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LETTER FROM THE EDITORS

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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.

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JoAnn C. Carland
Editor
Carland College

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UNDERSTANDING THE NEW GENERATION: WHAT THE MILLENNIAL COHORT ABSOLUTELY, POSITIVELY MUST HAVE AT WORK

Claudia Rawlins, California State University
Julie Indvik, California State University
Pamela R. Johnson, California State University

ABSTRACT

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

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

INTRODUCTION

Starting at about the turn of the 21st century, faculty began noticing that their students -- and employers began noticing that their new employees -- were “different” from the previous cohort. They did not appear to be interested in the same things or motivated by the same rewards as previous young adults. These observations have stimulated a growing number of research studies focused on identifying the essential characteristics of the cohort now generally referred to as the Millennials. This cohort, born between 1982 and 2000, numbering 81 million, is even larger than the Baby Boomer cohort. Over one-fourth of all Americans belong to this cohort (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006).

The Millennials were born in a rapidly-expanding economy. In the decade between October 11, 1990 and January 4, 2000, the Dow went from 2365 to 11,723 – an increase of nearly 500 percent (Dow Jones, 2008). The Internet and wireless communication provided this cohort with easy access to unlimited, global-wide information. It was in the decade between 1990 and 2000 that the Internet became the World Wide Web. Between 1991 and 2002, the Internet went from 1 million hosts to 200 million hosts. In September 2002, the Internet reached 840 million users worldwide

(Slater, 2002). By September of 2005, the number of cell phones in use worldwide topped 2 billion (United Press International, 2005), and close to 50 percent of U.S. children under age 15 had cell phones in 2006 (Point.com, 2006). These factors have had an impact on the values and expectations of this group.

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

BACKGROUND

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

METHODOLOGY

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

RESULTS

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

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

Salary

The percent of respondents stating that some base level of salary constituted a non-negotiable was 73.4 percent. Of those stating a specific dollar figure (55 females and 75 males), the median was \$50,000, and the overall average was \$50,569. The range was from a low of \$21,000 to a high

of \$90,000. However the average for the females was \$46,345 while the average for the males was \$53,667, statistically different at the .01 level.

The average non-negotiable salary figure was 6.8 percent higher than the actual average starting salary for all business majors in Fall 2007 as reported by the National Association of Colleges and Employers -- \$47,345 – which may lead to problems for either the job seekers or the employers wishing to hire them (See Table 1).

Major	Starting Salary
Marketing	\$40,161
Advertising	33,831
Computer Science	51,992
Visual and performing arts	30,174
Psychology	31,857
All Business	47,345
All Construction Management	34,745

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in 2002, the average of all female college graduates earned an average of \$809 per week -- \$42,068 annually – while their male counterparts earned \$1,089 per week, or \$56,628 annually. It seems that from the very outset, female job seekers set lower salary expectations for themselves, and the lower non-negotiable beginning salary continues to be reflected in their earnings throughout their careers.

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

Benefits

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

by respondents included childcare (4), maternity/paternity leave (6), paid vacation days (66) and paid sick days (18).

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

Retirement Benefits

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

Work Hours

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

Commute Length and Geographic Location

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

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

The Job and the Company

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

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

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

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

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

"This is only a job." So many members of this cohort seem to be detached from the world and what is going on right around them. That is an observation made by many faculty and employers. The reasons may include repetitive duties, absence of stimulation, uncertainty about their role, impatience, and an overwhelming daily schedule. They often try to "work the system" rather than fulfilling their responsibilities in the best way possible. Given this observation by Wendover and others, it is interesting that the most frequently-mentioned non-negotiable related to the job was "opportunity for growth/training" (125) followed by desire to "work directly with people on a daily basis (102)," "promotion opportunities (82)," "variety in my job (32)," and "teamwork (24)." These factors all seem to indicate quite a lot of interest in the work as well as in the people

who do it. There was nothing in the survey responses that supported the observation that the Millennials are detached from their environment. Perhaps the perception of teachers and employers that they are is the result of differences in external non-verbal messages rather than internal emotional states. A study of cohort-based non-verbal cues might make for an interesting next step in understanding this group.

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

“I want to make a difference.” The Millennials have observed that things (government; the roads; disaster relief; health care; etc.) are broken, and they want to be involved in finding solutions. Azaroff (2006) reports “They tend to be less focused on money-making ventures and more on making a difference in the world. (p. 56).” In this study, a corporate culture which “is socially responsible,” “has a positive impact,” “is environmentally sensitive,” “is ethical,” “has values which align with mine,” and “has a company culture I can be proud of” were mentioned 76 times or by 21.3 percent of respondents. According to Lev Grossman (2005), those between 18 – 25 years old expect a lot more from a job than a paycheck. They “are looking for a sense of purpose and importance in their work, something that will add meaning to their lives.” (page 46.) This survey supports that.

Grossman’s survey of young adults asked them “Which of these do you consider essential for your job?” The responses (Grossman, 2005, p. 47) are listed in Table 2, along with the responses suggested by this survey of non-negotiables.

Factor	<i>Time</i> 2005 Study	Non-negotiable 2007 Study
Job Security	71%	4%
Health benefits	63%	57%
Interesting work	60%	23% (combination of factors)
Good salary	56%	73%

Although job security was mentioned specifically by only 4 percent of the respondents in this survey, a number of other factors students mentioned may be related. For example, a company that has “been successful long-term” and “a growing company or market” were mentioned by an additional 8 percent of respondents.

Creativity and Innovation

Two additional factors were mentioned frequently by respondents in this survey, but not addressed in the literature. One is the need for work which allows or encourages creativity, innovation, and diversity. This was mentioned by 16 percent of respondents.

Structure and Goal Orientation

The other factor, almost the opposite of a desire for creativity and flexibility, was a desire for structure. This factor, which was mentioned by 17 percent of respondents included such non-negotiables as “well organized/clear goals,” “goal orientation,” “structured work,” “provides clear direction,” “safe,” “standard hours,” “treats everyone fairly,” and “professional.”

CONCLUSION

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

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COMBINING CLASSIFICATION MODELS FOR A COMPREHENSIVE UNDERSTANDING OF NATIONAL CULTURE: METAPHORICAL ANALYSIS AND VALUE JUDGEMENTS APPLIED TO BURMESE CULTURAL ASSESSMENT

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ABSTRACT

This paper proposes that in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of national culture one must combine competing conceptual models. Employing empirical investigation and qualitative assessment, this paper combines the value orientations of Hofstede and Trompenaars with the metaphorical analysis of Gannon. Burmese culture is used as an example to show the limitations of assessment based on just one methodology and of the richness found in combining competing approaches.

INTRODUCTION

The cross-culture literature contains many articles assessing the relevance and accuracy of the various models and theories used to describe and explain differences in national culture. Some of these articles focus on ideological struggles and methodological limitations of the targeted research model (Early 2006; Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hange, & Sully de Luque 2006). Some have argued for a more contextual approach to the classification and study of culture (Sackmann & Phillips 2002; Niffenegger, Kulviwat, & Engchanil 2006) in which culture operates in a time-sensitive dimension and may produce multiple “cultures” within one national culture. Still others (Jacob 2005) believe that national cultures are too complex to be explained in terms of the uni-linear dimensions used by researchers such as Hofstede and Trompenaars. This article proposes that a better understanding of national culture can be developed through a combination of approaches in which the weakness of one model can be supplemented by the qualities of another. In particular, an assessment of the culture of Myanmar is made by combining the frameworks of Hofstede and Trompenaars, along with the use of a metaphorical analysis.

Myanmar was not included in the research of either Geert Hofstede or Frans Trompenaars, and no reference to the country can be found in the culture metaphor literature. Myanmar is located

in Southeast Asia, bordering Thailand, China, India, and Laos. The country, formerly called Burma (and still referred to by that name by the United States government for political reasons), gained its independence from Britain at the end of World War II, after a hard fought struggle with the colonial power and the Japanese invaders. Burmese nationalist and national hero, Aung San fought for his country's independence and for democratic rule (Khng 2000). His daughter, Nobel Peace Prize winner, Aung San Suu Kyi continues the struggle today inside Myanmar, even as she lives under house arrest. While Myanmar interacts with its ASEAN neighbors, a number of Western countries have placed economic sanctions on the country for its lack of democracy. These sanctions have limited foreign investment and other forms of economic exchange. A military junta has ruled the country in one capacity or another since 1962, and Myanmar has operated in various states of isolation from the world over those years (Fink 2001). As a result of its isolation, very little research has been conducted on its culture or values orientation. Myanmar is a strongly Buddhist country which retains many traditional values and cultural practices. A multi-modality approach to its classification allows for the inclusion of these important cultural characteristics.

HOFSTEDE AND MYANMAR

Perhaps the most popular and far-reaching cross-cultural model is that of Geert Hofstede (Hofstede 1980a; Hofstede 1980b; Hofstede 1983; Hofstede 1993; Hofstede 1994; Hofstede 2001). Hofstede's work has been widely cited in a number of different management related academic studies (Kirkman, Lowe & Gibson 2006) and typically forms the basis for cross-cultural analysis in university management courses. Using surveys from the original 72 countries, Hofstede was able to classify 40 of the countries. Later research allowed the addition of 10 more countries and three regions (Arab World, East Africa, West Africa). Hofstede originally identified four dimensions of culture: power distance, individualism, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. Power distance represents the degree of a culture's acceptance of inequality among its members. Individualism and collectivism represent a culture's main focus, being either the importance of the individual or the group. Masculinity and femininity represents the stereotypical characteristics of men and women as being the dominant cultural values. Uncertainty avoidance is essentially a collective tolerance for ambiguity for a culture. Later research with Michael Bond (Hofstede & Bond 1988) added a fifth dimension called long-term orientation. This dimension, originally called Confucian Dynamism, measures the preferences of a culture for a long-term and traditional view of time.

Hofstede's work has attracted a number of critics. Some have expressed concerns about the generalizability of the sample, the level of analysis, the comparison of political boundaries (countries) to culture, and the validity of the instrument (Mc Sweeney 2002; Smith 2002). Others have challenged the assumption of the homogeneity of each studied culture (Sivakumar & Nakata 2001). The additional dimension of long-term orientation (LTO) has been challenged on the grounds of conceptual validity (Fang 2003). While many of the concerns raised by his critics can be

considered to have some validity, Hofstede's model, nevertheless, represents the most popular approach to cultural assessment.

In order to assess Burmese culture using the value orientations of Hofstede, a sample of 37 Myanmar citizens was conducted. While the sample size was small, it should be remembered that Hofstede's original classification of Pakistan was based on the exact same number of participants as this study (Hofstede 1980). The sample consisted of a group of Executive MBA graduates participating in a series of development seminars conducted as part of the Fulbright Foreign Scholars Program. Not unlike the original research by Hofstede, the sample represented the segment of the culture's population that could be described as educated, upper middle class, urban, and English speaking. While Myanmar has been somewhat cut-off from the United States and the European Union due to the imposition of economic sanctions, the sample population has been influenced by Western standards, at least in terms of business practices. Very few of the participants had, however, traveled to the United States or Europe, and many had never been outside of Myanmar.

The seminar participants were given the Values Survey Module 1994 (VSM94) prior to beginning the seminars. Thirty-seven surveys were completed and useful which represented 93% of the seminar attendees. The VSM 94 consists of 26 questions. Twenty questions contain content information designed to assess the five dimensions of the Hofstede-Bond cultural classification model, and six questions are for demographic collection. The surveys were analyzed using the index method recommended by the instrument's author, whereby a separate score is determined for each survey element. Separate scores were determined for power distance (PDI), masculinity (MAS), individualism (IDV), uncertainty avoidance (UAI), and long-term orientation (LTO). The results for Myanmar were compared with all other countries in the earlier Hofstede surveys.

The results of the survey indicate that Myanmar culture is low power distance, highly feminine, moderately individualistic, high uncertainty avoidance, and moderately long-term in its orientation. The results were surprising in that Myanmar has little in common in terms of values orientation with neighboring Southeast Asian countries. A typical values portrait of countries in the region would be high power distance, masculine, collectivist, moderate uncertainty avoidance, and long-term in orientation. From the survey, Myanmar's PDI is 26, indicating a low level of acceptance of inequality among societal members (Figure 1). Within Southeast Asia, Myanmar's PDI is closest to Thailand and most removed from Malaysia. Myanmar is much closer to Ireland in terms of power distance than any of its neighbors. The survey results indicate that Myanmar is a quite feminine culture with a MAS of only 24 (Figure 2). This value is also closest to Thailand within the region, and the most removed from the Philippines. Myanmar is closer to Chile and Finland in terms of femininity than any of its regional neighbors. In terms of individualism, Myanmar's IDV score of 51 also places it at odds with the mostly collectivist values of the region (Figure 3). Myanmar is closer to Spain in this dimension than any of the Southeast Asian nations. Myanmar is closest to the Philippines in this regard and the most removed from Indonesia. The survey indicates a high uncertainty avoidance culture for Myanmar (Figure 4), similar to Thailand

in the region and most distant from Singapore. The UAI for Myanmar of 89 is closer to Argentina than any of the regional countries. With regards to long-term orientation, only three of the Southeastern Asian countries were included in the Hofstede survey. The LTO for Myanmar of 46 could be classified as moderate (Figure 5). Of these countries, Myanmar's LTO is closest to the long-term orientation of Singapore and Thailand, and quite distant from the very low LTO of the Philippines. No long-term orientation data are presently available for Indonesia or Malaysia. An assessment of Burmese culture using the Hofstede framework shows a country that has values somewhat different from its neighbors, and a somewhat unique, and perhaps confusing composite makeup. In order to better understand this national culture, additional assessment is provided.

TROMPENAARS AND MYANMAR

Frans Trompenaars (1994) proposed a cultural framework similar to Hofstede in which a series of bipolar dimensions were used to capture the essence of national culture. The framework was derived primarily from the work of Talcott Parsons and was assessed using a questionnaire administered to managers in twenty-eight countries (Gooderhan & Nordhaug 2003). The results of these surveys indicated five dimensions important to the understanding of cross-cultural differences. The five dimensions are: (1) universalism v. particularism; (2) communitarism v. individualism; (3) neutral v. emotional; (4) specific v. diffuse; (5) achievement v. ascription. Of the five dimensions identified by Trompenaars, four are different from Hofstede. The dimension of communitarism/individualism of Trompenaars is similar to Hofstede's classification of individualism/collectivism. The exhibit below summarizes the five dimensions identified by Trompenaars.

Trompenaars Cultural Dimensions	
<i>Universalism v. particularism</i>	– a culture's application of principles. Universal cultures apply principles regardless of individual circumstances. Particular cultures apply principles unevenly based on relationships.
<i>Communitarism v. individualism</i>	– a culture's focus on either the group or the individual. Communitarist cultures focus on the needs of the group and individualist cultures focus on the needs of the individual.
<i>Neutral v. emotional</i>	– a culture's norms for the expression of emotion. Neutral cultures tend not to express emotion whereas emotional cultures accept the free expression.
<i>Specific v. diffuse</i>	– a culture's blending of work and personal life. Specific cultures separate the two while diffuse cultures blend them.
<i>Achievement v. ascription</i>	– a culture's way of assigning status. Achievement cultures assign status based on performance and ascription cultures base status on durable or personal characteristics.

Myanmar was not included in the twenty-eight countries assessed by Trompenaars. A qualitative assessment of Burmese culture using personal experiences and a review of the related literature indicates a culture that is particular, individualistic, neutral, diffuse, and ascription oriented. As with other countries in the region, Myanmar culture readily makes many exceptions to rules and regulations. The application of principles is “particular” to a specific situation and based on the strength of personal relationships. While there are many laws and regulations concerning behavior, the application and enforcement of these laws is selective and based on the situation, including social standing (Fink 2001). While our use of the Hofstede value survey indicated that Myanmar was a moderately individualistic culture, it is reasonable to assume that the sample group was somewhat unique and also influenced by the current desperate economic circumstances. With economic sanctions imposed by the United States and the European Union, the economy of Myanmar has suffered greatly. Many large employers have gone out of business and almost all banks have closed. This has caused its citizens to seek more entrepreneurial opportunities on their own with non-sanctioning countries, and has promoted a degree of individualism, in what is believed to be a collectivist culture. Myanmar is clearly a neutral country in terms of the showing of emotion. While the democracy movement has caused some emotion to be expressed at times, the showing of emotion generally causes one to lose face and is avoided. The military crackdown on political demonstrations is due in part to the desire of the ruling generals to save face for the nation. In Myanmar it is common for work and play to be combined, making this a diffuse culture. The Burmese enjoy eating and socializing with each other both inside and outside the organization. Work life and personal life are often blended with many opportunities for social interaction. Myanmar culture is typical for the region in the assignment of social status based on ascription. There is great respect for age and family lineage, and the very frequent use of titles denotes the importance placed on educational attainment.

METAPHORICAL ANALYSIS AND MYANMAR

A newer and intriguing approach to the study of culture employs the use of a metaphor to identify dimensions deemed important to a particular culture. Using a metaphor, a comparison is made between two seemingly unrelated items. Gannon (2001; 2002) explains that a cultural metaphor is “any activity, phenomenon, or institution with which members of a given culture emotionally and/or cognitively identify.” The assumption underlying the metaphorical analysis of culture is that the metaphor represents important values of the culture under study and provides a deeper understanding of that culture. For example, Gannon uses the metaphor of a Japanese garden to explain the importance of harmony, balance, and proper placement (kata) to Japanese society. Metaphors and metaphorical mapping forms an individual’s participation in social institutions and practices (Gelfand & McCusker 2002). While the choice of proper metaphor is important, and a number of competing metaphors could be chosen, this qualitative analysis allows the researcher to

be somewhat creative in the application of the assessment. The proper choice of metaphor and its interpretation can be assessed on the researcher's intimate knowledge of the target culture. The freedom of expression in that interpretation can provide a rich tapestry of dimensions of culture not previously assessed.

The choice of metaphor for Myanmar culture, based on the authors' experience with that culture is the Burmese harp. The Burmese harp is an important symbol of the country and its culture and can be seen in many places as a national symbol of Myanmar. The harp represents an important symbol of Burmese history and culture and many representations can be found in souvenir shops throughout the country. The harp represents an important aspect of classical Burmese music and art. It is believed that the Burmese harp probably originated in India some time before 500 AD (Becker 1967) and was modified by the Burmese over the years, taking on an arched shape. The harp is a thirteen sting instrument that is very ornate. The musical instrument is often used as decoration due to its artistic beauty. The harp played a significant role in the 1956 film *The Burmese Harp* which was based on the book *Harp of Burma* by M. Takeyama (2001 - English translation date). In the book and film, Japanese soldiers in Burma during World War II are faced with the horrors of war and discover the futility of conflict. The soldiers develop Buddhist values of humility and compassion as one member of the group uses the harp to overcome the many difficulties they face as the war comes to an end. The harp in many ways also represents the struggles of the Burmese people and their current values and beliefs.

