whether there was an HRM problem that required a change in the way things were currently done. If the answer was yes, the respondents were then asked two additional questions. The first question was "To what extent did you personally investigate the use of a new product…" and the second question was "To what extent did you personally take action to insure the adoption of the new product …" Both questions used a Likert scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is not at all and 5 is to a great extent. The two additional questions were correlated at .624 (Pearson Correlation), which was significant at the .01 level, indicating appropriateness to total the responses from these questions. The sum of these two questions was used as a measure of personal involvement in the innovation. The Cronbach alpha was .77.

Data Analysis and Results

All hypotheses were tested using regression analysis. Hypothesis 1a, which posited that innovators receive informational support from external colleagues, was supported. In this analysis, the dependent variable, external informational support, was regressed on the independent variable, problem-solving style. As shown in Table 1, the relationship between problem solving style (innovators) and external information support was positive and significant (F = 6.76, p < .05), supporting hypothesis 1a.

Table 1: Regression Analyses (Main Effects)			
Regression	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	F-statistic
Analysis 1	EIS	PSS	6.76**
Analysis 2	IIS	PSS	4.65**
Analysis 3	PII	IS	0.741

N = 100   EIS - External Information Support
* p < 10   PSS - Problem Solving Style
** p < .05   IIS - Internal Information Support
*** p < .01   PII - Personal Involvement in the Innovation
( ) Negative relationships
IS - Informational Support

Hypothesis 1b posited that the innovator problem solving style was negatively related to informational support from internal colleagues. The dependent variable, internal information support was regressed on problem solving style, the independent variable. The relationship between problem solving style (innovators) and internal information support was also significant (F = 4.65, p < .05), but the relationship was positive while the hypothesized relationship was a negative one. Hypothesis 1b was therefore not supported. Hypotheses 1a and 1b indicate that innovators, contrary to hypothesis 1b, receive both internal and external information support.

Hypothesis 2 posited that informational support was positively associated with personal involvement in the innovation, but the analysis showed this relationship was not significant (F = 0.741, p > .05); therefore Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Hypotheses 3 postulated that emotional support has a moderating effect on the relationship between information support and personal involvement in the innovation. As shown in Table 2, the main effect of informational support and emotional support on personal involvement in the innovation was significant (F = 2.166, p < .05). However, the interactive effect of information support and emotional support on personal involvement in the innovation was not significant (F = -1.792, p > .05), but further analysis did reveal significance at a higher level (F = -1.792, p < .10).

At the same time the change in R Squared also becomes significant (F = 2.484, p< .10). This provides some support for hypothesis 3.

Table 2: Regression Analyses (Interaction)			
Regression	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	F-statistic
Analysis 4	PII	IS, ES	2.166**
Analysis 5	PII	(IS x ES)	(1.792)*

N = 100   PII - Personal Involvement in the Innovation
*   p < .10   IS - Informational Support
** p < .05   ES - Emotional Support
*** p < .01
( ) Negative relationships

The interaction effect may be explained in that when emotional support at work is low, increased information support serves to increase personal involvement in the innovation. However, when emotional support at work is high, increased information support does not increase personal involvement in the innovation. Furthermore, with the exception of very high levels of informational support, high emotional support works to increase personal involvement in organizational innovations.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The findings from this study indicate that HR innovators receive informational social support from internal as well as external colleagues. Innovators, unlike adaptors, bring change to the organization. They have their own social networks from which they get information. Network members usually come from other organizations, where an innovation may have been adopted or implemented already. Although persons within the organization are assumed to view the innovator as a maverick (Rogers, 1995) and are perceived as unwilling to provide support for the innovator's ideas, this study indicates that HR innovators do get informational support from inside the organization.

There may be at least two explanations why innovators choose to get informational support from both within and outside their organization. First, there may be other innovators in the organization who can and will provide informational support to fellow innovators. Since HR professionals spend a great deal of time interacting and exchanging information with others, they may have advanced capability and opportunity to utilize internal information sources. Second, if innovators perceive a problem as highly complex, they may search extensively (Tallman, Gray, & Stafford, 1993) for resolution and end up utilizing both internal and external information sources. Further research needs to be initiated to explore these possibilities.

Some support was also found for the proposed moderating effect of emotional support in the decision making process. When emotional support was low, more information increased personal involvement in the innovation. Conversely, when emotional support was high, more information did not increase personal involvement. In fact, when emotional support was high, more information slightly decreased personal involvement in the innovation. This finding seems counterintuitive until one considers the characteristics of emotional support. Emotional support involves acts of listening, providing empathy and showing care for another. Too much of that kind of behavior in an organization could be counterproductive to individual performance. An employee who is spending a lot of time talking to others and receiving empathy for personal or other problems may not be focused on getting the job done. In addition, the employee may not feel the need to be productive because he or she already has the approval of others. This finding is important because it suggests that there may be an optimum level for the receipt of social support in that too much may be distracting.

These results also suggest that when personal involvement is low, both emotional and informational support can increase involvement. But, if there is already a high level of either emotional or informational support, additional support will not increase involvement with the innovation. Additionally, job descriptions and organizational roles may limit the degree of involvement in innovations.

The findings from this research indicate that the beneficial effects of social support go beyond health and well-being. Some forms of social support influence the problem solving process and may lead to better decisions. Effective work relationships where individuals provide support to one another will be crucial to addressing and resolving current and future problems and challenges of the organization. However, further research is needed to provide further insight.

REFERENCES

Abrahamson, E. (1991). Managerial fads and fashions: The diffusion and rejection of innovations. *Academy of Management Review*, 16: 586-512.

Abrahamson, E. and Rosenkopf, L. (1993). Institutional and competitive bandwagons: Using mathematical modeling as a tool to explore innovation diffusion. *Academy of Management Review*, 18: 487-517.

Abrahamson, E. and Rosenkopf, L. (1997). Social network effects on the extent of innovation diffusion: A computer simulation. *Organization Science*, 8: 289-309.

Albrecht, T. L. and Hall, B. J. (1991). Facilitating talk about new ideas: The role of personal relationships in organizational innovation. *Communication Monographs*, 58: 273-287.

Becker, B. and Gerhart, B. (1996). The impact of human resource management on organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 779-801.

Barnard, C. 1938. *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Capelli, P. and Crocker-Hefter, A., (1996). Distinctive human resources are firms' core competencies. *Organizational Dynamics*, Winter, 7-22.

Damanpour, F. (1991). Organizational innovation: A meta-analysis of effects of determinants and moderators. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34: 555-590.

Delaney, J. T. and Huselid, M. A. , (1996). The impact of human resource management practices on perceptions of organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 949-69.

Dormann, C. and Zapf, D. (1999). Social support, social stressors at work, and depressive symptoms: Testing for main and moderating effects with structural equations in a three-wave longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84: 874-884.

Dougherty, D. and Hardy, C. (1996). Sustained product innovation in large, mature organizations: Overcoming innovation-to-organization problems. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39: 1120-1153.

Ducharme, L. J. and Martin, J. K. (2000). Unrewarding work, coworker support, and job satisfaction. *Work and Occupations*, 27: 223-243.

Ford, D. L. (1985). Facets of work support and employee work outcomes: An exploratory analysis. *Journal of Management*, 11: 5-20.

Hitt, M. A., Keats, B. W. & DeMarie, S. M., (1998). Navigating in the new competitive landscape: Building strategic flexibility and competitive advantage in the 21st century. *Academy of Management Executive*, 12(4), 22-42.

House, J.S. (1981). *Work stress and social support*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

House, J. S. (1991). The distribution and exercise of power in mechanistic and organic organizations. In Henry L. Tosi (ed.) *Organizational structures, individual differences and management processes*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press

Howell, J. M., and Higgins, C. A. (1990). Champions of technological innovation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 35: 317-341.