The harp plays an important role in Buddhist understanding of the "middle way," an important doctrine of Buddhism (Lowenstein 2005; Sach 2006). The Buddha is believed to have used the concept of the harp to explain to an ascetic the importance of avoiding excess in which he asks the ascetic about producing fine music. He explained that if the strings of a harp are too loose or too tight, the instrument will not produce pleasant music. The Buddha explains that enlightenment is like adjusting the strings of a harp, seeking moderation in lieu of extremes. In Burmese culture, extremes are avoided. Like the playing of a harp, success and happiness comes from the harmony experienced when the strings are properly adjusted. At the same time, Burmese culture values patience. The citizens of Myanmar have been patient in their wait for a return to democratic rule. And patience is needed to successfully master the difficulties of learning to play this musical instrument. In a feminine culture, harmony and cooperation are valued. The playing of the Burmese harp signifies this harmony as well as a degree of independence. The harp can produce beautiful music being played alone, or as part of an ensemble. The harp represents the importance of dignity to Burmese culture and the significance of history and consistency. The purpose of the harp is to produce an environment in which harmony is realized for the joy of the one playing the instrument and for others. The music produced by the harp also represents the impermanence doctrine of Buddhist belief.

CONCLUSION

This paper has proposed that national culture is best studied using a multidimensional and multi-methodological approach. The conclusion concerning Burmese culture is that it may not be the typical Asian culture. With an individualistic, feminine, and moderate long-term orientation, Myanmar is somewhat unique in Asia. The unique circumstances of Myanmar's political environment may be the cause or manifestation of these differences. The lower power distance value seems to be consistent with the economic system that developed in Myanmar after gaining independence. The "Burmese way to socialism," an earlier economic program, reflected a desire to maintain economic equality among societal members. Myanmar is also a strongly Buddhist country, perhaps the most devout among the South East Asian nations. This spiritual orientation may also shape the low power distance and feminine orientations of Myanmar to a greater extent than even its other Buddhist neighboring countries. With its unique political and desperate economic situation, people in Myanmar may be more focused towards individualism at the moment as a basis for survival. This would also perhaps explain the slightly less long-term orientation in the region. In addition, the symbolic importance of the Burmese harp stresses the importance of harmony, dignity, and individual effort expended for the benefit of the group. Only through multiple modalities can one hope to explain the complex composite we call culture.

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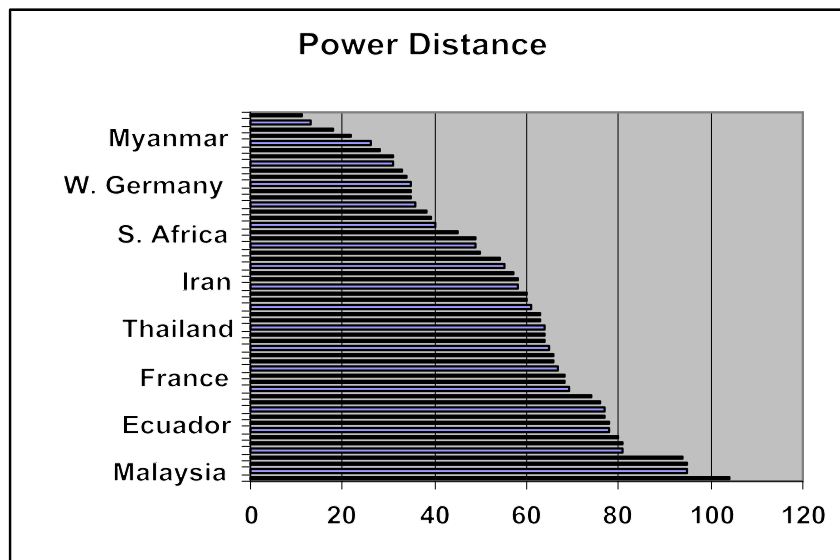
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APPENDIX

Assessment of Myanmar Using Hofstede Value Judgments

Figure 1



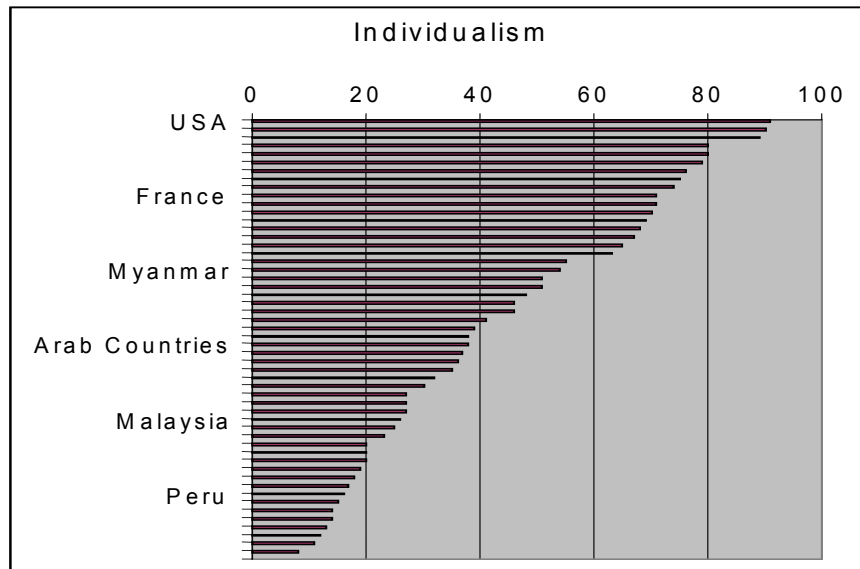
Myanmar PDI 26

Figure 2



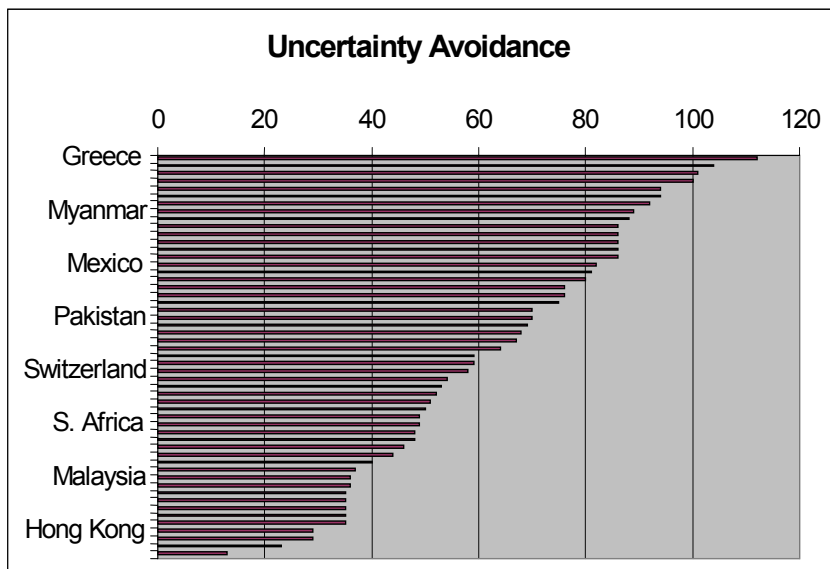
Myanmar MAS 24

Figure 3



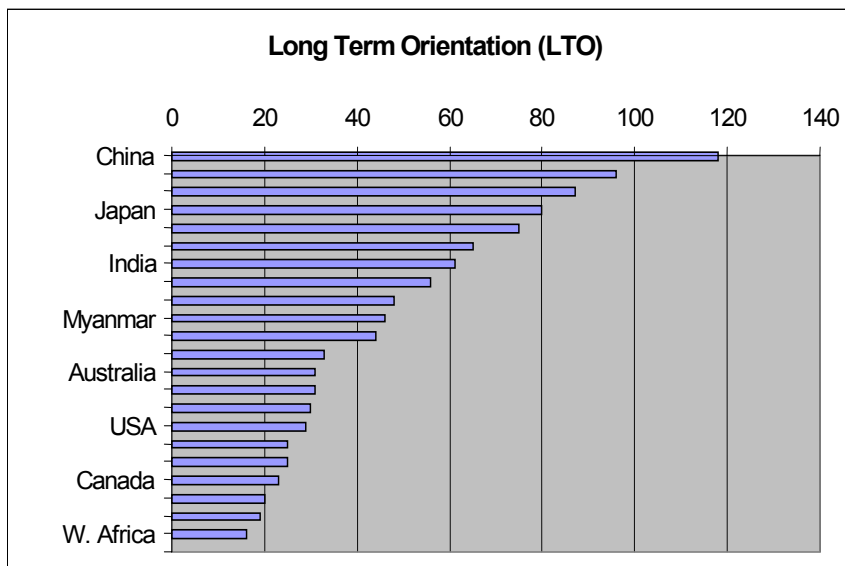
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Figure 4



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Figure 5



Myanmar LTO 46

MANAGING QUALITY OF LIFE IN COMMUNITIES: THEORY AND APPLICATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This paper posits that one experiences a sense of wellbeing (quality of life (QOL)) when the needs one feels are appreciably reduced. Local public officials and managers can promote policies and take actions to create an environment where these needs are addressed or the status is achieved. Based on an empirical analysis of quality of life perceptions among non-metropolitan residents in Illinois, this research offers guidelines for managing QOL perceptions at the community level. Specifically, satisfaction with K-12 education and basic medical services play a prominent role in influencing QOL perceptions. In summary, the paper not only highlights the meaning of QOL, but also shows how it could be managed.

INTRODUCTION

Elected officials and policymakers strive to find programs that improve the quality of life for the largest number of constituents (Michalos, 1978). For this reason they have a vested interest in monitoring measures that reflect the current conditions and perceived status of well-being of residents (Baker, 2003). Unfortunately, measuring and documenting quality of life has been an elusive concept. Nevertheless, without policies that generate or maintain an acceptable quality of life in an area, residents are more prone to leave an area which, in some instances, can trigger adverse economic conditions or limit future development.

A decade ago, Litcher *et al.* (1995) demonstrated the out-migration woes of rural communities. Specifically, their research demonstrated a causal link between quality of life perceptions and residents' decisions to move from the community. In general, research supports the view that lack of economic opportunities and less than ideal living conditions (QOL) have contributed to rural out-migration (Liao, 2000). This is in line with the prediction of economic theories of migration such as the cost-benefit models (Cebula & Vedder, 1973) that suggest resident's quality of life perceptions play a role in migration (see Cebula & Vedders' discussions about the "psychic advantages" of communities).

Half of all the non-metro counties lost population from 2000 to 2005 (Fluharty, 2007). Given such out-migration numbers it is no surprise that many, if not most, non-metro cities have

programs to attract and retain population (Hindi, 2007) and for this reason must be concerned about residents' attitudes regarding quality of life and programs that can improve these perceptions.

Early attempts to assess consumer well-being focused on objective indicators such as national income and other "material" measures such as housing and education (Bognar, 2005). Subjective measures such as life satisfaction were seen as less useful partly because it is difficult to find agreement on how to measure them (Sirgy *et al.* 2006).

Quality of life is affected by both material factors and perceptions of situations and events (Quality of life has been labeled as welfare by economists and philosophers, happiness or life satisfaction by sociologists, and subjective well being by psychologists (Bognar, 2005). In this paper, we employ the term quality of life to imply all of the above. This reasoning is in line with the business definition of the concept where the focus is on a combination of economic, social, and psychological indicators (see for example, http://www.bizjournals.com/edit_specal/41).). For instance, an individual may be exposed to objectively better employment, housing, etc. than other individuals in the community but may subjectively feel that quality of life is no better because of lack of social cohesion in the community.

This paper examines perceptual evaluations of quality of life (QOL). Drawing on theories such as the Burnswick's Lens model (Norman, 1969), we contend that what is important in quality of life evaluations is what is perceived, not necessarily what exists. Put another way, individuals choose to live in communities perceived to offer a certain quality of life (Gutman, 1982).

Section 2, sets forth the context of our research. Specifically, the relevance of examining QOL perceptions of non-metro residents is examined. This is followed by a discussion of the theoretical frameworks employed to explain and manage QOL perceptions. Section 4 outlines the study methodology with research results presented in Section 5. Section 6 discusses the implications of the study for public policy and Section 7 contains concluding thoughts.

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY: NON-METROPOLITAN COMMUNITIES

The US population has transformed from mainly rural living to an urban environment. For instance, in 1790, the US consisted of five urban regions with 10,000 or more people; approximately 80% of the 3.9 million residents lived in rural areas. In 1990, the reverse was true; 75% of the 248.7 million people lived in or near the 39 metropolitan areas with one million or more residents (Dahmann & Dacquel, 1992). Today, only 20% of the US population lives in non-metro areas (Government Accountability Office, 2006; Tarmann, 2003).

Social biologists and anthropologists claim that human nature is not well-suited for urban living; the theory is urban environment over stimulates perceptual functions and under-stimulates motor functions resulting in ill-health (Maddox, 1982); in reality, the need for economic well-being influences individuals to out-migrate from rural communities to urban locations (Dillman, 1979; Junming, 1997; Vennhoven, 1994). Support for the economic hypothesis of urban location is clear.

Table 1 shows life satisfaction in a sample of nations categorized as developed and developing. Life satisfaction scores of both rural and urban populations are presented. For purposes of analysis, rural was defined as a community with less than 10,000 inhabitants, and urban or large city as a community with 100,000 or more inhabitants. On average, life satisfaction does not differ among rural and big city residents in economically developed nations. On the other hand, life satisfaction is usually higher among large city residents in the developing nations.

	Average Life Satisfaction Score: 0 (Low) to 10 (High)	
	Rural	Large City
Developing Nations		
Brazil	4.3	5.2
India	3.6	4.2
Philippines	4.8	5.2
Sierra Leone	7	7.6
Developed Nations		
Austria	4.9	5
European Community	6.8	6.6
Netherlands	8.5	9
USA	6.1	6.1

Source: Adapted from Vennhoven (1994). Scores were derived from the World Database of Happiness (<http://worlddatabaseofhappiness.eur.nl/>)

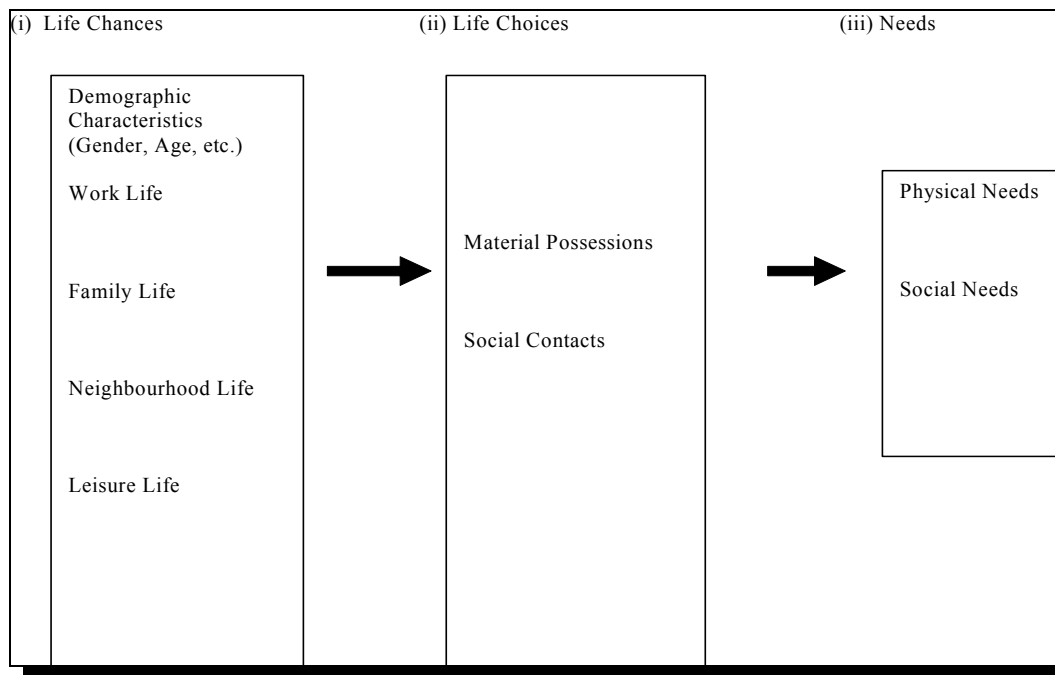
This is not to say that rural residents in the US have little or no social / economic gaps between themselves and their urban counterparts. In fact, compared to the urban areas, rural America exhibits lower wages and incomes, lower educational attainment, and higher unemployment and poverty rates (Rowley & Freshwater, 2001; Hindi, 2007). Perhaps rural Americans report comparable levels of life satisfaction as their urban counterparts because out-migration has made rural life sustainable at an “acceptable” standard of living (Gimpel & Karnes, 2006). A case in point is the community of Youngstown, Ohio. The city, since its peak as the third-largest steel producing city in the 1950s, has lost more than half of its population. The city coped with a population loss by shutting down power grids and closing streets. According to a report in the Wall Street Journal (2007), Youngstown demolished 400 crumbling vacant schools, houses, and churches in the last two years. The city hopes to enhance the quality of life of residents by turning vacant lots into parks.

Rowley and Freshwater (2001) posit that it is not the funding for rural areas that is lacking; in 2002-2004, 86 programs provided approximately \$200 billion in economic development funding for rural areas (GAO, 2006), but it is the “wrong-headed pork that is maintained via bureaucratic inertia and politics” (Rowley & Freshwater, 2001, p. 4). Put another way, QOL in rural areas could be enhanced linking funding relevant social / economic programs. The current research outlines a procedure that could help communities ink relevant programs to quality of life perceptions.

THEORETICAL MODELS

A theory often employed to assess welfare of individuals is based on preference satisfaction theory (Griffin, 1986). A basic principle of the theory is “need satisfaction”. Briefly, the theory argues that one experiences a sense of well-being when the needs one feels are appreciably reduced (Ardnt, 1981; Schuessler & Fisher, 1985; LaGory *et al.*, 2001; Meader *et al.*, 2006). As early as 1946, Weber theorized that “need-satisfaction”, and hence quality of life, is based on ‘life chances’ and ‘life choices’. Life chances pertain to physical and social circumstances such as residential and community environment, economic resources, and demographic characteristics. These combine with various life choices such as accepting and nurturing social support, to determine QOL. Figure 1 is a schematic representation of relationships among concepts. For expository purposes, only a few of the causal relationships among the elements of the scheme are indicated.

Figure 1: The Concept of QOL



The essence of the framework is that life chances provide the “arenas of action” through which need fulfillment occurs. For instance, work life provides opportunities to acquire material possessions in life (choice) and this in turn results in “physical” need fulfillment. Similarly, work life, family life, neighborhood life and leisure life facilitate social contacts which in turn fulfill social needs. It is essential to note that Weber’s concepts of life chances and choices are often inextricably related in everyday life. However, these scientific concepts do provide mechanisms for us to conceptualize and research QOL.

In scientific analysis, description of a phenomenon is often followed by an explanation of its relationships with other concepts (Carnap, 1946; Kerlinger, 1973). As applied to QOL research, a description about the QOL of residents in a community should be related to predictors of QOL such as resident satisfaction with housing conditions in the community (see the Life Chances concepts in Figure 1), and the effects of QOL such as moving out of the community. The question is how to theoretically link both the antecedents and the consequences of QOL and offer normative prescriptions about public policy in rural areas. A psychological theory called the “theory of reasoned action” (Fishbein, 1967) provides the answer.

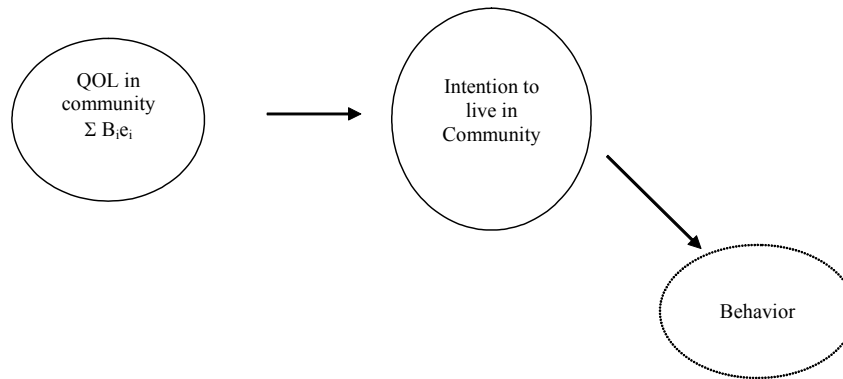
The major psychological concepts that can be used to explain residents’ decision to live in a community are beliefs, evaluation, and intention (Fishbein, 1967; Hogarth, 1988; Best, 2005). Briefly, an individual associates positive and negative characteristics about an act or behavior. Associated with each of these characteristics is an affective or emotional response. These responses combine linearly to form an assessment about performing the act. This theoretical framework can be expressed algebraically as (Ajzen, 1988):

$$\text{Assessment about performing the act} = \sum B_i e_i$$

where,

B_i = beliefs = the probability or improbability that an outcome is associated with the behavior;
 e_i = the goodness or badness of the belief; beliefs can be assumed to have “unit” importance in which case “assessment about performing the act” reduces to $\sum B_i$.

As applied to QOL research, the model states that a resident’s assessment of quality of life in a community includes one or more salient community characteristics, and beliefs regarding each characteristic. Note that the salient beliefs associated with the community and the affect or feeling attached to these beliefs: that is, the $B_i e_i$, combine additively to constitute “QOL assessment for the resident community” ($\sum B_i e_i$). The causal order of the variables is as follows. At the first level, one’s assessment of QOL in a community causes one’s behavioral intention to live in the community. At the second level, behavioral intention causes actual behavior (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Consequences of QOL

METHODOLOGY

Measures of QOL and their correlates were obtained from a sample survey of residents in non-metro Illinois. The Office of Management and Budget (1999) grouped Illinois into 28 metropolitan counties and 74 non-metropolitan counties (See <http://www.whitehouse.gov/omb/inforeg/msa-bull99-04.html.%20In%201999>). The target population includes all households in the non-metro counties. A simple random sampling procedure was employed to select 2000 households. The mail survey procedure used an “alert” postcard, followed by a first mailing of the questionnaire with a cover note requesting cooperation. Then a reminder postcard was sent followed by mailing a second questionnaire to those who did not complete and return the first.

Measures

Table 2 lists the operational definitions of concepts used in the study and examples of measures employed in the research (Carnap, 1946). While measures for concepts such as QOL and life chances are relatively straightforward, measures which deal with the correlates of QOL need justification for inclusion in the research. Specifically, in the following two sections, we provide the rationale for including variables given in Appendix 1 and 2.

Table 2: Measures Related to QOL		
Concept	Definition	Examples of Measures
Quality of life.	A general sense of well being. For policy development purposes, it is often categorized into community-specific QOL or public QOL and family-related QOL or private QOL.	During the past five years has the: 1. QOL in your community become.. In the next five years will the: 1. QOL in your community be.. Measured on a 5-step “Much Worse” to “Much Better” scale.
Life chances.	Individual’s physical and social circumstances. These include individual’s financial circumstances and personal characteristics such as gender, age and income.	Compared with a year ago is your financial situation today... Measured on a 5-step “Much Worse” to “Much Better” scale. Are you: Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female <input type="checkbox"/> In what year were you born? _____.
Allocational services*	Resident satisfaction with community services related to economically neutral areas such as police and fire.	...how satisfied are you with each of item below in your community? Law enforcement Solid waste disposal.... Measured on a 5-step “Very Dissatisfied” to “Very Satisfied” Scale.
Developmental services*	Resident satisfaction with services aimed at improving the community’s economic position.	...how satisfied are you with each of item below in your community? Retail shopping Entertainment..... Measured on a 5-step “Very Dissatisfied” to “Very Satisfied” Scale.
Issues relevant for the future of the community**.	Resident’s beliefs about issues that could affect the future of rural communities.	How much will each of the following issues affect the future of your community? Jobs that pay a living wage Small business closings Measured on a 3-step “Won’t Affect” to “Highly Affect” Scale.
<p>Note:</p> <p>*We use the terms allocational and developmental services to denote variables that are correlates of past QOL perceptions. See Appendix 1 for a list of measures.</p> <p>** Appendix 2 lists all the 14 items.</p>		

Predictors of QOL in the past five years

As Peterson aptly observed (1981), local governments are unable to manipulate in any significant way such contextual variables as air pollution, and scenic beauty. Hence, the focus is

on changeable variables such as “allocational”, and “developmental” variables (Nelson, 1999; Peterson, 1981). Allocational indicators include essential, but often economically neutral, services such as police, fire and sanitation. On the other hand, developmental services aim to improve the economic position of the community. Some examples of developmental variables include education, industrial parks, and roads.

In research on local governments in Alabama, Baker (2003) identified a set of 14 allocational and developmental variables considered essential for quality living. The list included items such as police, cable television, and public transportation (Baker, Table 5). The relevance of these variables for rural Illinois was assessed by an expert panel of academics affiliated with a publicly funded rural research center. While the expert panel retained most of the items highlighted in Baker’s (2003) study, the panel recommended including the following additional items in the questionnaire: head start programs, day care services, senior centers and services, basic medical care services, mental health services, retail shopping, restaurants, and entertainment (see Appendix 1 for a complete list of the 16 items).

Predictors of QOL in the next five years

In order to understand residents’ perceptions about QOL in the next five years, we relied on predictions from the “agenda-setting hypothesis” (McCombs & Shaw, 1972). The hypothesis asserts that expectations about future QOL in a community would be shaped by the socio-economic news about the community published in the popular press. Sohn (1981) has demonstrated the validity of the hypothesis for rural areas and across a wide range of socio-economic and demographic variables.

Independently, the marketing literature offers explanations about the robustness of future perceptions or judgmental forecasts by the general public. Specifically, it is now a well established fact that the general public can foretell short-term shifts in the nation’s economic growth rate (Linden, 1982). The theory is that while the average individual may not be a sophisticated processor of information about the economy, the individual responds to personal, day-to-day experiences. For instance, events such as unemployment in the community, hiring or lay-offs in local businesses shape an individual’s view about business and economic trends.

Based on findings such as the above, the predictors of future QOL perceptions were identified using content analysis procedures. The content analysis was implemented as follows:

1. First, a basic keyword search for “rural America” was conducted in the Regional Business News online data base (see <http://web.ebscohost.com/>). This process generated 86 articles or news items ranging from economic development (for example, Reisinger, 2007) to alcohol and drug abuse (van Gundy & Duncan, 2006).

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2. Next, the authors classified them into four categories as follows:
 - (i) Business: News materials related to functioning of businesses in rural areas. Specific materials include “business closings” (New Hampshire Business Review, 2006) and shortage of skilled labor (FDCH Regulatory Intelligence Database, 2002).
 - (ii) Community Facilities and Services: News related to services in the community such as: access to health care, services for senior citizens, quality of schools, and public safety (see for example, Foxman, 2007).
 - (iii) Population: Materials that deal with the residents of the community (Andres, 2006). For example, out migration from the community, and people moving into the community.
 - (iv) General Economy: Items pertaining to work, and other economic conditions of the community such as security of family farms (FDCH Regulatory Intelligence Database, 2001).

 3. Finally, a list of 14 issues that could affect the future of a rural community was developed.

These items were placed in a structured question and respondents were asked to state their perceptions about the severity of each issue for the future of their community (see Appendix 2 for a list of the 14 items).

Analysis Strategy

A two-stage approach is used to highlight the QOL perceptions in rural communities. The first stage relates to the structural properties or life chances variables beyond the control of an individual in the short term. These include physical and social circumstances such as gender, age, and perceived financial status of the individual. Thus, during the first stage of the analysis, we present QOL perceptions of male and female, people in different age groups (for instance, people born between 1949 and 1965) and people in different financial situations.

The second stage of the analysis explores the relationship between “perceptions related to QOL in the past five years” (criterion) and controllable variables (predictors; the B_i in the theory of reasoned action). In addition, we assess the correlation between “perceptions related to QOL in the next five years” (criterion), and “issues that could affect the future of the community” (explanatory variables).

Note that while the first stage of the analysis describes QOL in the community, the second stage explores policy implications for managing QOL.

RESULTS

The questionnaire yielded 640 usable responses. Most respondents were female (53%), aged between 35 and 65 years (55%), with a household income not exceeding \$50,000 (67%).

As mentioned earlier, the first stage of the analysis focused on ‘life chances’ indicators and their impact on QOL perceptions. Our objective is to test whether groups defined on life chance indicators possess different opinions about QOL in community than the typical or average respondent in the population; that is, compare average responses of the groups with the overall average QOL perceptions of all respondents. As shown in Table 3, the perceived financial status of the respondent impacts on her community QOL perceptions. In general, the better the financial status of a respondent, the better are the QOL perceptions. In addition, respondents born after 1965 exhibit positive QOL perceptions. Other life-chances groupings such as male and female do not show significant variations in quality of life perceptions.

Life Chance Variable	QOL in Community			
	Past 5 Years		Next 5 Years	
	Mean Score	z Value	Mean Score	z Value
Male	2.79	0.66	2.86	-0.33
Female	2.82	0.33	2.88	0.33
Born before 1949	2.79	0.66	2.85	-0.66
Born during 1949-1965	2.82	0.33	2.87	0
Born after 1965	2.87	2	3	4.33
Worse Financial Situation	2.52	-9.66	2.56	-10.33
Same Financial Situation	2.9	3	2.94	2.33
Better Financial Situation	2.99	6	3.12	8.33
Grand Mean (μ_0)	2.81		2.87	

Note: $z \geq |1.96|$ is significant at $p \leq .05$.

Having explored the differences in QOL perceptions among life-chances groupings, attention is now turned to issues relevant for managing QOL perceptions. What variables should be part of efforts to enhance community QOL perceptions? This question is addressed using a regression analysis involving the “QOL in community” variables, and the predictors given in Appendix 1 and 2.

Regression Analysis

The categorization of explanatory variables as allocational and developmental for analysis purposes masks the interrelationships between them. For instance, it is reasonable to expect law enforcement, an allocational variable, to impact on the “use of public transportation by the residents”, a developmental variable. Put another way, it is likely that QOL is determined by a number of interacting allocational and developmental variables.

A multiplicative model is an econometric specification that allows interactions at all levels of variables (Myers, 1990). Mathematically, the relationship between QOL and the predictors can be expressed as:

$$QOL = \beta_0 x_1^{\beta_1} x_2^{\beta_2} \dots x_n^{\beta_n} \quad \text{Formula (1)}$$

Note that

$$\frac{\partial QOL}{\partial x_1} = \beta_0 \beta_1 x_1^{\beta_1 - 1} x_2^{\beta_2} \dots x_n^{\beta_n} \quad \text{Formula (2)}$$

Since equation 2 can be written as:

$$\frac{\partial QOL}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\beta_1 QOL}{x_1} \quad \text{Formula (3)}$$

β_1 can be interpreted as:

$$\beta_1 = \eta_1 = \frac{\partial QOL}{\partial x_1} \times \frac{x_1}{QOL} \quad \text{Formula (4)}$$

In other words, $\beta_i = \eta_i$ is the elasticity of QOL with respect to variable x_i .

The model in equation 1 was linearized using log transformations. A Stochastic random disturbance term ϵ was added to the model to capture other influences on QOL perceptions. The final model in equation 5 was estimated for each of the life chance segments, for both the past and the future QOL perceptions, using the least squares criterion:

$$\ln QOL_{tg} = \ln \left[\hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{16} \hat{\beta}_i x_i + \sum_{j=1}^{14} \hat{\beta}_j x_j + \varepsilon \right] \quad \text{Formula (5)}$$

where,

t = {p, f}, where p = QOL in the past five years

f = QOL in the next five years

g = {a (male), b (female), c (born pre 1949), d (born during 1949-65), e (born after 1965)}

f (worse financial situation), g (same financial situation), h (better financial situation)

x_i = 1 to 16 allocational and developmental variables listed in Appendix 1

x_j = 1 to 14 “issues variables” listed in Appendix 2.

The results of the econometric analyses suggest that within the younger population, QOL perceptions depend on their beliefs about (i) health services in the community, and (ii) recreational facilities including restaurants in the community. For instance, a 1% increase in satisfaction with health services in the community will increase assessments about QOL in community by .83%. For people born between 1949 and 1965, satisfaction with K-12 education matters more. For instance, if they believe that the quality of schools has increased in the community, then their QOL perceptions about the community increases by a minimum of .42%. Regarding the elderly (people born before 1949), the availability of medical services in the community would enhance their QOL perceptions (Table 4).

Table 4 lists the significant predictors of QOL for each of the eight life chance segments. Note that while satisfaction with basic medical facilities and education influence QOL perceptions about the past five years, it is mainly crime-free living that determines QOL in the next five years.

Table 4: Determinants of QOL			
Determinants of QOL in the Past Five Years			
Segment	Reduced Form Model: Significant Variables	Variable Labels	Model Fit (R ²)
Male	$QOL = .687x_6^{.27} x_7^{.32}$	X ₆ : Library services	0.413
		X ₇ : Education (k-12)	
Female	$QOL = .516x_1^{.3} x_{12}^{.29}$	X ₁ : Housing	0.26
		X ₁₂ : Basic medical services	
Born before 1949	$QOL = .50x_5^{.22} x_7^{.22} x_{13}^{.25}$	X ₅ : Parks and recreation	0.32
		X ₇ : Education (k-12)	
		X ₁₃ : Mental health services	

Table 4: Determinants of QOL			
Determinants of QOL in the Past Five Years			
Segment	Reduced Form Model: Significant Variables	Variable Labels	Model Fit (R ²)
Born during 1949 to 1965	$QOL = .92x_5^{.28} x_7^{.42}$	X ₅ : Parks and recreation X ₇ : Education (k-12)	0.34
Born after 1965*	$QOL = .20x_3^{.34} x_5^{.51} x_7^{.37} x_8^{.41} x_{10}^{.45} x_{12}^{.83} x_{15}^{.25}$	X ₃ : Waste disposal X ₅ : Parks and recreation X ₇ : Education (k-12) X ₈ : Public transit X ₁₀ : Day care services X ₁₂ : Basic medical services X ₁₅ : Restaurants	0.89
Worse financial situation	$QOL = .888x_7^{.34} x_{10}^{.49}$	X ₇ : Education (k-12)	0.326
		X ₁₀ : Day care services	
Same financial situation	$QOL = .756x_7^{.13} x_{12}^{.14}$	X ₇ : Education (k-12)	0.205
		X ₁₀ : Day care services	
Better financial situation*	$QOL = -.55x_2^{.34} x_7^{.58} x_{12}^{.38}$	X ₂ : Streets	0.78
		X ₇ : Education (k-12)	
		X ₁₂ : Basic medical services	
Determinants of QOL in the Next Five Years			
Segment	Reduced Form Model: Significant Variables	Variable Labels	Model Fit (R ²)
Male	$QOL = .86x_3^{-.12} x_{10}^{-.13} x_{12}^{-.20}$	X ₃ : Crime	0.18
		X ₁₀ : Alcohol and drug abuse	
		X ₁₂ : Loss of high school graduates	
Female	$QOL = .913x_7^{-.25} x_{11}^{-.27}$	X ₇ : People leaving community	0.16
		X ₁₁ : Access to Healthcare	
Born before 1949	$QOL = .818x_3^{-.33} x_{10}^{-.22} x_{12}^{-.24}$	X ₃ : Crime	0.19
		X ₁₀ : Alcohol and drug abuse	
		X ₁₂ : Loss of high school graduates	
Born during 1949 to 1965	$QOL = .95x_8^{-.18}$	X ₈ : People moving into community	0.13
Born after 1965*	$QOL = 1.18x_6^{-.434} x_9^{-.47} x_{11}^{-.37}$	X ₆ : Shortage of skilled labor	0.38
		X ₉ : Decline in the quality of environment	

Table 4: Determinants of QOL			
Determinants of QOL in the Past Five Years			
Segment	Reduced Form Model: Significant Variables	Variable Labels	Model Fit (R ²)
		X ₁₁ : Access to healthcare	
Worse financial situation	$QOL = .676x_{11}^{-.27}$	X ₁₁ : Access to healthcare	0.27
Same financial situation	$QOL = .98x_3^{-.22}x_8^{-.32}$	X ₃ : Crime	0.3
		X ₈ : People moving into community	
Better financial situation*	$QOL = .91x_3^{.15}x_7^{-.12}x_8^{.15}x_{11}^{.13}$	X ₃ : Crime	0.38
		X ₇ : People leaving community	
		X ₈ : People moving into community	
		X ₁₁ : Access to healthcare	
Note: * Segment perceives a better QOL than the average resident (see Table 3)			

DISCUSSION

Quality of life is a forward-looking indicator of community success that measures how well residents will respond to community governance in the future. Other measures of community performance such as retail sales and taxation focus on past successes. They tell how well the community has done in the past, but not how well it will do in the future.