Huselid, M.A., (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 635-672.

Jonge, J. de, Dormann, C., Janssen, P. P. M., Dollard, M. F., Landeweerd, J. A., and Nijhuis, F. J. N. (2001). Testing reciprocal relationships between job characteristics and psychological well-being: A cross-lagged structural equation model. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74: 29-46.

Keller, R. T. and Holland, W. E. (1978). Individual characteristics of innovativeness and communication in research and development organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 63: 759-762.

Kirton, M. (1976). Adaptors and innovators: A description and measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 61: 622-629.

Kirton, M. (1990). Adaptors and innovators in organizations. *Human Relations*, 33: 213-224.

Kirton, M. (1994). *Adaptors and innovators: Styles of creativity and problem solving*. New York: Routledge (edited by Michael Kirton).

Kossek, E. E., (1989). The acceptance of human resource innovation by multiple constituencies. *Personnel Psychology*, 42: 263-281.

McIntosh, N. J. (1991). Identification and investigation of properties of social support. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 12: 201-217.

Meyer, A. D. and Goes, J. B. (1988). Organizational assimilation of innovations: A multilevel contextual analysis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 31: 897-923.

O'Neil, H. M., Pouder, R. W., and Buchholtz, A. (1998). Patterns in the diffusion of strategies across organizations: Insights from the innovation diffusion literature. *Academy of Management Executive*, 23: 98-114.

Pfeffer, J. (1995). Producing sustainable competitive advantage through effective use of people. *Academy of Management Executive*, Feb., 1995, 55-69.0

Richman, J.M., Rosenfeld, L.B., and Bowen, G.L. (1998). Social support for adolescents at risk of school failure. *Social Work*, 43: 309-323.

Rogers, E. M. (1962). *Diffusion of Innovations*. The Free Press: New York.

Rogers, E. M. (1995). *Diffusion of Innovations (4th Edition)*. The Free Press: New York.

Shumaker, S., and Brownell, A. (1984). Towards a theory of social support: Closing conceptual gaps. *Journal of Social Issues*, 40: 11-36.

Tallman, I., Leik, R K., Gray, L N., and Stafford, M.C. (1993). A theory of problem-solving behavior. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 56: 157-177.

Uchino, B.N., Cacioppo, J.T., and Kiecolt-Glaser, J.K. (1996). The relationship between social support and physiological processes: A review with emphasis on underlying mechanisms and implications for health. *Psychological Bulletin*, 119: 488-531.

Wolfe, R. A., (1995). Human resource management innovations: Determinants of their adoption and implementation. *Human Resource Management*, 34: 313-327.

GENDER DISTINCTIONS AND EMPATHY
IN NEGOTIATION

Linda L. Barkacs, University of San Diego
Stephen Standifird, University of San Diego

ABSTRACT

Litigation entails extremely high transactions costs and businesses are highly motivated to avoid it. Among the various methods of Alternative Dispute Resolution ("ADR") designed to obviate litigation, highly developed negotiation skills are critical. Although everyone should seek to cultivate their negotiation skills, research indicates that very real gender distinctions can and do exist in a negotiation setting. While women seem to risk being judged more harshly when asserting themselves in negotiation, they may conversely be the beneficiaries of being seen as more empathetic. This paper will examine gender distinctions in negotiation and will explore the value of empathy in conflict management.

INTRODUCTION

Gender differences are the most researched topic in negotiation (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). When we speak of gender in the context of negotiation, we are referring to the "cultural and psychological markers of the sexes," not biology (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Most research in the area focuses on the role of women in society and its effect on negotiation outcomes. Few researchers would posit that there are purely biological explanations of negotiator behavior (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). So are there actually differences in the negotiating behavior of males and females? Or is it simply society's expectations that lead us to see differences that don't truly exist?

Research indicates that there are differences in approaches, expectations, and yes, outcomes of negotiation based on gender. This paper will endeavor to do three things. First, we will review past and current research to identify gender differences based on empirical research. Second, we will look at how and why these differences impact the outcomes of negotiations. For example, are males and females treated differently for assertive or aggressive negotiation behavior? And what role, if any, does empathy play in negotiation? Finally, we offer suggestions that we hope will "even the playing field."

IDENTIFYING GENDER DISTINCTIONS IN NEGOTIATION

Prior to the 1990s, research in the area of gender differences typically neglected the importance of relationships in negotiation (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Moreover, much of the research prior to this time treated gender as "a stable set of characteristics that describe all women (or men) in negotiation situations"(Kolb & Coolidge, 1991; Kolb & Williiams, 2003). Assuming that males and females do differ in their approaches to negotiation, then exactly what are those differences? There are several prevailing theories. We approach these theories keeping in mind the caveat that not all females behave the same way, just as all males do not behave the same way.

CULTURAL STEREOTYPES

There is little doubt that males have an advantage as the "dominant cultural stereotype" in our society (Kolb & Coolidge, 1991; Kolb & Williams, 2003). This is particularly true for white males (see section two of this paper re: empirical studies done in 1991 and 1995). Negative stereotypes about women negotiators may influence expectations, as well as behaviors, of both males and females at the negotiating table (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). In a management study, a group of managers were asked to list eight characteristics that they believed managers must have to be effective leaders. The males' lists included aggressiveness, confidence, and objectivity in their top five (Carrell & Heavrin, 2008). These characteristics are compatible with a competitive style of negotiation (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Female managers listed appreciation, recognizing strengths, fairness, and accessibility as the most important characteristics of a leader (Segal, 1991). These qualities are compatible with a collaborative style of negotiation (Carrell & Heavrin, 2008). Moreover, two large-scale reviews concluded that women behave more cooperatively than men (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Females are seen as more patient and empathetic, as well as better listeners (Klein, 2005; Cahn, 1992). These studies seem to buttress the view that society expects males to be more aggressive, while females are expected to be more cooperative (i.e., less aggressive). In section two of this paper, we will examine how these expectations affect negotiation outcomes.

RELATIONSHIPS

Another prominent theory on the differences between male and female negotiators is that females are more aware of the relationship between negotiators, whereas males are more task-specific (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). In studies on nonverbal communication, women are seen as more approachable and more focused on the other person during interactions (Thompson & Kleiner, 1992). Men are viewed as more composed, therefore less expressive. A partial explanation of the behavior of women is that they fear fewer rewards and greater costs if they fail to expressive positive emotion (Thompson & Kleiner, 1992). In addition, nonverbal expressiveness is linked with social

power (Thompson & Kleiner, 1992). Those with lower social status and power are expected to engage in great expressivity (Thompson & Kleiner, 1992). Women have traditionally held lower social status than men. These expectations may affect how men and women deal with issues during negotiation.

In 2003, Deborah M. Kolb and Judith Williams published their theories on the hidden context within every negotiation (Kolb & Williams, 2003). This hidden context was dubbed the "shadow negotiation." The theory posits that while people negotiate over issues, they also negotiate how they will relate to one another. During the process of trying to persuade the other party, each negotiator makes assumptions about the other negotiator's wants, weakness, and likely behavior. Kolb and Williams conclude that the shadow negotiation is where bargainers decide how cooperative they will be in reaching a mutual solution. Relationships play a larger role in women's lives than in men's, therefore it makes sense that women's attitudes toward negotiation are more focused on relationships. When engaged in integrative (i.e., "win-win") negotiations, women may actually have an advantage over men, as more cooperative behavior is required (Carrell & Heavrin, 2008). Distributive (i.e., "win-lose") negotiation requires competitive behavior, which is typically associated with a masculine negotiation style (Carrell & Heavrin, 2008). Section two of this paper will address exceptions to the theory that women's cooperative negotiating style is equal or superior to more masculine negotiation styles (e.g., women negotiating on their own behalf versus women negotiating for others).