This paper highlights rural residents' perceptions about quality of life. Overall, the perception is that QOL in community is "average" (see Table 3, Grand Mean = 2.81 on a five-step scale).

For rural communities to compete in the new economy, it is crucial that they attract and retain population (Gradeck & Paytas, 2000). More recent work by Florida has documented the importance of local services and amenities in attracting certain population groups, especially the "Creative Class" (Florida, 2002). It is now a well established fact that businesses incorporate quality of life considerations into their investment decisions and choice of locations (Gorgemans, 2007). Presumably, this higher perceived quality of life, working through business investment also contributes to a more stable population and more stable local economy (Marsells *et al.*, 1997).

In its most basic sense, quality of life represents the ability of residents to meet needs or achieve a desired status. Local public officials and managers can promote policies and take actions to create an environment where these needs are addressed or the status is achieved. This research offers the following guidelines for managing QOL perceptions at the community level:

Education (K-12): A one percent increase in satisfaction perception about this feature will increase QOL scores by at least .22% or to a maximum of about 0.58%. The largest impact of this factor would be felt by the population that feels their financial situation remains stable.

Basic medical services: A one percent increase in satisfaction perception about this service will enhance QOL in community by an average of about .50%. The young age group, that is, people born after 1965, will respond most positively to enhancements to the service.

Parks and Recreation: A maximum of .51% increase in QOL will result if community perception about this benefit is enhanced by one percentage point. In fact, the service is felt essential for quality living by respondents in all age groups.

Crime free living: Another 0.12% to .33% gain in QOL can be obtained by minimizing the threat of crime in the community. This is especially relevant for the elderly population.

Alleviate the fear of shortage of skilled labor: A one unit increase in community perception about shortage of skilled labor could affect QOL negatively by as much as .43%.

Address the fear of little or no access to healthcare in the community: This is a concern for females, the young, and the economically disadvantaged. An additional .37% gain in QOL perceptions can be obtained by mitigating the fear of access to healthcare in the community.

Finally, it is interesting to note that people in their early 40s and mid 50s fear the threat of people moving into the community ($b_{x8} = -.18$). This fear could be based on the perception that new residents will compete for jobs in the area. On the other hand, people who believe that they are financially better off than the previous year, have the view that new residents to the community will enhance QOL ($b=.13$). Further research is required to verify this divergence in thinking.

CONCLUSION

Our conceptualization of quality of life is closely related to the “preference satisfaction theory” of welfare in philosophy. Philosophers posit that a person’s welfare or QOL is enhanced by the satisfaction of the preferences the person has. Since preferences are dictated by needs; for example, one prefers a certain type of automobile based on needs such as commuting to work or transporting children to school, etc., QOL is a consequence of attaining a state of need satisfaction. This theoretical position dictated how we measured QOL; it was an overall evaluation of one’s quality of life in various domains such as family, and community.

Results of a mail survey conducted among residents in non-metropolitan Illinois suggest that community services must be managed to enhance quality of life perceptions. Specifically, satisfaction with K-12 education and basic medical services play a prominent role in influencing QOL perceptions.

In conclusion, to evaluate quality of life in a community, we first must clarify quality of life. This paper has not only highlighted its meaning but has also shown how it could be managed.

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BUSINESS STUDENTS MUST HAVE CULTURAL ADAPTABILITY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine cross-cultural adaptability in a population of business communication students. The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) (Kelly & Meyers, 1995) is used to determine the cross-cultural adaptability of the students; it has proven effective in helping understand factors that may enhance cross-cultural adaptability effectiveness. The results from this study will provide educators with data that needs to be further examined for use in training, teaching, and developing a curriculum to better prepare students to work in a multicultural environment.

INTRODUCTION

The cultural demographics of today's workplace are drastically changing. Students as future global managers will have to work with various ethnicities. The presence of a world economy has forced individuals and groups representing various organizations, historically foreign to each other to conduct business (Montaglian and Giacalone, 1998, p. 10). As US companies become global entities and as the American workplace and American workers become increasingly multicultural, we face complex challenges in cross-cultural communication (Reynolds and Valentine, 2004, p. vii). Numerous authors (Kemper, 1998, Erlich, 2000, Gardenswartz & Rowe, 2001, Bovee & Thill, 2005, and Guffey, 2006) have expanded upon the changing workplace and the need for effective managers to adapt to different work styles and cultures. By 2010, minorities will account for half the U.S. population, and immigrants will account for half of all new U.S. workers (Bovee and Thill, 2005). Each of these groups brings to the workplace its own language and culture, defined by Ober (2003) "as the customary traits, personality, attitudes, and behaviors of a group of people" (p. 48). Every country has a unique culture or common heritage, joint experience, and shared learning that produce its culture (Guffey, 2006, p. 2). Comparing traditional North American values with those in other cultures will broaden a student's world view (Guffey, 2006, p. 12). Cultural diversity affects how business matters are conceived, planned, sent, received, and interpreted in the workplace (Bovee and Thill, 2005, p. 49). Astute business instructors who prepare their students for diversity in the workplace and cultural communication will be providing them with valuable information to achieve

success in the workplace. To echo Reynolds and Valentine (2004), on the need to understand preferences in communication styles by various cultures,

Unfortunately, our success rate working in this rich and demanding environment is not as high as it might be. Many instances of failure are caused not by inadequate management competencies or technical skills, but by lack of cultural sensitivity. Because the United States is geographically separate, Americans historically have been poor internationalists. We generally do not speak other languages (an indication that we don't take the international world seriously), and we often fail to recognize that people of other cultural backgrounds may have different goals, customs, thought patterns, management styles, and values. When we understand differences at all, we tend to be judgmental (p. viii).

Given these changing characteristics in the workplace, it is essential that students understand their own cultural adaptability and that of those with whom they may be working. Students who come to the workplace with an appreciation and knowledge of their own cultural adaptability will truly succeed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature supports the demonstrated need for future professionals to be culturally adaptable in the workplace. To be culturally adaptable, students must be able to communicate effectively in a culturally diverse environment whether it is for a domestic or international organization. O'Rourke (2005) stated that "the organizations which employ us and the businesses which depend on our skills now recognize that communication is at the center of what it means to be successful (p. viii). Learning how to manage intercultural conflict is an important part of the education of any business communicator (Guffey, 2003, p. 97). Pan, Scollon, and Scollon (2002) believe that that a really effective and practical approach to professional communication in international settings is to learn how to learn directly from the people with whom we need to interact. The ability of different cultures to communicate successfully in a business environment, to assimilate their cultures and conduct business, and to do this either within the United States or abroad is the emphasis of intercultural business communication (Chaney & Martin, 2004, p. 15). Our classrooms are full of students who want to know what they should study to function effectively in the global workplace; what skills employers will expect them to have; and how we, their teachers, can help prepare them for the enormous challenges of today's unpredictable, interdependent global economy (Lozar-Glenn, 2002, p 9). Business educators must adhere to the suggestions of these researchers. Having students prepared for the challenges of the global workplace should be paramount within their instruction and curriculum in business education. Ferrell and Hirt (2001) offer the benefits of fostering and valuing workforce diversity:

1. *More productive use of a company's human resources.*
2. *Reduced conflict among employees of different ethnicities, races, religions, and sexual orientations as they learn to respect each other's differences.*
3. *More productive working relationships among diverse employees as they learn more about and accept each other.*
4. *Increased commitment to and sharing of organizational goals among diverse employees at all organizational levels.*
5. *Increased innovation and creativity as diverse employees bring new, unique perspectives to decision-making and problem-solving tasks.*
6. *Increased ability to serve the needs of an increasingly diverse customer base* (p. 314).

Today's global workers should be aware of their cultural adaptability. The ability for students to compete in the global workforce would be to insure they are provided sound instruction on intercultural/communication skills. A positive step would be for students to understand their own cultural adaptability. Students who appreciate, value, and understand their own cultural adaptability will be well equipped with tools to interact and work in a culturally diverse workforce. To do this, students must have a parameter as to their own cultural adaptability. It was within this context the study was undertaken.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to examine cross-cultural adaptability in a population of business communication students. The first step in insuring success in the workplace will be the ability of students to assess their cultural adaptability. Educators in business can provide action plans for students to expand and develop their cultural adaptability. The results of this study will also provide information to aid business educators to stress the need for the continuing development of this adaptability. Having a more effective, more productive, less hostile, more open, and more dynamic workplace will be insured when business students as future employees have an understanding of cultural adaptability. The primary question guiding the study asked, Is there a difference in the cultural adaptability among business students?

METHODS

Testing Instrument

The CCAI, a training instrument designed to provide information to individuals about their potential for cross-cultural effectiveness, has been used effectively in a variety of populations. CCAI

assessment helps to measure cultural dimensions and provides information regarding an individual's potential for cross-cultural adaptability regardless of experience with and knowledge of another language or culture. This instrument is used in business, academia, and government. The CCAI assessment measures four areas: Emotional Resilience (ER), Flexibility/Openness (FO), Perceptual Acuity (PAC), and Personal Autonomy (PA). (Kelley & Meyers, 1995).

Study Population Demographics

Two hundred and ten students enrolled in business communication courses participated in the study. Of the 210 responses, 186 were usable. Of this number 87 were female and 99 were male representing six majors; ages of the students varied. The study site was at a public 4-year university located in northwest Pennsylvania in the college of business. The data in this descriptive study were collected using survey procedures as described by Dillman (1978).

Cultural Adaptability

The CCAI was not developed to predict success or failure in cross-cultural interaction. Instead, after learning about cross-cultural adaptability and examining their own assets and liabilities in this area, individuals who take the instrument can make decisions about their own readiness to interact with people from other cultures (Kelley & Meyers, 1995, p. 1). When students take the CCAI, they gain insight into their ability to adapt and change to working and living with different cultures. The CCAI provides students with a baseline of where their strengths and weaknesses lie; the astute business instructor will use this information to develop and hone needed skills and refine and promote possessed skills for success in the workplace.

Findings

The study sought to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between the business communication students and their cultural adaptability. It was cited that:

Emotional Resilience (ER)

The emotional resilience (ER) score measures the extent to which people like to interact with those from other cultures. This scale measures the negative emotional reactions individuals experience due to lack of familiar, culture-specific cues. People with a high ER are self-confident in new surroundings. According to Kelley and Meyers (1995), the scale can further be described as follows:

Some people feel frustrated, confused, or lonely when they interact with people from other cultures. The emotionally resilient person has the ability to deal with stressful

feelings in a constructive way and to bounce back from them. Emotionally resilient people like new experiences and have confidence in their ability to cope with ambiguity.

The ER scale focuses on aspects of the cross-cultural experience that may produce negative and unpleasant feelings. The ER score indicates the extent to which a person can regulate emotions, maintain emotional equilibrium in a new/changing environment, and deal with the setbacks and difficult feelings that are normal part of the cross-cultural experience (p. 13).

The target score is between 77 and 81 and was obtained by 22.6% (42 students). The majority (45.7%, 85 students) scored above 81 with the remaining 31.7% (59 students) scoring below 77. As stated earlier people with high ER scores, which relates to 45% of participants, can regulate their emotions, maintain emotional equilibrium in a new or changing environment, and deal with the setbacks and difficult feelings that are a normal part of the cross-cultural experience. Because nearly 30% fell below the average, this suggests that the business educator could focus on improvement in this area.

Flexibility/Openness (FO)

The items on the flexibility/openness (FO) scale deal with responses to people, situations, and experiences that are different from those that one normally encounters. People with a high FO score are interested in learning and adapting to a new culture. Kelley and Meyers (1995) further described this scale:

When people live or work with people from other cultures, they usually encounter ways of thinking and behaving that are different from their own. Open, flexible people enjoy interacting with people who think differently from themselves. They like and feel comfortable with all kinds of people. They are tolerant and nonjudgmental, and they tend to think creatively. People who are open and flexible tend to be nonjudgmental and tolerant of people who are different from them. Moreover, they expect to like these people. They are inquisitive, and they enjoy diversity. Open, flexible people are comfortable with those who are different from them and do not feel lonely around such people. At the same time, they can enjoy spending time alone in unfamiliar surroundings” (p. 14).

The target score is between 65 and 69 and was obtained by 25.8%, or 48 students. Another 51.1% (95 students) scored below 65 with the remaining 23.1% (43 students) scoring above 69.

Over 50% of the students ranked low on FO which indicates they do not exhibit a positive attitude when experiencing the unfamiliar.

Personal Autonomy

The personal autonomy (PA) scale measures the extent to which an individual has evolved a personal system of values and beliefs that he or she feels confident enough about to act on in unfamiliar settings. Kelley and Meyers further explain this as follows:

People who interact with people from other cultures may not get the reactions and reinforcement they are accustomed to. Personally autonomous people are not overly dependent on cues from the environment for their identity. They have a strong sense of who they are, clear personal values, and respect for themselves and others. They tend to be self-directed, and they enjoy making their own decisions.

When individuals encounter a new culture, the surroundings (e.g., the people, daily activities, customs, and values) do not provide the same kinds of external reinforcement that their native culture provides. People who have become overly dependent on these cues for their sense of identity (sometimes called context-dependent) may begin to feel like “non-persons” in the new culture or they may become defensive in an effort to maintain some sense of self. However, individuals who have developed strong internal means of reinforcing their identity can maintain a sense of self that is independent of the environment, and they can eventually feel at home in any culture (p. 16-17).

The target score is between 31 and 33 and was obtained by 33.3% (62 students). A score above 33 was received by 49.5% (92 students) with the remaining 17.2% (32 students) scoring below 31. These are more positive findings and suggest that students have developed a personal system of values and beliefs that enables them to function effectively in a cross-cultural environment. This is confirmed by the fact that 50% of the students scored above target.

Perceptual Acuity (PAC)

The perceptual acuity (PAC) scale reveals how sensitive to verbal and nonverbal cues an individual is when interacting with people who are different from oneself, and how they interpret those cues in the context of the others’ cultures. The PAC scale measures the extent to which one pays attention to and accurately perceives various aspects of his or her environment. People with a high PAC score will be able to easily learn and interpret the gestures and body language of different cultures. According to Kelley and Meyers (1995) this scale explains that:

People sometimes find it difficult to communicate with people from other cultures because of unfamiliar or confusing language (verbal and nonverbal), values, assumptions, and customs. People who are perceptually acute are attentive to verbal and nonverbal behavior, to the context of communication, and to interpersonal relations. They tend to be empathic and highly accurate communicators. Verbal language is a cultural barrier, and even nonverbal cues do not always mean the same thing in different cultures. In addition, there is a difference in communication styles across cultures. Some cultures emphasize words as the primary communication mode, whereas other cultures emphasize nonverbal cues and the interpersonal context that accompanies the message. Visual attention to detail, sensitivity to subtlety and nuance, and awareness of interpersonal cues help bridge the communication gap. Without perceptual acuity, cross-cultural communication is easily misinterpreted and distorted (p.15-16).

The target score is between 45 and 47 with only 16.7% (31 students) obtaining this score. Another 48.9% (91 students) scored below 45 while 34.4% (62 students) scored above 47. As Kelley and Meyers (1995) stated, perceptual acuity is associated with confidence in one's ability to accurately perceive the feelings of others. It is also associated with valuing other cultures and being willing to suspend judgment of others. The authors state that the PAC scale items assess the extent to which a person pays attention to and accurately perceives various aspects of the environment. Possessing cultural empathy would be a key component of success in effective cross-cultural performance. These findings indicate that participants were not sensitive to verbal and nonverbal cues when interacting with individuals from other cultures.

Teaching Strategies

The CCAI was designed to provide students with an overview of their strengths and weaknesses relating to cross-cultural interactions. Once students receive their scores, it becomes the function of the business instructor to help students develop, sharpen and improve requisite skills.

A variety of methods have been developed to assist instructors in teaching effective interaction strategies; they vary in student outcome, length of class time required, and amount of student participation. The discussion will focus on several of these strategies developed by Henrichen (1997) and AbiSamra (2001).

A culture capsule is one of the best-known and established methods for teaching culture. A culture capsule consists of a brief explanation of one essential aspect of the target culture followed by contrasting information from the student's native culture. The capsule is usually presented by the teacher using illustrative photos and/or relevant media. Students provide the contrasts.

A culture cluster is a group of three or more illustrated culture capsules on related themes/topics presented by a student or a group of students. Presentation techniques can include a simulation or a skit developed by the students.

The culture assimilator consists of short (usually written) descriptions of an incident or situation where interaction takes place between at least one person from the target culture and persons from other cultures. The description is followed by four possible choices about the meaning of the behavior, action, or words of the participants in the interaction with emphasis on the behavior, actions, or words of the target culture. Students read the description and choose the option they feel is the correct interpretation of the interaction. Once all students have made their choices, the teacher leads a discussion about why particular options are correct or incorrect in interpretation.

A cultoon is a visual culture assimilator. Students are given a series of pictures depicting points of surprise or possible misunderstanding for persons coming into the target culture. The situations are also described verbally by the teacher or the students. Students may be asked if they think the reactions of the characters in the cultoons seem appropriate or not. After the misunderstandings or surprises are clearly in mind, the students read explanations of what was happening and why there was misunderstanding.

Critical incidents are descriptions of incidents or situations which require the participant make a decision. Students read the incident independently and make individual decisions about what they would do. Students are then grouped to discuss their decisions and rationale. Finally, all groups discuss their decisions and rationale. Students are given the opportunity to see how their decision and reasoning compare and contrast with the decisions and reasoning of others.

Audio–motor units consist of verbal instructions for actions which the students carry out. They work very well for any cultural routine which requires physical actions including dining, shaking hands, and listening actively.

Photos, slide presentations, and/or videos are examples of media used to teach culture. Typically, the teacher presents the visual with an explanation including what it means in terms of the target culture. Many aspects of culture, such as appropriate dress, business meetings and gift giving can be effectively presented with such visuals.

Teaching techniques based on experiential learning are also being investigated as a means to increase students' cultural adaptability in the areas of emotional resilience, flexibility/openness, and perceptual acuity. Experiential learning is a means of learning through experience whereby there is an integration of knowledge and doing in which both are repeatedly transformed (Majumdar cited in Majumdar, Keystone, & Cuttress, 1999). These techniques have been shown to increase cultural adaptability in medical students preparing to practice—a group in which cultural sensitivity and communication is critical to patient outcomes (Majumdar, Keystone, & Cuttress, 1999). These same techniques can be applied to students preparing to enter today's global workforce.

Examples include (1) placing students in business situations that encourage them to examine their own cultural values as well as the cultural values of the person(s) they are dealing with and

having others observe these interactions and provide feedback; (2) having students view and discuss videos that demonstrate situations where culture impacts communication and behavior patterns in business situations; (3) pairing students from different countries and having them interview their partner focusing on the cultural differences that have impacted them the most during their adaptation. Teachers can incorporate the strategy or strategies that best meet the needs of their students. The important component is that teachers work with their students to improve adaptability.