ENTITLEMENT, ABILITY, AND WORTH

Recent research indicates that women are more likely than men to see their worth as determined by what the employer will pay (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Conversely, men have higher expectations as to what they will earn over the course of their careers (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Harvard professors Kathleen McGinn and Hannah Riley Bowles conducted an experiment to look at the differences in how men and women negotiate. McGinn and Bowles began with data on job offers to MBA graduates and implemented controls on variables such as industry. While men and women did not negotiate drastically different salaries (women negotiated slightly lower starting salaries), they did negotiate other packages (Legace, 2003). For example, women did not negotiate as big of bonuses and moving allowances than men (Legace, 2003). Why? According to the theory of the "entitlement effect," people get what they think they deserve. Studies indicate that women perceive that they deserve to earn less than men (Legace, 2003). People really do seem to live up or down to expectations, and, accordingly, if you expect less, you will receive less. In one experiment, men and women were brought into a lab and told either "Work until you think you have earned the $10 we just gave you" or "Work and then tell us how much you think you deserve" (Legace, 2003). Women consistently worked longer with fewer errors for comparable pay, or they paid themselves less for comparable work (Legace, 2003).

One theory on why women expect less is linked to women's reference points regarding salaries. Women compare themselves to other women and men compare themselves to other men (Legace, 2003). Given that women on average earn less than men (Babcock & Laschever, 2003), women are comparing themselves to lower wage earners, thus leading to lower expectations. Moreover, while both men and women both have socio-emotional support networks, males typically have socio-emotional support networks made up of the men that they work with. When a male needs advice about what he should be paid, or how to handle a problem at work, he asks the men with whom he works. Conversely, most female socio-emotional support networks consist of people outside the workplace. While women do have social networks with the men they work with, there is not the same type of emotional bond across gender (Legace, 2003). So if women consult with women outside their workplace regarding how much they should be paid, the range will typically be lower than if that same woman asked a man from her workplace.

EXPECTATIONS WITHIN SOCIETY AND ONE'S SELF

Society has a greater expectation of "niceness" from women than from men (Babcock & Laschever, 2003). One body of research shows that when women are required to act in a way that is stereotypically male, such as being authoritative or aggressively claiming resources, there may be a backlash against them (Babcock & Laschever, 2003). Women who "lock into an unrelenting competitive stance when their partners refuse to cooperate," are viewed as "vindictive" (Klein, 2005; Watson, 1994).

Moreover, "gender triggers" may cause women to check their own behaviors (Legace, 2003). When a woman is in a situation with a gender trigger and ambiguity (e.g., where the leader is historically male or what the woman is doing is defined as male or masculine), the woman may feel uncomfortable. Environmental cues signal to women that men should be claiming more resources than them (Legace, 2003). Even if a woman feels entitled, she may stop herself from acting in what is typically defined as a masculine behavior.

EMBEDDED VIEW OF AGENCY

Males and females see negotiation in different ways. Women tend to see negotiation as "behavior that occurs within relationships without large divisions marking when it begins and ends (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Accordingly, women may be less likely to recognize when negotiations are occurring (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Conversely, men tend to demarcate negotiation from other behaviors within the relationship. Men see a clear beginning and end to a negotiation, and will signal such with their behavior (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007).

If women do not necessarily understand when a negotiation is occurring, then logically women are not going to get a fair share of the pie. In her ground-breaking book Women Don't Ask, Linda Babcock explains how women can lose ground without even realizing it. While she was acting

as the director of the Ph.D. program at her school, many of the male graduate students were teaching their own classes, but most of the female graduate students were assigned as teaching assistants to the regular faculty. Babcock was approached by the female students and decided to take up the matter with the Associate Dean. It was explained to her that "[M]ore men ask. The women just don't ask"(Babcock & Laschever, 2003). Women are more likely than men to believe that life is a meritocracy. Research suggests that many women believe that simply working hard and doing a good job will be recognized and, accordingly, will bring them success and advancements (Babcock & Laschever, 2003).

Research in this area also suggests that men and women differ on their propensity to negotiate (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). In a 2004 study participants were told that they would receive between $3 and $10 for their performance on a word task. After completing the task, participants were told "Here's $3. Is $3 OK?" (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Males were much more likely than females to ask for more money. This result was true in two different scenarios. In the first, the participants received no social cues involving negotiation. In the second, participants were explicitly told that negotiation was an option. Interestingly, gender differences disappeared when participants were told they could "ask for more money" (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007).

POWER AND PROBLEM-SOLVING

Men and women use dialogue in different ways. From the time they are young children, women use dialogue to engage others "in a joint exploration of ideas whereby understanding is progressively clarified through interaction" (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Women alternatively listen and contribute. Men, however, use dialogue to convince the other party that their position is correct and to win points during the discussion (Lewicki& Sanders, 2007).

Women and men also perceive and use power in different ways (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). As with dialogue, women seek empowerment where there is "interaction among all parties in the relationship to build connection and enhance everyone's power (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007)." Men tend to use power either to achieve their own goals or to force the other party to submit to their point of view (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007).

The difference between male and female views of dialogue and power correlate somewhat with distributive (typically male) (Klein, 2005) versus cooperative (typically female) styles of negotiation (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Women may feel more comfortable with integrative negotiation because it focuses on problem-solving and relationship building. Men, conversely, may feel more at ease negotiating distributively (i.e., win-lose). Babcock argues that from birth men are taught to uphold masculine norms of competition and superiority and that women learn early that competing and winning against a man may threaten his socially defined masculinity (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007).

THE IMPACT OF GENDER DIFFERENCES ON NEGOTIATION

To date, empirical research has reached inconsistent results as to whether men or women negotiate better results (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Two large-scale reviews found that women behave more cooperatively than men, but men get better outcomes (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Other research has looked at the differences in how men and women think about negotiation, how they respond to tactics, how they are influenced by stereotypes, and other factors that may or may not influence negotiation outcomes (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). There is evidence, however, that men and women are treated differently in negotiation when they engage in the same behavior (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007) .

THE IMPACT OF GENDER ON AUTOMOBILE NEGOTIATIONS

Women's propensity to negotiate (or lack thereof), discussed earlier in this paper, appears to have an impact on the results of automobile sales. In a Consumer Federation of America survey, a combined 37% of male and female respondents did not believe that the sticker price on a car was negotiable (Ayres, 1995). In addition, women were more likely than men to be misinformed about the willingness of dealers to negotiate the price of a new car (Ayres, 1995).

In one large study in Chicago, all the negotiation testers were given two days of training, followed a set script, and were similar in age, dress, economic class, occupation, and attractiveness (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). The automobile salesperson's initial and final offers to females were higher than those made to males (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Variables such as the length of the negotiation and concession rates were not found to differ significantly based on gender or race (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). All negotiators in the test received the same average concession from the car dealers. As such, all the negotiation testers thought they had negotiated good deals. The difference in the final price occurred because the salespeople made higher opening offers to females and blacks (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Perhaps surprisingly, the results did not differ when the salesperson was a woman or black (i.e., women and blacks versus white men did not gain an advantage by dealing with a female or black salesperson) (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007).

THE IMPACT OF GENDER ON SALARY NEGOTIATIONS

A 1991 study of MBA graduates found that, while men and women were equally likely to negotiate, men received higher salaries for negotiating their salary than did females (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). The study was controlled for the effects of industry, college major, GPA, and business experience. The differences in salary may have emerged from how negotiators define the bargaining zone (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). As discussed earlier in this paper, women may suffer from the "entitlement effect" (the belief that they deserve to earn less). Moreover, a woman's reference point is typically other women – women who traditionally earn less than men. The

combination of lower expectations and misinformation about their worth may contribute greatly to women receiving less when negotiating salary.

More recent research indicates that that in unambiguous situations there is little or no pay gap between men and women (Legace, 2003). This is true in industries were salaries are normative. These industries include investment banking, consulting, and high technology (Pradel, Bowles & McGinn, 2006). Even in such industries, however, women and men negotiate difference packages (Legace, 2003). In "high-ambiguity industries," such as telecommunications, real estate, health services and media male MBAs negotiated salaries that were on average $10,000 higher than salaries negotiated by female MBAs (Pradel, Bowles & McGinn, 2006). Assuming that the lower paid MBAs continue working in high-ambiguity industries for the next 35 years and receive a three percentage increase each year, the wage gap is more than $600,000 (Pradel, Bowles & McGinn, 2006). Invested at 5% annual interest, the gap grows to $1.5 million (Pradel, Bowles & McGinn, 2006).

EFFECT OF NEGOTIATOR PERCEPTIONS ON NEGOTIATION OUTCOMES

Research over the years indicates that gender differences in negotiation outcomes is not necessarily based on differences in behavior, but rather how the same behavior of male and female negotiators is perceived differently (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). In the context of salary negotiations, some research indicates that males may receive a more positive outcome by reminding supervisors of previous favors and offering to make sacrifices (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). This same tactic, when used by female employees, has a negative effect. Many scholars believe that this is based on stereotypical expectations about appropriate female behavior (Kray & Thompson, 2005).

In a study on aggressive tactics in salary negotiations, Bowles and colleagues (Pradel, Bowled & McGinn, 2006) had participants read a resume and interview notes from a job candidate. The gender was varied. In addition, some candidates attempted to negotiate job benefits and others did not. The results indicated that both males and females are less likely to be hired when bargaining aggressively (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Females, however were three and a half times less likely to be hired when they behaved aggressively (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Arguably, this is because there is a greater expectation of "niceness" from women (Legace, 2003).

THE IMPACT OF THE STEREOTYPE EFFECT ON NEGOTIATION OUTCOMES

The stereotype effect is a form of performance anxiety that causes certain individuals (e.g., women and minorities) to fear that their performance will confirm negative stereotypes (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Kray, Thompson, and Galinsky (2005) did extensive research in 2001 examining how the performance of male and female negotiators varied depending on the type of sex-role stereotypes activated in particular situations (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007). Their findings led to the conclusion that males and females claim resources differently and perceive negotiation differently.

For example, when told that a bargaining task is a test of one's ability to negotiate, females typically did worse than males. Conversely, when negotiators are told that the task is not a test of ability, there are no differences in performance (Lewicki & Sanders, 2007).

THE IMPACT OF EMPATHY ON NEGOTIATION OUTCOMES

"Empathy refers to a person's understanding of and sensitivity to the feelings, thoughts, and situations of others"(McShane & Von Glinow, 2008). The "female model" of negotiation posits that a key characteristic of women's negotiating behavior is that they are empathetic (Carrell & Heavrin, 2008). In his book *Working with Emotional Intelligence*, author Daniel Goleman (2000) opines that to negotiate effectively, individuals need to identify and use their emotional intelligence (Carrell & Heavrin, 2008; Goleman, 2000). Emotional intelligence encompasses the following five characteristics as they relate to a bargaining situation: self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, empathy, and managing relationships (Goleman, 2008).

In the context of negotiations, negotiators need the ability to understand the other party's verbal and nonverbal messages, as well as the link between others' emotions and their behavior (Goleman, 2008). Research supports the view that women, generally, are more empathetic when negotiating. In a process called "stereotype regeneration," the link between stereotypical feminine traits (e.g., empathy) and negotiation effectiveness is strengthened (Kray & Thompson, 2005). When the stereotype of an effective negotiator is "regenerated" to include feminine traits (such as empathy), women gain the bargaining advantage (Kray & Thompson, 2005).

OVERCOMING GENDER DIFFERENCES IN NEGOTIATION: FOCUS ON COMMON GOALS AND DEPENDENCY

Women are more likely to be punished for self-promoting behavior than men. The world will not change overnight, therefore women need to discover ways to overcome this disadvantage. Experts in the area suggest when women negotiate in these types of situations, emphasis should be placed on the dependency of both parties to the relationship (Kray & Thompson, 2005). The benefit of this approach is the way in which talking about common goals transcends gender.

OVERCOMING GENDER DIFFERENCES IN NEGOTIATION: ACTIVATE GENDER STEREOTYPES

There is some evidence that activating a gender stereotype can improve performance. In one study, researchers found that after female negotiators were told that masculine traits lead to better performance, women often outperformed men in mixed-gender negotiations (Kray & Thompson, 2005). When feminine stereotypes were activated, both males and females achieved integrative outcomes (Kray & Thompson, 2005). This has led some to the conclusion that negotiators use

information about stereotypes to evaluate their own performance and then act more consistently with the stereotype, even if contrary to one's own gender. In follow-up research by Kray, however, it was discovered that the negotiating performance of women was improved only when there was not a power disadvantage in the negotiation (Kray & Thompson, 2005).

OVERCOMING GENDER DIFFERENCES IN NEGOTIATION: CHANGE THE FOCUS OF THE NEGOTIATION

When women negotiate on their own behalf, their concerns over relationships often suppresses their negotiating outcomes (Carrell & Heavrin, 2008). This is because women tend to see themselves as more interdependent, while males often view themselves as independent (Carrell & Heavrin, 2008). The exception to this rule occurs when women negotiate on behalf of others. In a study by Babcock and Riley, students were given a single-issue, distributive price negotiation. Some women were asked to negotiate for themselves and others were asked to represent another person in the negotiation. On average, women entering the negotiation intended to ask for 22% more per hour for someone other than themselves (Carrell & Heavrin, 2008; Riley & Babcock, 2002). This suggests that when women enter a salary negotiation, they should focus on the benefit to others, such as spouses and children. By redirecting the focus to benefits to others, women may be able to achieve better outcomes.

CONCLUSION

There is little doubt that the dominant stereotype of the successful negotiator is composed mostly of masculine traits (Kray & Thompson, 2005). Additionally, there is strong evidence that these stereotypes alter negotiators' performance (Kray & Thompson, 2005). Men and women differ in how they claim and create value, their propensity to negotiate, and their approach to negotiation (e.g., competitive versus cooperative). The good news is that by identifying gender distinctions in negotiation, women can harness gender stereotypes for their own benefit. Moreover, the trend in negotiation pedagogy is toward an integrative (i.e., win-win) negotiation model. As we move away from a distributive (i.e. win-lose) model, we are also moving toward a more feminine model of negotiation, which plays to the benefit of women's perceived propensity to be more empathetic.

REFERENCES

Ayres, Ian, (1995). Further Evidence of Discrimination in New Car Negotiations and Estimates of Its Cause. 94 *Mich.L.Rev*. 109.

Babcock, Linda & Sara Laschever (2003). *Women Don't Ask – Negotiation and the Gender Divide.* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press.

Cahn, Naomi R.(1992). Theoretics of Practice: The Integration of Progressive Thought and Action: Styles of Lawyering. 43 *Hastings L.J.*, 1039.

Carrell, Michael R.& Heavrin (2008). *Negotiating Essentials – Theory, Skills, and Practices*. Pearson- Prentice Hall.

Goleman, Daniel (2000). *Working with Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.

Klein, Chief Magistrate Judge Karen K. (2005). A Judicial Mediator's Perspective: The Impact of Gender on Dispute Resolution: Mediation as a Different Voice. 81 *N. Dak. L.Rev.* 771.