CONCLUSIONS

Faculty should continue to teach students to make informed decisions, exhibit positive behaviors, and demonstrate appropriate skills and attitudes necessary for success in a culturally diverse workplace. This will lead to improved productivity, increased morale, and enhanced efficiency in the workplace. Business communication students should possess a skill set that includes knowledge of intercultural skills, abilities, aptitudes, and competencies; thus preparing them for upward mobility and promotion in our culturally diverse domestic and international environments. Indeed this is the reason students must have cultural adaptability.

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

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ABSTRACT

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

INTRODUCTION

Research on Work-Family Conflicts (WFC) is not new in OB literature. Interest in the work-family interface has produced an impressive mass of research especially integrating work and family research. Work and family represent two important domains of any individual. The bi-directional nature of WFC i.e., work interfering with family versus family interfering with work, has been receiving increasing attention because: both add to stress, both are related to job satisfaction (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Extant research suggests that both job stress and family stress are interdependent and interacting (Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992).

Work interfering with family is WIF conflict and family interfering with work is known as FIW conflict. Despite this conceptual distinction, most of the research is skewed towards the former. It is now commonly acknowledged that work and family are not mutually exclusive domains which do influence each other. In his seminal paper Kanter (1977) pointed out that while work certainly affects family life, the opposite is also true. Kanter (1977) concluded that "family situations can define work orientations, motivations, abilities, emotional energy, and the demands people bring to the workplace (1977: 56-57). Available research evidence suggests that the experience of WIF conflict was reported almost three times more frequently than the experience of FIW conflict among both genders (Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1991; Gutek et al, 1991).

Though research on work family conflicts has been so far impressive, the focus of research has been progressing in two different directions. One stream of research concentrated exclusively on the identification of antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict in terms of psychological distress (Frone et al, 1992). Another stream focused on the relationship between work family conflicts and job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Adams, King & King, 1996). For instance Frone et al (1992) have limited their study to the examination of impact on work-family conflicts on psychological distress. Similarly, the Adams et al (1996) attempted to establish partial link to job and life satisfaction, but psychological stress has been ignored in their model. There has been little effort to integrate the previous models which may contribute to a more clear understanding of the process of work-family conflicts and their relationships to job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Furthermore, very few studies have concentrated on the organizational support programs which are receiving increasing attention (Frone & Yardley, 1994). Though several studies highlighted the importance of social support in reducing the work-family conflicts, little effort has been made to see the impact of conflicts on the social support that can be provided by individuals (Jackson et al, 1985; Beehr & McGrath, 1992). For example, a person experiencing stress may display a tendency to withdraw from potentially supportive people and may eventually develop a discord within their family life and therefore would not provide social support to the rest of the members of the family. When members are unable to provide social support to the rest of the family, this may further aggravate the family-work conflict.

The purpose of the present study is to provide an integrating model of work-family conflict Adams et al (1996) studied the importance of social support in work-family conflict whereas the Frone et al (1992) model focused on the stress outcomes of work-family interface. Quite understandably, work-family conflict and family social support are likely to have relationship with psychological stress and also affect job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Family interfering with work was negatively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction (Wiley, 1987; Adams et al, 1996).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES

Work-family conflicts, stress and social support

The link between social relationships, social support and long-term health consequences has been empirically established (Cohen,1988; Cohen & Wills, 1985; Kiecolt-Glaser & Glaser,1989). The relationship between social support and physiological processes and the underlying mechanisms and implications for health have been examined by some researchers (Uchino, Cacioppo, Kiecolt Glaser, 1996). Extant literature suggests that social support comes in four forms – emotional, instrumental, informational, and appraisal (House, 1981). Though one's spouse may be the key source of emotional support, it is the supervisor who provides much informational and appraisal

support at work. The seminal reviews by Cassell (1976) and Cobb (1976) have revealed the importance of social relationships for health. The association between social support and various physical health outcomes (such as coronary heart disease, cancer, and infectious illness) has been interesting (Cassell, 1976). Researchers point out that there are several multiple physiological pathways by which social support will influence disease states (Cassell, 1976). For instance, higher social support is associated with better cardiovascular regulation i.e. lower blood pressure (Dressler, 1980; Winbust, Marcelissen, & Kleber, 1982; Uden, Orth-Gomer & Eloffsen, 1991). Social support is thought and conceptualized as multidimensional construct and specific dimensions of social support may be more effective when they meet the demands of related stressors (Cohen & McKay, 1984; Cutrona & Russell, 1990). Research demonstrated that examination of specific dimensions of social support may suggest more precise mechanisms through which social support influences health (Uchino, Cacioppo, Malarkey, Glaser & Kiecolt-Glaser, 1995).

Organizational support programs: Flextime

The workplace is, more frequently than not, invading employees' private lives and therefore employers devise ways and means of offering workplace family-supportive programs such as flextime, child care assistance thereby mitigating the effect of work-family conflict on organizational responsibilities (Frone & Yardley, 1994). Some attempts are also in the direction of changing the corporate culture so that employees feel comfortable taking advantage of available resources (Friedman, 1990; Starrels, 1992). Both organizations and employees find it convenient to move away from rigid time schedules, if aimed at achieving efficiency rather than following the letter perfect rules, flextime is one of the techniques being followed. The flexible work schedule is considered as an organizational prevention method aiming at allowing employees to accommodate the total set of demands in their professional as well personal lives (Nelson & Hitt, 1992). The concept of flextime is not new as one can find it way back in Hawthorne studies during 1920s and 1930s, flextime and flexible working hours (Ronen, 1981) are extended to telecommuting these days (Caudron, 1990). Flexible work schedules afford employees the discretionary control to balance work and home demands according to the circumstances that dictate and the individuals will become attentive to both needs and demands. Flexible work schedules can improve the individual organization exchange, increase the individual's discretion in managing personal stress demands, and dissipate some of the cumulative effects of stress while improving performance at work, provided that individual is highly responsible and matured. Flextime attempts to reduce the work-family conflicts to a greater extent because the participants can maintain a positive family-and work-related self-image. People devote considerable time and energy to constructing and maintaining desired identities (identity theory) (Burke, 1991; Schlenker, 1987). People are threatened when their self-images are damaged by the impediments to self-identifying activities. Work-family conflicts act as an impediment to successfully meeting the work-family demands and responsibilities and thereby

undermining a person's ability to construct and maintain a positive family-related self-image. At the same time, family-work conflict may pose a serious threat to meet work-related demands and responsibilities, thereby undermining a person's ability to construct and maintain a positive work-related self-image. Flextime enables the organizational participants to manage the time balancing the demands of both work and family depending on their convenience and schedule. Thus, the frequency of experiencing both types of work-family conflicts could be reduced significantly, thereby reducing the deleterious health-related outcomes.

Relationship of work-family conflicts with job and life satisfaction

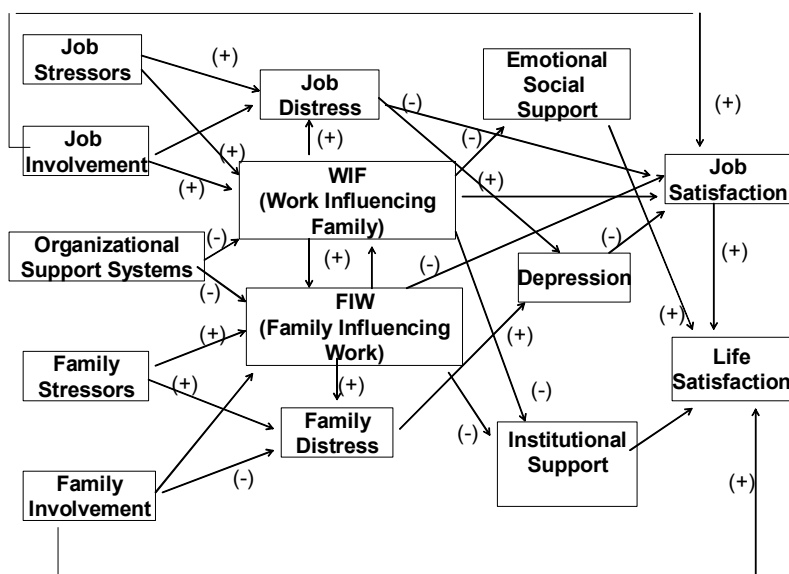
Several researchers have examined the impact of work-family and family-work conflicts on psychological stress and more or less there are unanimity in the direction and as well as effect of these conflicts on stress. What is more important is the impact of these on job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Life satisfaction is a very broad and comprehensive construct and it is really impossible to compress all the ingredients of life satisfaction into a single study. However, the role of work-family conflicts on life satisfaction as well as job satisfaction can be examined. An attempt is made in this direction by Adams et al (1996). Some earlier research support comes from Wiley (1987) who examined the family interfering with work and its effect on job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and organizational commitment. It would also be interesting to see the effect of these conflicts in presence of social support mechanism.

DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES

In an attempt to explain the impact of work-family conflict interface on job and life satisfaction through its influence on psychological stress, a comprehensive integrative model of work-family conflict is developed. The proposed model is also considered as an extension of several previous models (Bedian, Burke & Moffett, 1988; Burke, 1988; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986; Kopelman, Greenhaus & Connolly, 1983; Frone, Russell & Cooper 1992; Adams, King & King 1996). Fig 1 presents the overview of the proposed integrated model and related hypotheses.

The direct predictors of WIF and FIW conflicts (job stressors, family stressors, job involvement, and family involvement), emotional support from family, instrumental support from family, the direct predictors of job distress and family distress can be found in the figure. Further the model links the work interfering with family and family interfering with work to job satisfaction and then to life satisfaction. The hypothesized relationships with suggested direction of influence of variables are presented in the figure.

Figure 1. Conceptual Model



Work-family conflicts are bi-directional in nature

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) made an explicit distinction between work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with work (FIW). It is important to recognize the bi-directional nature of work-family conflicts and failing to examine both types of work family conflicts may limit the understanding of the work-family interface because each of these is associated with different antecedents and consequences (Frone, et al, 1992). A positive reciprocal relationship was therefore hypothesized and empirically supported as the path coefficients were significant in Frone et al's study (1992). The logic of having reciprocal relationship stems from the fact that if the work-related problems affect the person's family accomplishments then it is also expected that the unfulfilled family responsibilities may also affect the person at work. At the same time, if a person is not able to fulfil the responsibilities at work because of family-related problems, then these unfulfilled work obligations are expected to affect his day-to-day functioning at home. Consistent with the prior research work (Schaubroeck, 1990), we propose the following hypotheses:

H1a: Work interfering with family conflicts will positively affect the family interfering work conflicts.

H1b: Family interfering with work conflicts will positively affect the work interfering with family conflicts.

Job Stressors and Family Stressors

The antecedents of WIF and FIW have been examined in literature (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Frone, Russell & Cooper 1992) and these include job stressors, family stressors, job involvement and family involvement. While job stressors and job involvement are the antecedents of WIF the family involvement and family stressors are the antecedents of FIW conflicts. Thus the identification of domain-specific antecedents clearly compartmentalizes the issue conveniently stating the exposure of an individual to stressor in a given domain (say, family) would result in limiting his ability and attention to address the demands of the other domain (i.e. work). For example, job stressors would act as constraint to the ability of an individual to address the family related responsibilities and hence would affect the work-family conflicts. At the same time, the family stressors would not permit the individual to address the responsibilities at work and hence would influence the family influencing work conflicts. Based on Frone et al (1992), Greenhaus & Beutell (1985) we propose the following hypotheses:

H2a: Job stressors are positively related to WIF conflicts.

H2b: Family stressors are positively related to FIW conflicts.

Job involvement and Family Involvement

The importance attached to work and family roles by an individual is another antecedent of these work family conflicts. Higher job involvement is predicted to affect the work influencing family conflicts and by the same token a more psychological involvement of an individual in his family is predicted to affect his family influencing the work conflicts. Higher involvement in job requires more time and effort of an individual and this explains why he would have less time at his disposal to address the problems arising from home. Because of his preoccupation with the job involvement, an individual may not have adequate resources to focus on the family. Previous research also suggests (and supports) the positive relationship between job involvement of an individual and work interfering with family conflicts (Beutell & O'Hare, 1987; Frone & Rice 1987; Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz & Beutell, 1989; Wley, 1987; Frone, Russell & Cooper 1992). There was initially some indirect support for the psychological involvement of an individual with the family and its affect on family interfering with work conflict from Gutek, Searle & Kelpa (1991) and direct support from Frone, Russell & Cooper (1992). In a study by Adams et al (1996) it was found that the path coefficients between job involvement and WIF, family involvement and FIW were 0.27 and 0.15 respectively, both significant, thus supporting the rationale. Intuitively, when organizations provide programs such as flextime, employees find comfortable because the employees feel relaxed to attend to both work

responsibilities in organizations and also to fulfil the duties at home. Whenever they find work interfering with family, they schedule the working hours in such a way that it would not conflict with family duties. For instance, if employee has to drop off his or her son at school at 1.00 pm and has to bring his or her son back from school at 3.00 pm, then on those certain specific days he or she can reschedule the duties of work so that it would not interfere with the family responsibilities. Organizations create an option of flextime, whether the employees use them or not, and keeping this option open would make employees comfortable because they can utilize this option to reduce the work family conflicts. Further, research on organizational support programs (such as flextime) suggests that these programs have a tendency to reduce the work interfering with family conflicts (Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Christensen & Staines, 1990; Osterman, 1995). Therefore, based on above arguments, we propose the following hypotheses:

H3a: Job involvement is positively related to WIF conflict.

H3b: Family involvement is positively related to FIW conflict.

H3c: Organizational support programs (flextime) are negatively related to WIF Conflict.

H3d: Organizational support programs (flextime) are negatively related to FIW Conflict.

Job distress and family distress

The influence of work-family conflicts on distress cannot be ignored in studying the relationship between job satisfaction and work-family conflicts. This is because work-family conflicts result in distress which in turn influences job satisfaction. It is *self-explanatory* that job stressors influence job distress whereas family stressors affect family distress, following the logic domain specific stressors. Previous research lends support for this argument (Frone et al, 1992) and therefore the following hypotheses are advanced:

H4a: Job stressors are positively related to job distress.

H4b: Family stressors are positively related to family distress.

The job involvement of an individual is another important antecedent of work interfering with family conflict. But as long as individual is engaged in task seriously this is also going to have its effect on job stress. An individual feels less distressed at job following involvement on job. At

the same time, family involvement of an individual would go in favor of that individual in reducing the family distress. The negative relationship between job involvement and job distress, and family involvement and family distress is heavily based on both conceptual and empirical findings from a several researches (Weiner, Muczyk & Gable, 1987; Winter & Vardi, 1980; Sekaran, 1989) and therefore the following hypotheses are advanced:

H5a: Job involvement is negatively related to job distress

H5b: Family involvement is negatively related to family distress.

With regard to WIF and FIW and their relationship with family distress and job distress, it can be observed that when an individual is experiencing work interfering with family conflict, this is expected to have a direct relation with family distress. This is particularly because the individual will have time just to concentrate on work and the interference of family in that process would not allow him to concentrate on family related responsibilities. As a result the family distress is expected to mount up. By the same token, an individual caught up in the family interfering with work conflict, the family demands are so alarming that he would find little time to accomplish his job demands and requirements thereby adding to distress on the job. Individual struggling himself on that particular role (i.e. family) would prohibit him to comply with job demands resulting in job distress. Previous research also supports this rationale (Frone et al, 1992) and hence the following can be hypothesized:

H6a: FIW conflicts are positively related to job distress.

H6b: WIF conflicts are positively related to family distress

Depression (overall psychological distress)

Depression in the present model represents overall psychological distress an individual experiences in life. Both WIF and FIW, in addition to job distress and family distress, would have profound effect on depression. Though research by Frone et al has provided strong support for association between FIW and Depression and a weak (and non-significant) association between WIF and depression, it is expected, following the additive models, that WIF and FIW directly and indirectly through job distress and family distress, might effect depression (Bedeian et al, 1988; Coverman, 1989; Kandel et al, 1985; Frone et al, 1992). Further, Burke (1988) found that a higher level of work interfering with family was related to more psychological burnout in his sample of nurses and engineers. Work interfering with family also was positively related to depression in yet

another study by Thomas and Ganster (1995). Based on the above empirical support the following can be hypothesized:

H7a: WIF conflicts are positively related to depression.

H7b: FIW conflicts are positively related to depression.

H7c: Job distress is positively related to depression.

H7d: Family distress is positively related to depression.

Social support

Though various forms of social support identified by House (1981) were emotional, appraisal, informational, and instrumental, there is a growing consensus that emotional and instrumental support plays a vital role in regard to work-family conflicts (Beehr & McGrath, 1992; Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, & Pinnaue, 1975; McIntosh, 1991, Kaufmann & Beehr, 1986). Beehr (1995) noted that social support from work-related sources is more important in occupational stress than the non-work related sources, some researchers (Kahn & Byosiere, 1991; LaRocco, House & French, 1980) contend that non-work sources of social support i.e. support from family members is also very important. More precisely, the family members have the first opportunity for providing both emotional and instrumental support to individuals outside the work-environment. When an individual is caught up in work-interfering with family conflict, then it is not possible for him to provide both emotional and instrumental support and this may have a direct impact on family interfering with work conflict. As suggested by Jackson et al (1985) “when negative effects of the employees’ jobs reach family, families may find it difficult to be supportive” (p.584). Research also amply demonstrated that an individual experiencing stress may exhibit a tendency of withdrawing from potentially supportive people and also would not be willing to provide support (Beehr and McGrath, 1992). Following Beehr (1995) and Adams, King and King (1996) that higher job involvement may lead to WIF thereby restricting the level of emotional and instrumental support to be provided to family members, the following can be hypothesized:

H8a: WIF conflict is negatively related to emotional social support.

H8b: WIF conflict is negatively related to instrumental social support.

H8c: Emotional social support is negatively related to FIW conflicts.

H8d: Instrumental social support is negatively related to FIW conflicts.

Job satisfaction and Life Satisfaction

One of the outcomes of work-family conflicts is job satisfaction, which would eventually affect life satisfaction. Wiley (1987) demonstrated that family interfering with work was negatively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction in a sample of employed graduate students. Burke (1988) noted that a higher level of work interfering with family was related to more psychological burnout and alienation and less job satisfaction in his sample of police officers. Thus both WIF conflicts and FIW conflicts are negatively related to job satisfaction. Corroborating the same view, Bacharach et al (1991) found that work interfering with family was significantly related to burnout, which then was related to lower job satisfaction for both a sample of engineers and sample of nurses. A study by Thomas and Ganster (1995) also suggests that work interfering with family was negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to depression and health complaints. Based on the above, it can be hypothesized thus:

H9a: Job distress is negatively related to job satisfaction.