Kolb, D. & G.G. Coolidge (1991). Her place at the table: A consideration of gender issues in negotiation. In Rubin, J.Z., and J.W. Breslin (Eds.), *Negotiation theory and practice* (pp.261-277). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Program on Negotiation.

Kolb, Deborah M. & Williams (2003). *The Shadow Negotiation: How Women Can Master the Hidden Agendas That Determine Bargaining Success*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kray, Laura J. & Leigh Thompson (2005). Gender Stereotypes and Negotiation Performance: An Examination of Theory and Research. In B. Staw & R. Kramers (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior Series*, 26, 103-182.

Lagace, Martha (October 12, 2003). What Women Can Learn About Negotiation. *HBS Working Knowledge* (interview with Harvard Business School Professor Kathleen L. McGinn and Assistant Professor Hannah Riley Bowles of Harvard's John F. Kennedy School of Government).

Lewicki, Barry & Sanders (2007). *Essentials of Negotiation* (Fourth Edition). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

McShane & Von Glinow (2008). *Organizational Behavior* (Fourth Edition). McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Pradel, Dina W., Hannah Riley Bowles & Kathleen L. McGinn (February 13, 2006). When Gender Changes the Negotiation. *HBS Working Knowledge*.

Riley, Hannah & Linda Babcock (2002). Gender as a Situational Phenomenon in Negotiation. Paper presented at the IACM 15th Annual Conference, Salt Lake City, June 2002, and KSG Working Paper No. RWP02-037, available from the Social Science Research Network, http://ssrn.com/abstract=305159 (accessed September 19, 2006), 1-28.

Segal, Jonathan (June, 1991). Women on the Verge of Equality. *HR Magazine* 30 (117-123).

Thompson, P.A. & B.H. Kleiner. (1992). How to read nonverbal communication, *Business Communication Quarterly,* 55, 81-83.

Watson, Carol (1994). In Theory: Gender Versus Power as a Predictor of Negotiation Behavior and Outcomes. 10 *Negotiation J.* 117.

WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND JOB SATISFACTION: THE MEDIATING EFFECTS OF JOB-FOCUSED SELF- EFFICACY

Christopher J. Mathis, Morgan State University
Ulysses J. Brown, III, Savannah State University

ABSTRACT

This research examined the mediating effects of job-focused self-efficacy on the relationships between work-family conflict and the facets of job satisfaction (work, pay, promotion, supervision, and coworkers). Using covariance analysis, we found that job-focused self-efficacy mediated the relationship between work-family conflict and the promotion and supervision facets of job satisfaction. We discussed implications, limitations, and future research suggestions.

INTRODUCTION

Due to incompatible role expectations, balancing both the work and family demands has often caused conflict and stress for individuals. With the increasing number of dual income families, single parent families, and families with elders in need of care, the effects of conflict between the work and family obligations are likely to become more evident. Prior research (Barling, MacEwen, Kelloway, & Higginbottom, 1994; Butler, Grzywacz, Bass, & Linney, 2005; McManus, Korabik, Rosin, & Kelloway, 2002) has explored these concerns through an examination of work-family conflict and its outcomes.

Although there is a great deal of research on the conflict between the work and family, the purpose of this study was to investigate job-focused self-efficacy (JFSE) as a mediator of the relationship between work-family conflict (WFC) and the five dimensions of job satisfaction. Thus, the current research attempts to address this gap in the literature by utilizing a structural equation model of work-family conflict mediated by JFSE across a myriad of diverse organizations and various functional areas. This research may provide potential, practical implications and add to the richness of the existing body of knowledge about the conflict between work and family to human resource practitioners and managers.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

The theoretical underpinning for work-family conflict is role strain theory. Role strain is often mentioned by work-family researchers in the extant literature. Role strain theory proposes that responsibilities from different, separate domains compete for time, physical energy, and psychological resources and therefore, make it difficult to successfully perform each role due to time constraints, lack of energy, or mismatched behaviors among roles (Goode, 1960). Thus, multiple roles could reduce an individual's resources if not distributed properly. In other words, participation in one role depletes the amount resources for participation in another role. Goode (1960) argues that the more available roles that an individual has to choose from the more likely that person is to exhaust his/her personal resources. Furthermore, there is evidence that role strain results in various negative outcomes in the work and family domain; thus causing other scholars to advance that work-family conflict is two-dimensional (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; MacEwen & Barling, 1994; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk, & Beutell, 1996).

WFC represents the conflict between the work and family domains. WFC can be identified as "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect whereby participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). In essence, WFC results from an individual's attempt to meet an abundance of different conflicting demands.

A previously studied outcome of WFC is job satisfaction, which is an important work-related attitude among workers in various employment environments. Locke (1976) identified job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1297). Earlier studies (Boles & Babin, 1996; Decker & Borgen, 1993; Noor, 2004) used a global measure of job satisfaction as opposed to measuring employee job satisfaction across its various dimensions or facets. To accurately measure job satisfaction, several characteristics of the job may need to be evaluated in hopes of obtaining a broad measure of employee beliefs and attitudes about the job (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1974; Gregson, 1991) because one aspect of the job may not be of equal importance as another to an employee, as each employee may have different priorities.

The proposed research examined JFSE as a specific personality characteristic mediating the relationship between WFC and the job satisfaction facets. Job-focused self-efficacy has its roots in self-efficacy research. According to Bandura (1982), self-efficacy is classified as an individual's perceptual judgment or belief of "how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (p. 122). Self-efficacy expectations, which refer to beliefs about one's ability to successfully perform a given task or behavior, may be important mediators of behavior and behavior change (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, JFSE is an individual's belief that may influence the impact of WFC on the job satisfaction facets.

RELATIONSHIP OF WFC AND JOB SATISFACTION FACETS MEDIATED BY JFSE

Even though previous research has focused on the relationship between WFC and job satisfaction facets (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001; Boles, Wood, & Johnson, 2003), none have examined JFSE as a mediator of this relationship. Prior research has found a significant relationship before mediation between WFC and two facets of job satisfaction: job satisfaction-work, and job satisfaction-promotion and marginal support with job-satisfaction- supervision (Boles et al., 2001). In another study, Boles and colleagues (2003) also found a negative relationship before mediation between WFC and job satisfaction-pay, job satisfaction-promotion, and job satisfaction-supervision. Prior research indicates that higher levels self-efficacy will eventually result in both higher levels of job satisfaction and performance (Locke & Latham, 1990). Positive relationships have been observed between performance feedback (which has a direct impact on efficacy) and work satisfaction (Lawler & Porter, 1967); consequently, positive correlations are expected between efficacy and satisfaction. A former study found that female clerical workers with greater self-efficacy reported more effective job performance (Kahn & Long, 1988).

Higher levels of efficacy to manage WFC would be associated with lower expected conflict and higher levels of job satisfaction. In addition, Cinamon's (2006) research found that self-efficacy was negatively correlated and related with anticipated WFC. Therefore, the more an individual believes in him/herself, the less the anticipation of the conflict between work and family domains exist.

Previous role strain research has found that job satisfaction increases life satisfaction (Payton-Miyazaki & Brayfield, 1976). Given the intensive demand on an individual in the work domain, an individual with higher levels of JFSE may differentially influence the relationship between WFC and the five facets of job satisfaction. Therefore, an individual's JFSE may determine whether he/she believes the responsibilities of the job can be handled, which may reduce the impact on the conflict between work and family, making the individual's potential job satisfaction greater. In view of the previous literature, we offer the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 1:*   *JFSE will mediate the relationship between WFC and the job satisfaction facets. Specifically, the relationship between WFC and satisfaction with (a) work, (b) pay, (c) promotion, (d) supervision, and (e) co-workers will be mediated by JFSE.*

METHODS

We administered the survey electronically to various United States citizens including employees of the Southeastern state agency, alumni of northeastern and southern universities, and current graduate business students who were employed in diverse organizations and across various functional areas. The criteria for inclusion in our study were that the participant be employed in an

organization and work at least forty hours per week. Interested individuals who met these criteria were electronically sent an invitational letter with a link to the survey entitled, 'Job Satisfaction Survey.' The electronic invitational letter explained the purpose of the survey with the link included. We instructed the participants to complete and submit the questionnaire online. To reduce nonresponse error, two electronic reminders were sent to the same email addresses in two-week increments after the initial invitational letter.

Of the 914 questionnaires distributed, 298 responded; however, the effective sample consisted of 260 useable questionnaires for a 28% response rate. The participants in this study ages ranged between 21 to 65 years. Females constituted 71.9% of the sample. In terms of ethnicity, the sample consisted of 77.3 percent African Americans, 16.9 percent Caucasians, 1.9 percent Hispanics, 0.4 percent Asian, and 1.9 percent Other. The marital status of respondents was as follows: 45% single, 38.5% married, 11.9% divorced, and 2.7% widowed. In our sample, 41.9% had a college degree, 32.3% had a Master's, 2.7% had a Doctorate, and 22.3% had a High School diploma/GED. Most respondents (85.4%) had been employed in their present position between one to eight years. Respondents indicated that 42.3% of them had children under the age of 18.

The use of such a heterogeneous population in the work-family conflict research was strongly recommended by a meta-analysis (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Prior to conducting this study, we obtained approval from the Institutional Review Board for scientific research.

The constructs were measured by using the following instruments found in the work-family conflict literature using a 7-point Likert scale with responses ranging from (1) Strongly Disagree to (7) Strongly Agree.

Work-Family Conflict

Work-family conflict was measured using the Netemeyer et al. (1996) scale. This scale contains five items measuring general demand and time- and strain-based conflict. Higher scores are associated with greater inter-domain conflict for the scale. An example item from the WFC scale is "I often have to miss important family activities because of my job." The internal reliability (alpha) for WFC is .919.

Job Satisfaction

This study used the 30-item instrument Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) developed by Gregson (1991) that identifies the five dimensions of job satisfaction: work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers (e.g., "My work is boring" and "I am underpaid"). The JSS is comparable to the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), but the JSS is preferred because it uses a Likert scale with the same major components of the JDI scale (Smith et al., 1969). Higher scores are associated with greater job satisfaction. The Cronbach's alphas for the dimensions of job satisfaction are work (.862), pay (.820), promotion (.809), supervision (.881), and coworkers (.791).

Job-Focused Self-Efficacy

The Personal Efficacy Belief scale, a 10-item measure, was used to measure JFSE (Riggs, Warka, Babasa, Betancourt, & Hooker, 1994). An example items are "I doubt my ability to do my job" and "I have all the skills needed to perform my job very well." Higher scores are associated with greater JFSE. The alpha for JFSE is .743.

The proposed work-family conflict model presented in Figure 1 was tested using structural equation modeling (SEM) to evaluate the research hypotheses by using the linear structural relations (LISREL) computer program (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996). The covariance matrix was used as the input for all models, and the maximum likelihood estimation procedure was employed to produce the model parameters. To examine model fit, we utilized measures of absolute fit and incremental fit to determine how well the data fit the hypothesized model (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2005).

FIGURE 1
Hypothesized Work-Family Conflict Model
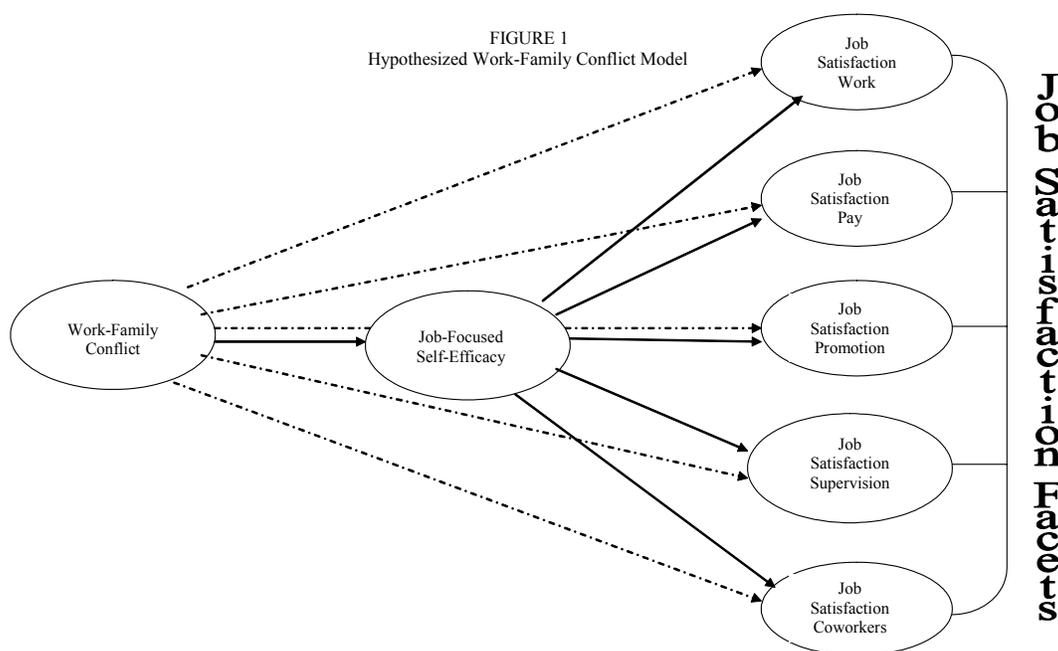
*Job Satisfaction Facets = Job Satisfaction Work + Job Satisfaction Pay + Job Satisfaction Promotion + Job Satisfaction Supervision + Job Satisfaction Coworkers

RESULTS

The means, standard deviations, reliability estimates, and zero-order correlations are provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, Zero-Order Correlations, and Reliability Estimates									
Variables	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
JSWK	27.57	6.26	(.86)						
JSP	15.06	5.77	.12	(.82)					
JSPR	24.31	7.96	.27**	.31**	(.81)				
JSS	26.03	7.50	.25**	.09	.25**	(.88)			
JSC	33.20	6.12	.18**	.11	.23**	.47**	(.79)		
WFC	12.80	7.49	.05	.05	.11	-.25**	-.22**	(.92)	
JFSE	30.57	4.08	-.01	-.05	-.06	.20**	.18**	-.24**	(.74)
n = 260; Reliability estimates are on the diagonals in parentheses. * $p \le .05$ ** $p \le .01$									

JSWK	= Job Satisfaction-Work
JSP	= Job Satisfaction-Pay
JSPR	= Job Satisfaction-Promotion
JSS	= Job Satisfaction-Supervision
JSC	= Job Satisfaction-Coworker
WFC	= Work-Family Conflict
JFSE	= Job-Focused Self-Efficacy

COMMON METHOD VARIANCE TESTS

Because all constructs were measured using self-reports, we examined whether common method variance was a serious issue. As recommended by Podsakoff and Organ (1986), Harman's one-factor test was performed. In this test, all survey items were entered together into an unrotated factor analysis and the results were examined. If substantial common method variance is present, then either a single factor would emerge or one general factor would account for most of the total variance explained in the items (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). After entering all items into the factor analysis model, eleven factors emerged from the analysis, and the first factor only accounted for 15.571 percent of the total variance. In addition, no general factor emerged from the factor analysis. Thus, common method variance was not deemed a serious issue in this study.