H9b: WIF conflicts are negatively related to job satisfaction.

H9c: FIW conflicts are negatively related to job satisfaction.

H9d: Depression is negatively related to job satisfaction.

H9e: Job involvement is positively related to job satisfaction.

Along the similar lines of job involvement leading to job satisfaction, family involvement greatly affects the family satisfaction and hence life satisfaction. Higgins et al (1992) reported that work interfering with family was related to lower quality of family life which, in turn, is related to lower levels of life satisfaction among workers. Adams et al (1996) also found that work interfering with family is negatively related to life satisfaction and the path coefficient was 0.15 and significant. Further Adams et al (1996) found that social support (emotional) was positively related to life satisfaction (path coefficient was 0.27 and significant) whereas the instrumental support was not significant though positively related to life satisfaction. The link between job satisfaction and life satisfaction has been established by some researchers (Tait, Padgett, and Baldwin: 1989) and some report a highly positive relationship between these two constructs (Judge and Watanabe,1993). Based on the above arguments, we propose the following hypotheses:

H10a: Job satisfaction is positively related to life satisfaction.

H10b: Family social support (emotional) is positively related to life satisfaction.

H10c: Family social support (instrumental) is positively related to life satisfaction.

H10d: Family involvement is positively related to life satisfaction.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Work family conflict literature is rich as of today. However, there are several gray areas where research can be directed. First, apart from psychological stress, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction, other outcome variables can be studied which might be directly or indirectly impacted by work-family conflicts. These are commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, turnover and absenteeism, organizational satisfaction. Instead of developing relatively incomplete models, it is suggested to incorporate as many variables (both antecedents and consequences) as possible in any study of work-family interface to enrich the understanding the dynamics of work-family conflicts.

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THE EFFECTS OF GLOBAL STRATEGY ON LOCAL IT MANAGER AND IT MANAGEMENT: FOCUS ON FACTORS AFFECTING CONFLICTS

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ABSTRACT

Utilizing information and communication technologies (ICT), business activities have become increasingly dispersed and complicated. On the other hand, it is also important to design and implement a corporate strategy that is congruent with firm's overall goal. Hence, a rising issue is challenging nowadays international companies in the sense of balancing between standardized and locally motivated strategies. In IT management, such issue is even more obvious as the globalization phenomenon evolves. This article thereby provides a case study that aims to explain such conflict and suggests theoretical and practical perspectives in generating solutions. The focus lies in the coordination between headquarter firm and local firms regarding IT management practices.

INTRODUCTION

Globalization has generated an enormous effect on management disciplines (Ford, Connelly, and Meister, 2003). As the geographical dispersion of company's activities is growing, the work process has not been confined to specific location and the projects have employed the multinational, interdisciplinary, and multi-organizational partnership to overcome the inefficiency due to the dispersion (Horwitz, Bravington, and Silvis, 2006; Chinowsky and Rojas, 2003). As firms activities are expanding to different countries, there is a growing consensus that a central issue is to find strategy which is congruent with the firm's long term goal (Monks, Scullion, and Creaner, 2001). Multi-domestic and globally integrated firms have distinctive practices and policies in terms of corporate strategy. A multi-domestic strategy emphasizes the uniqueness and independence of each subsidiary of a firm and the activities of a subsidiary do not affect those of other subsidiaries. Business functions or subunits have very weak connection and interdependence across the multinational enterprises (MNEs) (Porter, 1986; Taylor, Beechler, and Napier, 1996). Global strategy, on the other hand, attempts to develop competitive advantage of one subunit or subsidiary, which can be applied to other subunits or subsidiaries (Ohmae, 1990; Edström and Galbraith, 1977).

The environments of the subsidiaries are supposed to be similar in terms of technology, political and economic environment, and consumer behaviors such as needs, tastes, and preferences (Ohmae, 1990). Both strategies, however, commonly accentuate that all business disciplines are administered by strategy adapted to achieve the goal on macro level. It is no wonder that implementation of information technology (IT) is strongly affected by such strategy because information systems have become critical functional enablers of business process (Banker and Kauffman, 2004).

Information and communication technology (ICT) has been extensively adopted in organization and presents various benefits to global operations such as effective communication at a reasonable cost, effective collaboration in multicultural workforces, and access to information of business partners (Thomas, 1999; Sivunen and Valo, 2006; Turban et al., 2006). Global information systems, however, has not been given much attention in IS research. Banker and Kauffman (2004) studied IS research published in *Management Science* over a 50 years span and identified five research streams: decision support and design science, human-computer systems interaction, value of information, IS organization and strategy, and economics of IS and IT. The findings of the research confirmed that global information systems is away from the main stream of IS research despite of its importance. Furthermore, little attention has been given to IT manager who is in charge of IT management and implementation.

IT manager is increasingly important as IT has been extensively adopted in all different levels of business functions and becomes essential in organization. Workforces - they are end users in most cases - of an organization depend on their IT manager or staff in learning how to use IT artifacts or systems or in solving problem when errors are occurred. Such dependency allows local IT managers to confront diverse requirements from workforces. However, the IT managers in foreign branch of multinational operation are unique in the sense that they face dual conflicts: one with headquarters, and the other with local workforces. The local IT managers are expected to intermediate the headquarters and local workers and to properly settle the different strategic goals and requirements. Without mediation of local IT managers, it is difficult for end users in foreign branch to claim their problem to headquarters directly for several reasons.

The primary goal of the study, therefore, is to: identify how firm global strategy affects local IT management; investigate how the global strategy influences local IT manager and pertinent conflict management practices. To achieve these goals, process theories are reviewed because these theories present important insight on the role of managers and media in resolving conflict. Cultural difference is also considered because culture is often cited as essential factor which affect the implementation of information systems (Galliers, Madon, and Rashid, 1998; Leidner and Kayworth, 2006). On the basis of data obtained through in-depth interviews, observation, and content analyses of local IT manager's work process, practical implication on the role of local IT manager is further discussed.

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT AND REFINEMENT

Firm's Strategy

A critical issue confronting international firms is the choice of organizational structure strategy, which has two extremes: global strategy vs. multi-domestic strategy. Global strategy emphasizes similarities cross countries in terms of technology, political and economic environment, and consumer behaviors such as needs, tastes, and preferences (Ohmae, 1990). The strategy aims to develop the resources of one subunit or subsidiary to create competitive advantage of other subunits or subsidiaries (Edström and Galbraith, 1977). By taking such strategy, firms can obtain: (a) cost advantage from the effect of economies of scale in research and development (R&D), production, and marketing, (b) consistent corporate/brand image recognition across countries due to adopting the same brand and advertisement strategy, and (c) low managerial complexity through coordination and control of international operations (Theodosiou and Leonidou, 2002; Levitt, 1983; Douglas and Craig, 1986). On the other hand, multi-domestic strategy is considered when the demand of local environment is strong and the cultural difference is high. In this case, little interdependence exists between various functions across countries, and connection between subunits is weak (Porter, 1986; Taylor, Beechler, and Napier, 1996). It emphasizes variations existing in consumer needs, use conditions, purchasing power, commercial infrastructure, culture and traditions, laws and regulations, and technological development among the countries. Thus, there is a need for firms to fit their strategy to the idiosyncratic circumstances of each foreign market because the variations are too high to standardize (Terpstra & Sarathy, 2000). The strategy argues that the goal of the strategy is to obtain long-term profit by satisfying the different customers' needs and requirement rather than to pursue the cost minimize through standardization (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1990; Rosen, 1990).

Since each standpoint has its own advantages and disadvantages, contingency perspective is presented to converge these two perspectives. Contingency theory addresses the fit of internal components such as organizational structure, value, and strategy to external environment. Contingency perspective argues that (a) standardization or adaptation strategy is two extreme points of the same continuum and can't be isolated each other, (b) the decision to standardize or adapt strategy depends on the analysis of external factors surrounding the specific firms, and (c) the performance is the best criterion to evaluate the appropriateness of the selected level of strategy standardization/adaptation (Theodosiou and Leonidou, 2002). To be competitive in local markets, firms must rely on the unique knowledge of the subsidiaries, the asset in which local culture is embedded. However, headquarter cannot pass over all decision-right to the subsidiary since the interest of local subsidiary is always congruent the goal of the firm as a whole (Nohria and Ghoshal, 1994).

Resource-dependence perspective is another key approach. Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) propose that no organization can generate all resources necessary for operating itself. Organizational stakeholders try to control the actors to exchange to make sure that the resources necessary to achieve organizational goals (Taylor, Beechler, and Napier, 1996).

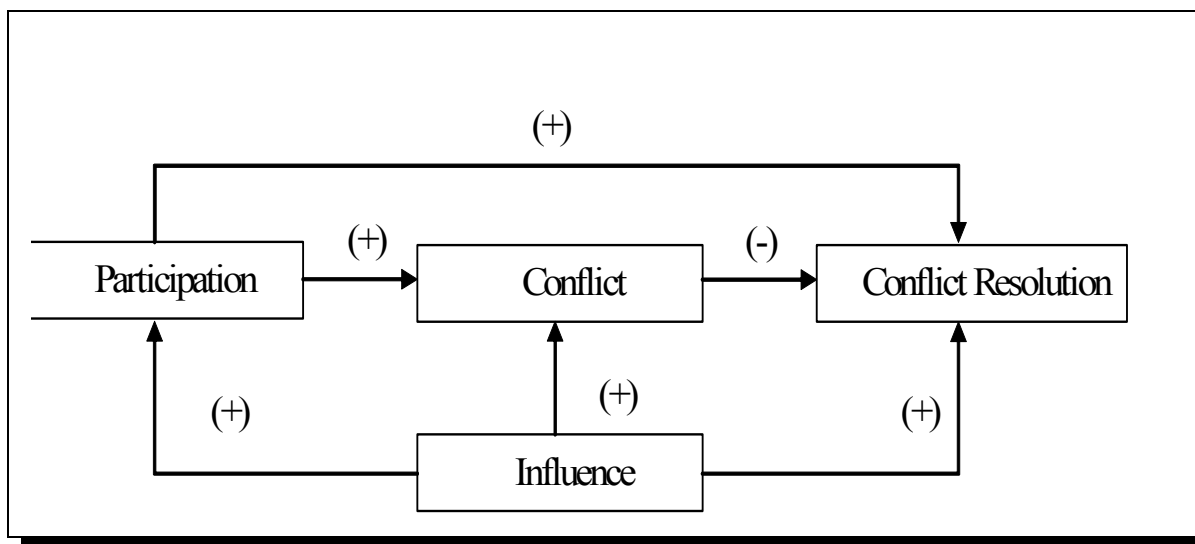
It is certain, thus, that the activity of local IT manager in foreign branch is affected by headquarters' strategy. Under global strategy, the role of IT manager is marginal since all important decisions are determined by headquarters for efficient and fast decision-making and cost minimization. Little authority is given to the local IT manager for implementing headquarters' decisions efficiently. On the other hand, the local IT manager is given resource and authority to implement independent IT strategy to satisfy the local unique requirements.

Process Approaches

It has been a great managerial concern to implement management information systems successfully (Robey and Farrow, 1982). Several theoretical approaches for process of system development are applied to find factors leading to success. In the process of system development, developers are mostly blamed for being unable to response to users, and the outcome of such developer-oriented approach is costly and conspicuous failures of software development projects (Gunian, Cooperide, and Faraj, 1998).

Problem solving approach argues that acting should be directed by object to improve the effectiveness of the acting (Smith, 1998). According to Smith (1998), problem is defined as the difference between the desirable situation and present one. Basically, problem solving approach is considered problem resolution oriented because it aims to resolve the problem by decreasing the difference. On the other hand, control approach emphasizes behavior and outcome feedback in order to achieve team goals. Control is defined as a process to monitor and evaluate employees' behaviors to lead to the attainment of organizational goals (Flamholtz et al., 1985; Ouchi and Maguire, 1975). Constructive conflict model is developed to identify stages of change and analyze the process of user involvement to solve complex problem (Robey and Farrow, 1982). Conflict is defined as the process that the disagreements between people or groups are addressed and resolved by the interference of individual or group to achieve the goal (Robey, Farrow, and Franz, 1989; Schmidt and Kochan, 1972). It is common in the process of information systems development that various departments work together under the resource pressure and time constraints. In most cases, the departments are not homogeneous in formal structure, training, cognitive orientation of members, career paths, and department mission (Robey, et al., 1989). These differences lead to many conflicts between individuals and groups in the development process. Studies indicate that cognitive differences between individuals or groups may increase the potential of conflict (White and Leifer 1986). Figure 1 displays the conflict model which is developed by Robey and Farrow (1982).

Figure 1. A Constructive Conflict Model for User Involvement



Source: Robey, D. and Farrow, D., "User Involvement in Information System Development: A Conflict Model and Empirical Test," *Management Science*, 28(1), 1982, p. 75.

According to Robey, et al. (1989), participation in the model refers to the extent to which members of an organization are engaged in activities or contribute to the achievement of goals. It implicitly indicates that influence of an individual or group on other members or organization increases as an individual or group of an organization is engaged in activities. The influence and involvement dominated by an individual or group is, however, likely to increase the conflict with other members or groups. However, the active participation is expected to derive the conflict resolution. Influence refers to the extent to which an individual or group exercise power on decision making process and affect decisions relatively and absolutely (Robey and Farrow, 1982). Influence is closely related to the concept of social power, which members can influence each other in relative or absolute way (Robey et al., 1989). The strong influence on other members is expected to increase the conflict between members or groups. Conflict can be resolved by replacing the disagreement with consensus, which can be accepted by all members (conflict resolution) (Robey and Farrow, 1982).

Process approaches emphasize different dimensions of problem resolution process to attain the goal. Problem solving approach argues that the acting should be led by object to achieve goals whereas conflict theory emphasizes feedback to monitor and correct behaviors of employees. Constructive conflict approach put its focus on conflict process and factors affecting the process to achieve goal, mainly successful administration of management information systems. Primary purpose of the approaches is to give a right direction to the way of success in information systems

development process. The information systems development process includes various activities such as system requirement identification, system design and implementation, test, and maintenance. All tasks are closely related to the role of IT manager. Thus, the theories provide useful insight in identifying factors influencing activities of IT manager in conflict situation between headquarters and subsidiary.

Cultural Differences

Doing business in different countries, however, creates new challenge for managers and organization because they can be exposed to different external environments such as infra structure, law, political and economic situation, culture, and so on. Culture is often cited to essential factor which leads to successful implementation of information systems if properly corresponded (Galliers, Madon, and Rashid, 1998; Leidner and Kayworth, 2006). For instance, Straub (1994) has found that Japanese workers prefer facsimile to email because of complexity of typing Japanese characters with keyboard. Helmreich (1994) reported a disastrous case of *Avianca flight* to show how culture could give birth to critical impact. Due to the culture which do not report bad information to supervisor, pilots did not inform the Air Traffic Control of lack of fuel, resulting that the flight from Columbia to New York crashed upon landing due to the out of fuel. These cases well illustrate why culture must be considered in doing business in foreign countries. Cultural factors are more critical when a company runs its business in developing countries because of significant cultural mismatch (Galliers, Madon, and Rashid, 1998).

Regarding of cultural effect on IT, studies have addressed the difference of IT philosophies, managerial style in IT companies, IS employment structure, and value over different countries. The ICT research has focused on the relationship between culture and information technologies as well as the impact of national and organizational cultures on IT (Leidner and Kayworth, 2006). National level research explores the potential of applying the western-based management theories to non-western cultures. Another major research issue is the effect of national culture on the development and use of ICTs (Myers and Tan 2002). The organizational level research has centered on investigating the role of organizational culture to produce different performance among the organizations adopting same ICTs (Robey and Boudreau, 1999). Leidner and Kayworth (2006) reviewed research focusing on relation between culture and information systems, and classified the studies into four groups: culture and information systems development (ISD), culture and information technology adoption and diffusion, culture, information technology use and outcome, and culture, IT management, and strategy.

How culture affects IT management and strategy has been the interesting issue of IT research. The leading issues have been the influence of national culture on IT management and the effect of organizational culture on IT strategy (Leidner and Kayworth, 2006). Kettinger, Lee, and Lee (1995) found that IT organizations in Asia and North America have different philosophies and

vary in IS functions. Slaughter and Ang (1995) presented that value differences led to the variation in IS employment structure between the U.S. and Singapore. Shore et al. (2001) found that students from individualistic countries showed more ethical attitude on the software piracy than students from collectivistic countries. Focusing on strategy, some research presented important results. For example, Kanungo, Sadavarti, and Srinivas (2001) provide that innovative type cultures are closely associated with firms having a delineable IT strategy. Tomlin (1991) found that strong internal information culture is strongly correlated with strategic IT use. Local IT managers in foreign branch are required to work with IT staffs or technicians in headquarters and experience cultural difference. The conflict in IT management can be more serious when multinational enterprises treat their subsidiaries as independent affiliates and activities of a subsidiary do not affect on the activities of other subsidiaries.

DUAL CONFLICTS MANAGEMENT IN GLOBAL STRATEGY

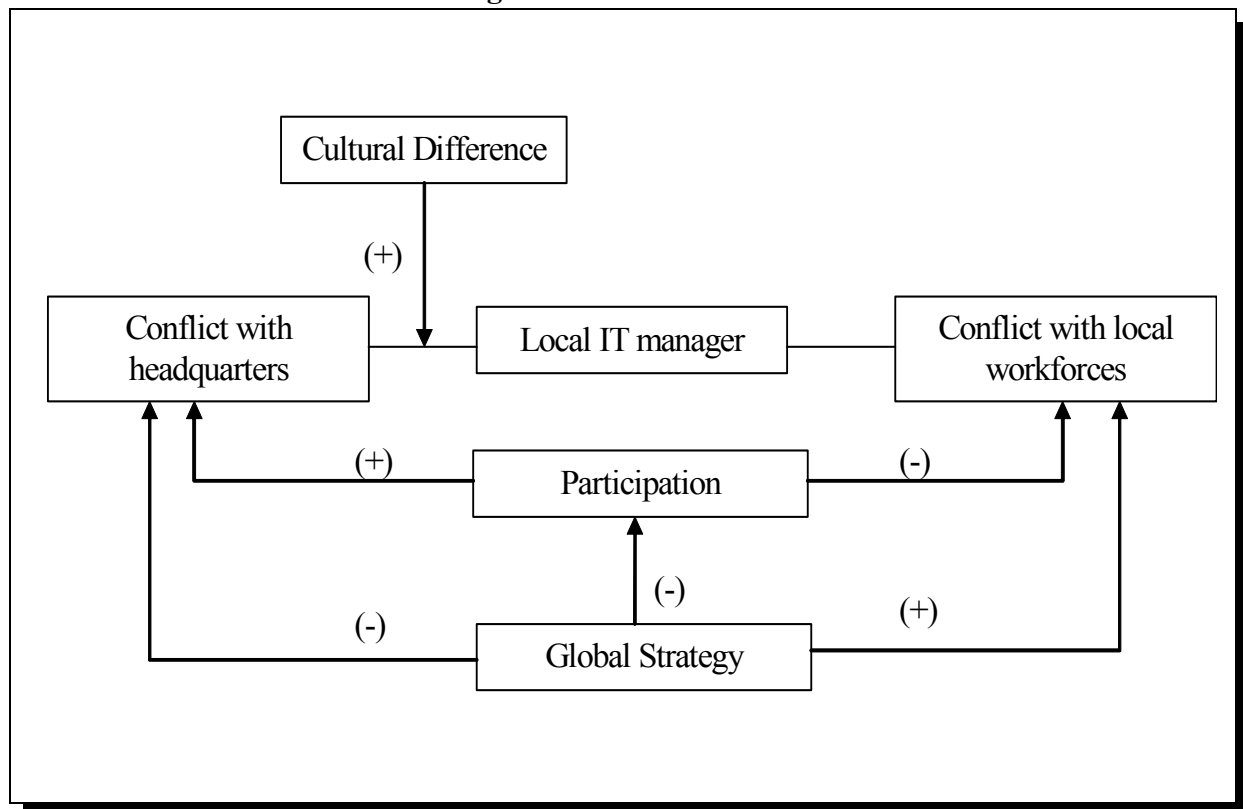
Although the constructive conflict approach provides critical insight to understand the conflict resolution process, to obtain comprehensive view on role of local IT manager in IT management, we must consider characteristics of the local IT manager, which are different from those of IT managers in domestic firms. Thus we develop the conflict model by applying the features of local IT manager into the existing model. Participation, in our model, refers to the extent to which local IT manager of foreign branch is authorized to independently engage in business activities. As local IT managers have authority to make decision and actively engage in problem-solving process, they can respond promptly and properly to local IT requirements and satisfy local IT end users. However, such independence is likely to increase conflict with headquarters because of discord with overall strategy across subunits and lack of time to discuss with headquarters peers. On the other hands, low participation and authority of local IT managers are likely to fail to respond local requirements promptly whereas it decreases conflict with headquarters by according its goal with overall strategy. We thus argue that active participation of local IT managers increases conflict with headquarters and, on the other hand, decreases conflict with local workforces.

The participation of local IT manager is expected to be affected by communication media and strategy of headquarters. Communication media refers to the device that IT managers in foreign branch adopt to communicate with staffs or IT managers in headquarters. The spectrum of communication media varies from simple media such as phone or email to rich media such as visual conference (Chinowsky and Rojas, 2003). Frequent communication with rich media between subsidiary and headquarters allows both parties to come to mutual consent, and makes headquarters more directly control its subsidiaries because the headquarters can obtain necessary information fast and efficiently. The increased control for subsidiaries finally reduces the authority of local units, resulting in discourage of local IT manger participation.

Strategy is another critical factor affecting the participation. Under the standardized control, headquarters employ same IT strategy to all foreign branches without considering cultural difference or local requirements. The participation of local IT manager in foreign branch is restricted because such strategy allows very limited autonomy to the local IT manager. Such standard strategy often raises troubles because unique environment or requirement of local branch is ignored and the responding of such requirements is late under the strategy. On the other hand, the participation of local IT manager is likely to increase under the multi-domestic strategy because the strategy emphasizes characteristics of local requirements and environment. Headquarters heavily relies on local IT manager's knowledge and experience in solving the local-contexture problems.

2.

Figure 2 Research Model



Culture is a unique dimension of source of conflict in multinational enterprise. It is defined as “a complex representational system constituting identities and symbols and also as a feature, which binds individuals or groups of individuals to a certain set of values, beliefs, understandings and ways of sense-making” (Scheytt et al, 2003, p. 519). In other words, culture is a point of reference in establishing identity, value, and norm of individual (Scheytt, Soin, and Metz, 2003). Different cultures have different value, norm, and identity and these differences cause to make it

hard to understand people in other culture. Cultural conflict represents disagreement caused by cultural difference between headquarters and subsidiary in context of multinational enterprise. Cultural difference, however, can be diminished by communication through rich media. Rich media can transmit complex information including non-verbal cues as well as multimedia data such as video, audio, and text data. It is pointed that silent behavior such as body orientation, facial expression, and eye movement are critical factors in effective and interactive communication (Ucok, 2006). For example, when virtual team members work together, many miscommunications occur because technology cannot communicate non-verbal cues such as body language and emotional expressions (Rosen et al, 2006). Therefore, rich media decreases the cultural difference and encourages the involvement of employees in subsidiaries. The model proposed is presented in figure

RESEARCH SETTING AND CASE ANALYSIS

Research Setting

Case study methodology should be employed when a study attempts to explore how a thing is done (Yin, 1994). It can be used to reach meaningful insights when a phenomenon is little known, or research for the phenomenon is early stage (Hovav and Schuff, 2005). Case studies adopt interpretivism, assuming that knowledge is the product of social construction by human actors and social phenomenon should be studied from the perspective of the actors in the context in which the phenomenon occurs (Shoib and Nandhakumar, 2003). Such an approach provides in-depth understanding of decision making in IS adoption and implementation in organizations in different contexts (Shoib and Nandhakumar, 2003; Walsham, 1993). We carefully decided criteria for choosing case study subject. First, local IT manager in foreign branch should have heterogeneous cultural background with staffs or IT manager in headquarters. Second, IT should be employed and used extensively in foreign branch. Third, the company should be multinational enterprise, which has subsidiaries in several countries. Fourth, the subsidiary should be strategically meaningful to the company.

Company X is an organization that works to enhance safety and to approve assets and systems in sea, on land and in air space. The key functionality of the company is to inspect shipbuilding. The business principally involves classification of ships, which sets standards of quality and reliability during their design, construction and operation. The headquarter of the company is located in UK and subsidiaries of the company are spread across Asian countries such as Hong Kong, Japan, China, South Korea, Singapore, Malaysia, and India. The research on Company X was carried out in the subsidiary in South Korea that occupies 50.7% of world shipbuilding order between Jan. to Apr. in 2008 (6.8 million CGT out of 13.4 million CGT) (Korea Economic Daily, 2008). Since the two countries (UK and South Korea) have totally different cultural background, the case will present clear and concrete base to identify the effect of cultural

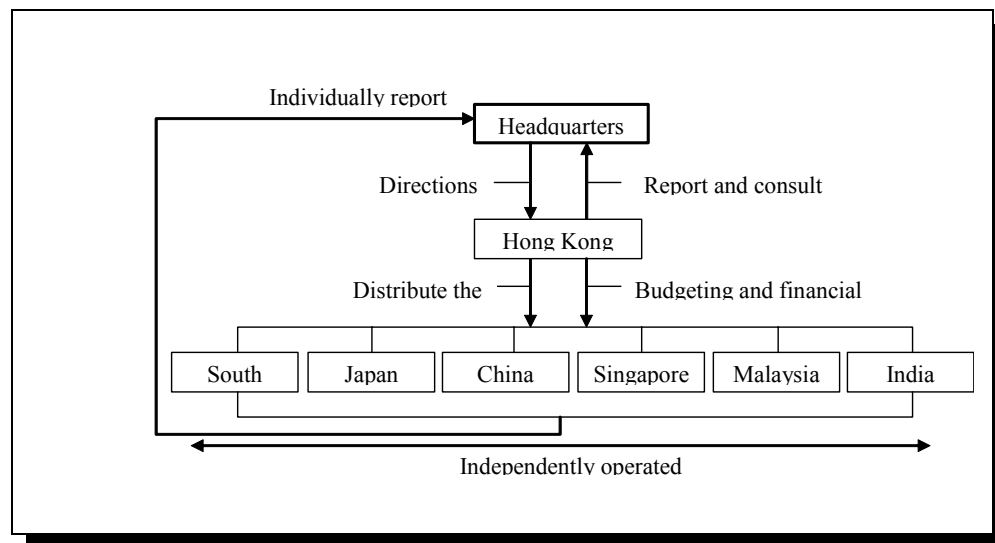
difference on IT management. Further, the case study is very extensive given that it is conducted in non-Western country context (Shoib and Nandhakumar, 2003).

We employed qualitative data gathering methods such as participant observation and unstructured interviews over period of time. The study at Company X involved one of the authors as a participant observer. In year 2006 and 2007, the author visited main office in South Korea to observe and interview the IT manager. The focus has been put on the role of IT manager and the interaction with headquarters and local workforces related to IT management.

Case Description and Analysis

1) Asian branches

Figure 3 Organization and relation of main offices in Asian countries



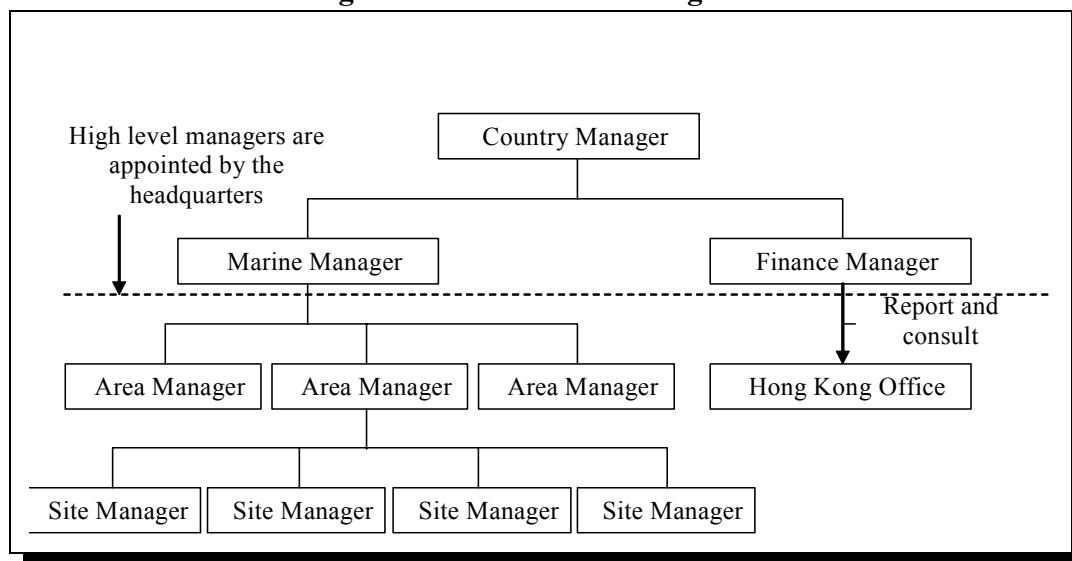
The Hong Kong subsidiary is the intellectual hub in the meaning that the headquarters supports and administers Asian subsidiaries through the Hong Kong office. Interesting point is that the function of the Hong Kong subsidiary is very marginal even it is the hub office in Asia. The subsidiary has no authority to make decision about its business or other subsidiaries' businesses. The subsidiary collects financial information from Asian subsidiaries and reports it to the headquarters. Based on the information, the headquarters determines how to operate those subsidiaries and conveys decided policies to the subsidiaries through the Hong Kong office. The authority of other subsidiaries is more restrictive. For instance, a wage increase of the subsidiaries is based on a fixed rate regardless of their performance, the rate which is determined by the headquarters. Overall, the headquarters and subsidiaries are integrated vertically and all powers are concentrated on

headquarters and the flexibility of subsidiaries is very limited. The relationship between the headquarters and subsidiaries are fairly asymmetric and the subsidiaries are subordinated to the headquarters, especially IT functions.

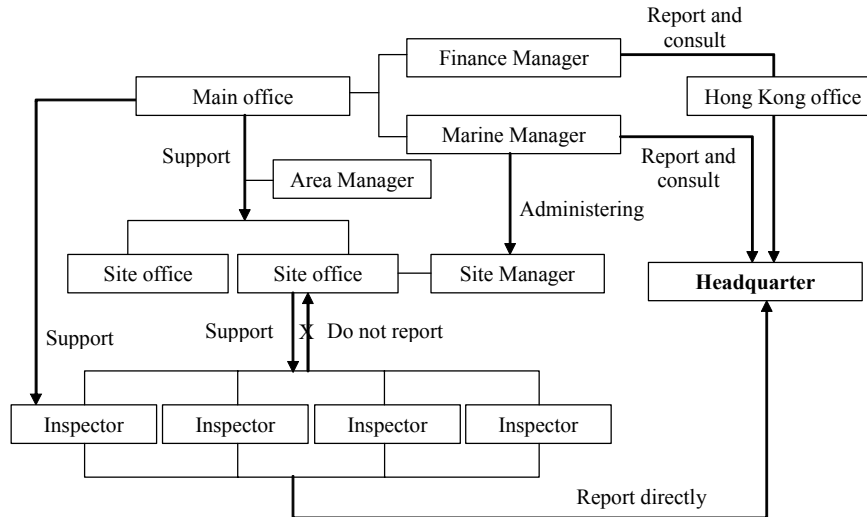
2) Managerial organization

The management structure is composed of four levels: country manager, marine/financial manager, area manager, and site manager. The highest manager is country manager who supervises the country main office and administers area managers. Financial works are carried out by finance manager under the direction of the country manager. The major task of marine manager is to provide technical support to area manager and issue approval of specification and design of ship. The local IT manager is supervised under the direction of the area manager who administers a couple of site offices which are in shipbuilding yards.

Figure 4 Structure of Management



The main office is composed of two sections: administration and finance. Administration part supports inspectors including IT management. Site offices are independent from main office and inspectors belong to site offices and report their works to headquarters in UK without direction of main office. Data are directly transmitted to the headquarters' server and reported to departments that are in charge. The main office has no authority to control and involve in the work process and access the server.

Figure 5 Work flow

The managers in high level such as finance manager are all appointed by and sent from the headquarters in UK. In the vertically integrated organization, it is critical to control sub-units and their goals and strategy must be congruent with those of the headquarters. Thus, the headquarters intentionally appoints host managers to the high managerial positions of the local subsidiaries to guarantee the congruence.

3) Responsibility of local IT manager and relation with headquarter

The responsibilities of local IT manager are to support inspectors (end-users)' IT usage and manage IT infrastructures such as bandwidth of network so they are ready for the inspectors' works without problem. Specific tasks of local IT manager include network maintenance, data backup, programs installation and distribution, hardware and software maintenance, and technical support to end-users. It shows that the global strategy restricts the role of the local IT manager to the maintenance of organizational level IT infrastructure.

4) Program development and distribute process

Program development or existing program update are conducted through either in-house development or outsourcing. Since the Company X pushes global strategy, the company has no need to consider unique requirements of subsidiaries. Standardizing programs used in all subsidiaries

allows the company to save a lot of expenses by realizing effect of scale economy. The company has no need to develop different versions of original program to reflect different specification of IT equipments. Outsourcing development is preferred when the development cost is heavy or when the program requires high quality, which means that the company has a lack of resource to develop with its own ability. In-house development is, on the other hand, adopted when the demand for program quality is not high, and development period is short. Thus, in most case, programs developed through in-house method are add-ons to some major critical programs, especially Microsoft Words. For maintenance, the Company X uses Windows XP as operating software for client computer in almost all subsidiaries so they have a little demand for technicians to operate UNIX or other operating software.

For distribution of developed program or update, the company purchased special tool, Radia, from Hewlett Packard. The tool is used to distribute programs to servers and clients. Each client computer is assigned to an account and registered in one of the domains. The program distribution tool has a list of computers registered on the domains. When end users email help desk in headquarters to ask for necessary programs, managers in help desk add the end user's computer and requested program to the distribution list in the tool. Once the list is updated in distribute tool, it automatically distribute requested programs to the client computer as soon as the computer logs in its network.

Critical resources and functions of IT management, such as program development and distribution are conducted by the headquarters rather than the local manager. The headquarters is convenient to prepare manuals of newly developed program and establish program development process. However, such process has no flexibility to reflect the unique requirements or environments of local subsidiaries. Those unique requirements cannot be reflected on the standardized program development process.

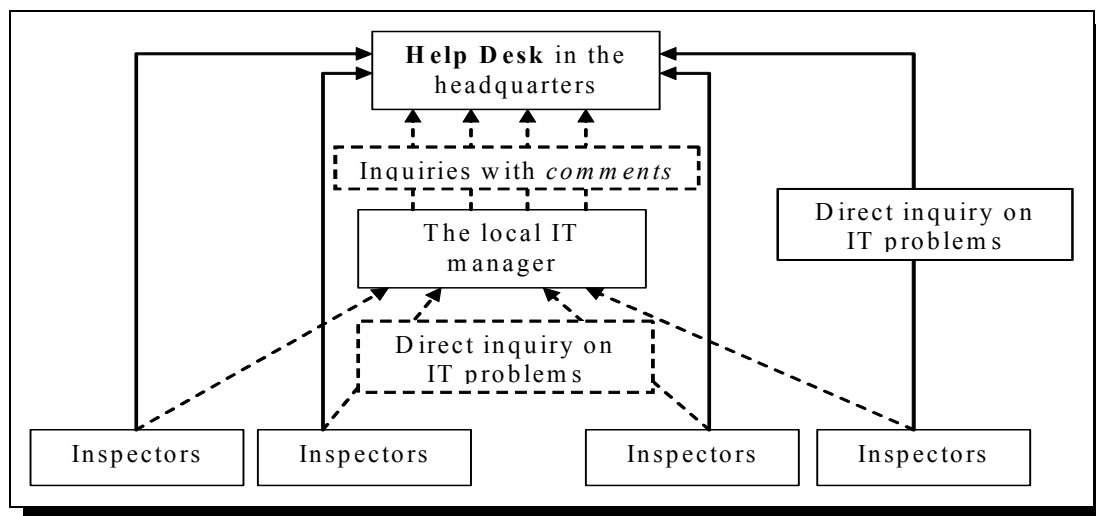
5) Maintenance of hardware and software

The Company X has different hardware/software maintenance policies. For programs developed in house, application support teams under IT Help Desk handle problems or errors. Programs outsourced by third parties are, however, maintained and managed by the companies that developed the programs. Usually, the Company X enacts maintenance provisions when it makes outsourcing development contract with developing companies.

Hardware such as server, laptop, and printer are maintained by hardware providers. To be economic in purchasing hardware, the Company X has single provider who supplies hardware to the company, both to headquarter and all foreign branches. Since hardware providers give three year warranty in most cases, the company X changes its hardware in every three years. Current hardware provider is Hewlett Packard.