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess dimensionality and fit of the measures used in the model. The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) is a measure of absolute fit of the model by

comparing the fitted model with the actual data, and ranges from 0-1. Values greater than 0.90 demonstrate that the model fits the data well (Hair et al., 2005). Each construct had acceptable fit indices and is provided in Table 2. That is, each construct held together well and demonstrated unidimensionality; thus, each was deemed appropriate for inclusion in the model.

Table 2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of the Constructs in the WFC Model.							
Model	c²(df)	p-value	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI
JSWK	3.075(3)	0.621	.010	.995	.976	1.000	1.000
JSP	0.737(1)	0.439	.000	.999	.986	1.005	1.000
JSPR	11.467(5)	0.076	.071	.986	.942	.963	.988
JSS	6.700(3)	0.169	.069	.990	.950	.982	.995
JSC	9.138(7)	0.379	.034	.989	.967	.990	.995
WFC	0.254(2)	0.947	.000	1.000	.997	1.009	1.000
JFSE	5.763(5)	0.588	.024	.991	.974	.991	.996
Statistics are based on a sample of 260 respondents. Degrees of freedom are in parentheses after the Chi-square value.							
RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation. GFI = Goodness-of-fit index AGFI = Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index TLI = Tucker Lewis index CFI = Comparative Fit index df = Degrees of freedom JSWK = Job Satisfaction-Work JSP = Job Satisfaction-Pay JSPR = Job Satisfaction-Promotion JSS = Job Satisfaction-Supervision JSC = Job Satisfaction-Coworker WFC = Work-Family Conflict JFSE = Job-Focused Self-Efficacy							

The absolute fit measures, maximum likelihood ratio chi-square statistic (x^2) and goodness-of-fit index (GFI) provide a measure of the extent to which the covariance matrix estimated by the hypothesized model reproduces the observed covariance matrix (James & Brett, 1984). In addition, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was considered as it provides an estimate of the measurement error. Another fit index, the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI, also known as the Non-Normed Fit Index), was used to assess model fit; the TLI assesses a penalty for adding additional parameters to the model. The normed fit index (NFI) provides information about how much better the model fits than a baseline model, rather than as a sole function of the difference

between the reproduced and observed covariance matrices (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). The comparative fit index (CFI) has similar attributes to the NFI and compares the predicted covariance matrix to the observed covariance matrix and is least affected by sample size.

TEST OF THE MODEL

The two-step approach to structural equation modeling was employed (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). First, the measurement model was inspected for satisfactory fit indices. After establishing satisfactory model fit, a mediation model was fitted to the data. Thereafter, the structural coefficients were interpreted.

The measurement model (baseline) had acceptable fit indices (see Table 3). That is, the Chi-square statistic was at its minimum, and the p-value was nonsignificant. The GFI was above its recommended threshold level of 0.90 (Hair et al., 2005), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was less than 0.08, indicative of an acceptable model (Steiger & Lind, 1980). The Chi-square divided by the degrees of freedom coefficient was less than three, which indicates acceptable model fit (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1995). The CFI, NFI, and TLI all indicated an acceptable fit of the model to the data.

Table 3: Fit Indices for the Baseline and Mediation Measurement Models								
Model	x^2(df)	p-value	x^2/df	RMSEA	GFI	TLI	NFI	CFI
Baseline	14.20(9)	0.077	1.775	.055	.970	.981	.916	.972
w/ mediation	01.69(4)	0.791	0.4225	.001	1.00	1.07	.990	1.00

Statistics are based on a sample of 260 respondents.
Degrees of freedom are in parentheses after the Chi-square value.

RMSEA	= Root mean square error of approximation.
GFI	= Goodness-of-fit index
TLI	= Tucker Lewis index
NFI	= Normed Fit index
CFI	= Comparative Fit index
df	= Degrees of freedom

MEDIATION MODEL

Judd and Kenny (1981) and Baron and Kenny (1986) advanced that structural equation modeling is the preferred data analytic strategic when conducting mediation tests involving latent constructs. Following the four steps outlined by these aforementioned authors, we modified our baseline to include five new paths to test whether job focused self-efficacy mediated the WFC-job

satisfaction relationship. That is, we added paths from WFC to the five facets of job satisfaction (i.e., work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers). As shown in Table 3, the mediation model had acceptable fit indices.

INTERPRETATION OF THE STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL

Table 4 displays the structural coefficients for the mediation model. Partial support was established for Hypothesis 1 because JFSE partially mediated the relationship between WFC and some of the job satisfaction facets. That is, the path from WFC to JFSE was statistically significant; in addition, the direct path from WFC to job satisfaction-promotion was also significant, indicating partial mediation. Further support was established for Hypothesis 1 because the path from WFC to job satisfaction-supervision was statistically significant as well. Mediation was not established for the following facets of job satisfaction: work, pay, and coworkers. In sum, support was established for Hypotheses 1c and 1d because the promotion and supervision facets of job satisfaction partially mediated the WFC-job satisfaction relationship in our model.

The squared multiple correlations for job-focused self-efficacy, job satisfaction-work, job satisfaction-pay, job satisfaction-promotion, job satisfaction-supervision, and job satisfaction-coworkers were 6%, 1%, 10%, 32%, 42%, and 65%, respectively.

Table 4: Structural Coefficients for the Mediation Model (Unstandardized Values)			
Parameter	Path Coefficient	T-value	Mediation
Job-Focused Self-Efficacy			
Work-Family Conflict	-.13	-3.92*	
Job Satisfaction-Work			
Work-Family Conflict	.04	.75	
JFSE	-.03	-.39	
Job Satisfaction-Pay			
Work-Family Conflict	.07	.27	
JFSE	.01	.23	
Job Satisfaction-Promotion			partial
Work-Family Conflict	.36	3.37*	
JFSE	-.36	-2.10*	
Job Satisfaction-Supervision			partial

Table 4: Structural Coefficients for the Mediation Model (Unstandardized Values)			
Parameter	Path Coefficient	T-value	Mediation
Work-Family Conflict	-.23	-3.81*	
JFSE	.29	2.67*	
Job Satisfaction-Coworkers			
Work-Family Conflict	.22	1.44	
JFSE	1.60	1.64	

Statistics are based on a sample of 260 respondents.
These are the endogenous or dependent variables in the model; the exogenous variables are listed underneath.
*Significant at the 0.05 level.

DISCUSSION

This study emphasizes the importance of mediation testing in the work-family conflict literature. Job satisfaction-supervision, job satisfaction-coworkers, and WFC were significantly correlated with JFSE. However, only one item, the WFC-JFSE finding was consistent with a previous study in this area (Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O'Brien, 2001). However, Jex and Gudanowski (1992) did not find a relationship between WFC and JFSE.

Apparently for African Americans (represented 77% of the sample), WFC is negatively related to JFSE. Preceding mediation (as shown in Table 5) and consistent with the literature (Boles et al., 2001; Boles et al., 2003), WFC was a significant predictor of the job satisfaction-promotion and –supervision facets. In contrast, Boles and colleagues (2001) found an additional significant relationship with job satisfaction-work. In another study, WFC was negatively related to job satisfaction-pay (Boles et al., 2003).

In the mediation model, JFSE was negatively related to job-satisfaction promotion and positively related to job satisfaction-supervision. Thus, JFSE partially mediated the relationship of WFC and job satisfaction-promotion and WFC (H1c) and job satisfaction-supervision (H1d). WFC was not a significant predictor with respect to the job satisfaction-work, job satisfaction-pay, and job satisfaction-coworker facets. Therefore, it appears that for African-Americans workers with higher levels of JFSE, WFC does not influence the job satisfaction facets of work, pay, or coworkers. Perhaps this phenomenon may be a result of the fact that African Americans have become accustomed to working in hostile environments and therefore may have a lower job satisfaction expectation, irrespective of the facet.

CONCLUSION

Using structural equation modeling, the current research investigated the effects of job-focused self-efficacy as a mediator of the relationships between the facets of job satisfaction and work-family conflict. We found that only the promotion and supervision facets mediated the WFC-job satisfaction relationship. Also, work-family conflict was a significant predictor of both the promotion and supervision facets of job satisfaction. Work-family conflict was not a significant predictor of the work, pay, and coworkers facets of job satisfaction.

This study represents one of the first to examine the mediator effects of JFSE on the relationship between WFC and the facets of job satisfaction. For the current sample, JFSE was significantly correlated with job satisfaction-supervision, job satisfaction-coworkers, and WFC. These findings are tentative and we of course encourage replication.

Our findings contribute to the existing body of knowledge because this study provides additional evidence and importance of examining the mediating effects of JFSE, which provides a more sensitive analysis at the individual level. Indeed using JFSE as a mediator may in fact uncover employee individual differences that could adversely influence the effectiveness of managers. Another contribution of the current research is that the majority of the sample is of African American employees. Analyzing diverse samples may provide insight into employee behavior for human resources practitioners.

IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Findings from this study have important and practical implications. Management should consider the individual's self-efficacy level whenever possible because the beliefs about one's ability to successfully perform could influence career decisions, achievements, and job satisfaction and performance (Hackett & Betz, 1981; Locke & Latham, 1990). As is true of most empirical research, the current research has some limitations. First, the cross-sectional design of the study does not allow for causal inferences. Another limitation of the study was that all data were collected via self-reports, which may lead to the problem of common method bias. However, the Harmon's one-factor test did not indicate a problem with common method variance.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

A future area of inquiry would be to compare the results of a structural equation model that uses a global measure of job satisfaction directly with another model using the facets. In addition, studies are needed that compare and contrast robust samples of minority group members in this area of research. We also believe that longitudinal designs are needed in this area to examine the behavior of these constructs and whether they wax or wane over time.

REFERENCES

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*(3), 411-423.

Arbuckle, J. L., & Wothke, W. (1995). *Amos 4.0 user's guide*. Chicago: Smallwaters Corporation.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84*, 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist, 37*, 122-147.

Barling, J., MacEwen, K. E., Kelloway, E. K., & Higginbottom, S. F. (1994). Predictors and outcomes of elder-care-based interrole conflict. *Psychology and Aging, 9*(3), 391-397.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1173-1182.

Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin, 88*, 588-606.

Boles, J. S., & Babin, B. J. (1996). On the front lines: Stress, conflict, and the customer service provider. *Journal of Business Research, 37*(1), 41-50.

Boles, J. S., Howard, W. G., & Donofrio, H. H. (2001). An investigation into the inter-relationships of work-family conflict, family-work conflict and work satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 13*(3), 376-390.

Boles, J. S., Wood, J. A., & Johnson, J. (2003). Interrelationships of role conflict, role ambiguity, and work-family conflict with different facets of job satisfaction and the moderating effects of gender. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 23*(2), 99-113.

Butler, A. B., Grzywacz, J. G., Bass, B. L., & Linney, K. D. (2005). Extending the demands-control model: A daily diary study of job characteristics, work-family conflict and work-family facilitation. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 78*, 155-170.

Churchill, G. A., Ford, N. M., & Walker, O. C. (1974). Measuring the job-satisfaction of industrial salesmen. *Journal of Marketing Research, 11*(3), 254-260.

Cinamon, R. G. (2006). Anticipated work-family conflict: Effects of gender, self-efficacy, and family background. *The Career Development Quarterly, 54*(3), 202-215.

Decker, P. J., & Borgen, F. H. (1993). Dimensions of work appraisal: Stress, strain, coping, job satisfaction, and negative affectivity. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 40*(4), 470-478.

Erdwins, C. J., Buffardi, L. C., Casper, W. J., & O'Brien, A. S. (2001). The relationship of women's role strain to social support, role satisfaction, and self-efficacy. *Family Relations, 50*(3), 230-238.

Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict: Testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*(1), 65-78.

Frone, M. R., Yardley, J. K., & Markel, K. S. (1997). Developing and testing an integrative model of work-family interface. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 50*(2), 145-167.

Goode, W. J. (1960). A theory of role strain. *American Sociological Review, 25*, 483-496.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review, 10*(1), 76-88.

Gregson, T. (1991). The separate constructs of communication satisfaction and job satisfaction. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 51*(1), 39-48.

Gutek, B. A., Searle, S. S., & Klepa, L. (1991). Rational versus gender role explanations for work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(4), 560-568.

Hackett, G., & Betz, N. E. (1981). A self-efficacy approach to the career development of women. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 18*, 326-339.

Hair, J. F., Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2005). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

James, L. R., & Brett, J. M. (1984). Mediators, moderators, and tests for mediation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 69*(2), 307-321.

Jex, S. M., & Gudanowski, D. M. (1992). Efficacy beliefs and work stress: An exploratory study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*(5), 509-517.

Jöreskog, K. G., & Sörbom, D. (1996). *Lisrel 8: User's reference guide*. Chicago: Scientific Software International.

Judd, C. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1981). Process analysis: Estimating mediation in treatment evaluations. *Evaluation Research, 5*, 602-619.

Kahn, S. E., & Long, B. C. (1988). Work-related stress, self-efficacy, and well-being of female clerical workers. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly, 1*, 145-153.

Kossek, E. E., & Ozeki, C. (1998). Work-family conflict, policies, and the job-life satisfaction relationship: A review and directions for organizational behavior-human resources research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(2), 139-149.

Lawler, E. E., & Porter, L. W. (1967). The effect of performance on job satisfaction. *Industrial Relations, 7*(1), 20-28.

Locke, E. A. (1976). Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *The nature and causes of job satisfaction* (pp. 1297-1349). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). Work motivation and satisfaction: Light at the end of the tunnel. *Psychological Science, 1*, 240-246.

MacEwen, K. E., & Barling, J. (1994). Daily consequences of work interference with family and family interference with work. *Work & Stress, 8*(3), 244-254.

McManus, K., Korabik, K., Rosin, H. M., & Kelloway, E. K. (2002). Employed mothers and the work-family interface: Does family structure matter? *Human Relations, 55*(11), 1295-1324.

Netemeyer, R. G., Boles, J. S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work-family conflict and family-work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(4), 400-410.

Noor, N. M. (2004). Work-family conflict, work- and family-role salience, and women's well-being. *Journal of Social Psychology, 144*(4), 389-405.

Parasuraman, S., Purohit, Y. S., Godshalk, V. M., & Beutell, N. J. (1996). Work and family variables, entrepreneurial career success, and psychological well-being. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 48*(3), 275-300.

Payton-Miyazaki, M., & Brayfield, A. H. (1976). The good job and the good life: Relation of characteristics of employment to general well-being. In A. D. Biderman & T. F. Drury (Eds.), *Measuring work quality for social reporting* (pp. 105-150). Beverly Hills: Sage.

Riggs, M. L., Warka, J., Babasa, B., Betancourt, R., & Hooker, S. (1994). Development and validation of self-efficacy and outcome expectancy scales for job-related applications. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 54*(3), 793-803.

Smith, P. C., Kendall, L. M., & Hulin, C. L. (1969). *The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement*. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Steiger, J. H., & Lind, J. C. (1980). *Statistically-based tests for the number of common factors.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Psychometric Society, Iowa City, IO.

Allied Academies

invites you to check our website at

www.alliedacademies.org

for information concerning

conferences and submission instructions

Allied Academies

invites you to check our website at

www.alliedacademies.org

for information concerning

conferences and submission instructions