Since the Company X adopts global strategy in IT management, most critical resources are centered in UK headquarter. All functions such as program development, hardware/software maintenance, and network access and maintenance are converged to IT department in headquarter and very marginal functions such as data backup are handled by local office. For instance, when having a problem in application, end users report it to Help Desk in headquarters directly, not to local IT manager. Then, Help Desk analyzes the problem and gives proper remedy to the end user, or local IT manager when necessary. When an end user reports problems to local IT manager, instead, local IT manager creates 'call' and delivers the 'call' to Help Desk of UK with his/her comments on the problems. In such way, created calls are recorded in server in headquarters and used as criterion to evaluate performance of local IT manager. Thus local IT manager is not available to end users in problem solving process even though the manager can react quickly on the problem with proper remedy. The process can be seen in Figure 6.

Figure 6. IT Help Desk Communications



The maintenance function of hardware/software belongs to the headquarters. Inspectors are required to report IT problems to the Help Desk directly or ask the local IT manager when they have no knowledge of explaining the problem to the Help Desk correctly. The role of the local IT manager is very limited in the process: add comments and explanation of the problems. This policy causes slow problem-solving process. Even though the local IT manager has enough skills or abilities to solve problems, all things the local IT manager can do are to create the error report, 'call', in the server of headquarters. Thus, end users have to stop working, waiting the remedy from the Help Desk.

6) Training

IT training is critical to improve the IT performance. The Company X provides training course for end users to learn and handle the newly developed programs in three ways. First, the company makes contract with Thomson Corp. and provides online training courses. Thus end users access to the training web sites which are constructed by Thomson Corp and learn how to handle the program. Another is a manual. When it is necessary, the company distributes manuals of developed program to the end users for reference. However, these two ways are restricted in terms of effect of training because those training courses have no interaction between trainer and trainee, thus rarely used by end users. For instance, newly distributed program (it was add-ons of Microsoft Word for entering information which is not supported by previous version) had serious error in entering data, which was not on manual and online training course. Developers argued that the error was stemmed from that end users did not follow the steps in manual. However, it was found that the error was occurred by program coding error not by misuse of end users. This instance shows how critical the interaction is in training process. Hence, the company provides face-to-face training courses. Developer of the program gives training about the program to site or area managers, then area or site managers teach inspectors how to use the program. The company heavily relies on the online training, whereas manuals and face-to-face training are used as supplementary of the online training. But it is obvious that the end users couldn't get direct help from the local manager.

7) Communication media

Communication media is very important to long distance collaboration among team members. In a local office, the most frequently preferred media is email due to its convenience in usage and function to keep evidence by recording all transactions as history. Phone is preferred because of its synchronous characteristics. It allows local IT manager to talk with staffs in headquarters in real time and make it possible to quicker response than using email. Thus phone is most used when emergency and real time communication is required. Video conferencing is third preferred communication media. It has various advantages over other media, such as transmission of multimedia data and nonverbal cues. The media is used in most for interview. Instant messenger (IM) is considered promising media because of its multiple functions such as chatting, file transfer, multimedia data transmission, and login-identification. IM is used in rare, however, because of security problem. Traditionally, peer-to-peer (P2P) communication is easy to be compromised.

8) Cultural difference

Cultural difference is found to impede effective communication and IT management. South Korea can be classified into high-contexture culture whereas most western countries are belongs to

low-contexture culture. People in high-contexture culture emphasize background or context in which conversation occurs. Without specific expressions, people could catch a nuance, shaded meaning of exposed conversation from the context. People in low-contexture culture, however, require that the speaker specifically express his/her intention. When local IT manager reports a problem or explains a situation, such cultural difference disturbs effective communication. For instance, the comments added to error report by local IT manager sometimes seem to be ambiguous to the sight of staffs in headquarters. The local IT manager unreasonably expects that Help Desk could read 'between the lines' of report and identify requirements of end users without specific description. The local IT manager, thus, sometimes receives preposterous remedies from headquarters on reported problem because of miscommunication stemmed from the cultural difference. The effect of cultural difference also can be verified from the fact that level of adoption of Help Desk call system is different among nations. Workforces of Japan easily adopted the new system and policy. However, end users of China strongly prefer to solve a problem through informal path with local IT manager. Instead of making a call to Help Desk in headquarter, they ask local IT manager to give a remedy quickly, taking advantage of their private relation with the IT manager. Employees of South Korea locate on some place between the two countries.

9) Conflicts

Conflicts occurs between headquarter and local IT manager, and between the manager and local end users on a regular basis. Local IT manager conflicts with headquarters when local IT manager has: a) a late response on request, b) unreasonable remedies on reported problem due to lack of understanding of local situation, c) change or alteration on local server or equipment without consultation with local IT manager. Local IT manager also has conflicts with local end users when: a) they think the response is too late, b) they ignore suggestion and assistance of IT manager, c) they install unauthorized programs and raise trouble, and d) they have wrong information on source of problem.

DISCUSSION

From the interview and observation, we found that the global strategy affects the local IT manager's participation and restricts the role of the local manager in IT maintenance significantly. Thus end users have very weak relationship and reliance with the local IT manager. Such resource and functional concentration become a cause of conflict between the local IT manager and end users as well as between the local IT manager and the headquarters. The participation of local IT manager is strongly affected by the headquarters' strategy. The local IT manager of the Company X has very marginal authority in IT management and the tasks of the manager are heavily concentrated on reporting and IT infrastructure maintenance. Such restrictive participation of the local IT manager

provides different cause of conflict with end users. As we expected, the global strategy inhibits participation of the local IT manager in the problem solving process. It increases conflicts with local end users as well because a remedy from headquarters often is not available quickly. Furthermore, there is no guarantee that the remedy will work at the first try. Thus it is common that end users ask help from the local IT manager directly instead of making an official 'call' to headquarters because that is more efficient and faster.

IT managers, however, consider such requests as social influence because of his/her private and social relationship with the end users. When local IT managers are forced to accept the requests, the conflict with end-users decreases because end users can get a prompt remedy and save a lot of time and effort required by making a 'call.' But the conflict with headquarters increases because officially 'calls' are not created and the local IT manager has no records to work. On the other hand, the conflict with end users increases when local IT manager does not accept their requests and attempts to make a 'call' whereas the conflict with headquarters decreases because his work performance is recorded in the headquarter server. The conflict between headquarters and local managers is low because the local IT manager is asked to convey decisions made by headquarters and consult about all things with headquarters staff in all IT management processes.

Global strategy is hard to absorb cultural difference. Through the interview, we found that cultural differences combined with headquarters' strategy affects the level of adoption of the strategy. The three countries, Japan, South Korea, and China, show differences in terms of adoption level an even though they have similar cultural backgrounds. In Japan, the global strategy works well. In most cases, end users report problems to headquarters directly even though they often have to wait a long time to be given a remedy. Little conflict occurs between headquarters and the local office. On the other hand, China is generally late, which means that most end users prefer to approach local IT manager directly, instead of taking the official route to get assistance. Specifically, end users in China often attempt to visit the main office or make a call to the IT manager to solve their problems. This increases conflicts between headquarters and the local IT manager as well as local end users. Workers in South Korea locate between Japan and China. The conflict between headquarters and the local office is lower than that of China but higher than that of Japan. We, thus, argue that the level of adoption of a global strategy is affected by cultural difference. It strongly implies that the success of the global strategy is affected by culture. We thus argue that the success of the global strategy depends on the proper consideration of local culture.

CONCLUSION

The role of the local IT manager is increasingly important as activities of firms are expanding geographically. The local IT manager is unique in that he has to handle two different conflicts: one with headquarters, and the other with local end users. In this context, it is very important to

understand the characteristics of conflicts and to identify the effects of the firm's strategy with its influence on conflict.

Under the global strategy, active participation of local IT managers would increase the conflict with headquarters whereas it decreases the conflicts with local end users. Cultural difference increases the conflict with headquarters and affects the level of adoption of a proposed strategy. However, media richness has its effect on decreasing both conflict with headquarters and cultural differences. The major limitation of this study stems from the sample. We only provide one case and it is very limited in providing generalizability of the discussed phenomenon. The findings cannot be applied other companies or be generalized because each company has a unique environment affecting its conflicts. Also, neither IT staff/ managers in headquarters nor local end users are surveyed and thus the result can be biased because it relies on the local IT manager's perspective only. Future research is needed to investigate a wider range of subjects and assess the perspectives of both headquarters staff and local end users to provide a comprehensive view about conflict management in global business.

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A COMPARISON OF THE READABILITY OF PRIVACY STATEMENTS OF BANKS, CREDIT COUNSELING COMPANIES, AND CHECK CASHING COMPANIES

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ABSTRACT

The Gramm-Leach-Bliley Act (GLBA) of 1999, which repealed the Glass-Steagall Act, did away with many of the restrictions placed on financial institutions. One major focus of the act was the protection of personal information of consumers. The act required a clear disclosure of a company's privacy policy regarding sharing customer information with affiliates and third parties.

Implicit in the act was the idea that privacy policies would be in plain language. This research sought to determine the readability of privacy policies of banks, check cashing companies, and credit counseling companies. Privacy policies of the three business types were obtained from web sites and analyzed using Microsoft Word 2007, which employs the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level test.

Findings revealed that most privacy policies were written above grade level 12, which would portend problems for a large segment of the population, particularly those that patronize check cashing companies. Customers of banks and credit counseling companies might experience similar issues, albeit to a lesser degree.

INTRODUCTION

In 1999 the U.S. Congress enacted the Gramm-Leach-Bliley Act (GLBA), also known as the Gramm-Leach-Bliley Financial Services Modernization Act. GLBA repealed the Glass-Steagall Act, which greatly restricted the financial services banks or other financial institutions could offer. For example, with the ratification of GLBA, commercial and investment banks were permitted to consolidate (Gramm-Leach-Bliley Act, n.d.). Among the businesses included in the act were those involved with lending, brokering or servicing any type of consumer loan, transferring or safeguarding money, preparing individual tax returns, providing financial advice or credit counseling, providing residential real estate settlement services, and collecting consumer debts (Privacy Initiatives, n.d.). Although the GLBA addressed a wide array of topics, central to the act

is the protection of personal information of customers and clients (“Fact Sheet 24,” 2007). Title V of the act deals specifically with privacy.

Title V of GLBA focuses on requirements of financial institutions with regard to protecting consumer privacy. Among those requirements is a clear disclosure of their privacy policy regarding the sharing of non-public personal information with both affiliates and third parties. Notices of the privacy policy must be made available to consumers. An opportunity to opt out of sharing non-public personal information with nonaffiliated third parties must be offered to consumers. Title V also requires that financial institutions disclose their privacy policy at the time a customer relationship is established, and it further requires that the policy must be provided not less than annually during the continuation of the relationship (Financial Services Modernization Act, n.d.).

READABILITY ISSUES

Although “readability” per se is not addressed explicitly in the act, it is certainly implicit in the context of the act. Use of terms such as “clear disclosure” and “plain language” make it apparent that the intent was to ensure that privacy statements are easily understandable by the consuming public. Title V provides consumers with minimal privacy rights; however, the burden is on the consumer to assert those rights (“Fact Sheet 24,” 2007). But are privacy policies of financial institutions easily read and comprehended by the typical customer? Would average bank patrons be able to grasp the impact of their bank’s privacy policy on their rights? A report from the Oversight Hearing on Financial Privacy and the Gramm-Leach-Bliley Financial Services Modernization Act highlighted the fact that “the first year’s privacy notices were unreadable; this year’s no better” (Privacy Rights Clearinghouse, 2002). And are privacy policies comparable from one bank to another or between and among diverse organizations that offer financial services?

READABILITY DEFINED

Readability refers to the ease with which a document can be read. Several mathematical formulas have been developed to assist writers in measuring the readability of their writing. Most formulas (indexes) include sentence length and some measure of syllabic intensity as major components. Other factors, such as sentence structure, graphic presentation, and font faces may affect readability; however, these are very subjective in nature and extremely difficult to measure. Popular readability indexes include the Flesch Readability Formula, developed by Rudolf Flesch; the Fry Readability Graph, created by Edward Fry; and the Gunning Fog Index, conceived by Robert Gunning (Lewis & Adams, 2001).

PURPOSE

The purpose of this research was to determine the readability of privacy policies for financial institutions and to compare policies of companies offering a variety of financial services. In particular, the research sought to ascertain the readability of privacy policies of businesses whose services are known to be used by individuals who may not be well educated or possess adequate reading skills.

METHODOLOGY

Gramm-Leach-Bliley pertains to numerous business types offering an assortment of financially related services. This research included three specific business types: banks, credit counselors, and check cashing companies. Since printed privacy policies of multiple organizations could not be readily accessed, the decision was made to use policies available on company web sites. The first phase of the research was to conduct a web search to find lists of companies fitting the necessary criteria. Next, companies were randomly selected from the lists. Once a web site was found for the company, the site was searched for a privacy policy. The privacy policy was then copied and pasted into a Microsoft Word document for conducting a readability analysis. Privacy policies were analyzed for 25 banks, 25 credit counseling companies, and 25 check cashing companies.

Microsoft Word 2007 uses the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level test, which provides the grade level at which someone must read in order to comprehend the material. The primary factors considered in determining the reading grade level are sentence length and syllable intensity, with long sentences and multi-syllable words resulting in greater reading difficulty. The Flesch-Kincaid formula is:

$$(L \times 0.39) + (N \times 11.8) - 15.59$$

where L = average sentence length and N = average number of syllables per word (Readability, 2007)

In addition to the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level test, Microsoft Word also provides the Flesch Reading Ease scale, which gives a score from 0-100 with higher scores indicating easier comprehension.

FINDINGS

Table 1 presents the reading grade level scores, sorted in ascending order, for all three business types. The lowest grade level reading scores for banks, check cashing companies, and credit counseling companies, 10.4, 10.6, and 10.7, respectively, indicate that the reader should be able to read minimally at between tenth and eleventh grade level to understand the privacy policies.

Rank No.	Banks	Check Cashing Cos.	Credit Counseling Cos.
1	10.4	10.6	10.7
2	11.2	11.1	11.6
3	11.6	11.5	12.1
4	12.0	11.9	12.1
5	12.3	12.2	12.2
6	12.3	13.1	12.4
7	12.6	13.2	12.6
8	12.7	13.4	12.7
9	13.1	13.5	12.8
10	13.2	13.7	13.0
11	13.6	14.0	13.1
12	13.7	14.2	13.3
13	14.0	14.4	13.5
14	14.1	14.4	13.7
15	14.2	14.5	13.7
16	14.5	14.5	13.8
17	14.7	14.9	13.8
18	14.9	15.0	14.0
19	15.2	15.1	14.1
20	15.7	15.2	14.1
21	16.0	16.0	14.7
22	17.5	16.6	14.9
23	17.5	16.8	14.9
24	18.2	16.9	15.5
25	18.3	19.4	20.0

The data were first tested for normality and equal variances. Acceptance of these attributes indicated an appropriate statistical technique would be one-way analysis of variance. The ANOVA test results yielded a p value of 0.437. Thus, the hypothesis that the population means are all equal could not be rejected. There was no significant difference between these sample means.

Grade level means, standard deviations, and medians were calculated for the privacy policies for each of the three business types. Those data are shown in Table 2.

	Banks	Check Cashing Cos.	Credit Counseling Cos.
Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level Mean	14.14	14.24	13.57
Standard Deviation	2.16	2.00	1.75
Median	14.00	14.40	13.50

Although not presented in Table 2, of equal interest is the range of scores for each business type. Scores for banks ranged from 10.4 to 18.3; check cashing companies, 10.6 to 19.4; and credit counseling companies, 10.7 to 20.0. One might expect that scores would be more closely aligned within the same business class.

Finishing grade 12 is an important milestone for most individuals. Sadly, not everyone who finishes grade 12 can read at grade level 12. For each sample the hypothesis that the population mean was at most 12 was tested using the t test. In every case the hypothesis was rejected at the .01 level of significance, indicating with 99 percent confidence that the population mean was greater than 12. Therefore, the portion of the population reading at the twelfth grade level or below would have difficulty understanding the typical privacy policy. Coincidentally, in 2002 the national high school graduation rate for public school students was 71 percent (Greene & Winters, n.d.). Table 3 shows the percent of privacy policies for each company type that have reading grade levels below 12, between 12 and 16, and greater than 16.

	Banks	Check Cashing Cos.	Credit Counseling Cos.
Percent < 12 Grade Level	12.0	16	8
Percent Between Grade Level 12 & 16	72.0	68	88
Percent > 16	16.0	16	4

An interesting fact shown in Table 3 is the high percentage of privacy policies that require reading abilities beyond grade level 12. Fully 88 percent of the banks, 84 percent of the check

cashing companies, and 92 percent of the credit counseling companies have privacy policies written at grade levels 12 and beyond.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The findings clearly indicate that the mean reading grade levels are significantly above 12 for privacy policies of the banks, check cashing companies, and credit counseling companies researched. This does not bode well for many consumers since recent figures show less than 75 percent of U.S. students attending public schools finish grade 12. Only 12 percent of the privacy policies had reading grade levels below grade 12. Conversely, 12 percent of the companies studied had privacy policies that would require reading skills beyond a college degree. As a point of comparison, the *New York Times* and *Washington Post* are written at the twelfth grade level. *Time* and *Reader's Digest* are written at the ninth grade level ("Plain Language," 2005).

The magnitude of the problem may be smaller, at least on a group basis, for consumers of banking services than it is for those using check cashing and credit counseling services. To illustrate, banks provide services for individuals with little or no education as well as for well-educated professionals. On the other hand, check cashing companies deal primarily with less-educated people who may not grasp the nature or the content of the company's privacy policy. To a lesser extent, those individuals who seek the services of credit counseling companies may not have the educational capacity to understand the specific privacy rights available to them.

CLOSING OBSERVATION

This paper is written at a reading grade level of 12.7. Interestingly, 70 percent of the privacy policies of companies studied were written at a higher reading grade level than this paper. If academic research papers can be written at approximately twelfth-grade level, then company privacy policies can be as well. Customers would be better served if businesses made a deliberate effort to simplify their privacy policies.

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VALUE TRANSFORMATION IN 21ST CENTURY ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This paper explores the value system of the new Emergent Workforce for the 21st century and compares it with the current workforce. The methodology begins by discussing the overall concepts of corporate culture. Comparability analysis of the current workforce with the new Emergent Workforce is conceptualized. The study demonstrates that there are considerable differences between the current workforce and the Emergent Workforce. It is significant because a massive organizational shift will be happening globally in the near future. Organizations that can efficiently manage this transition have a competitive advantage in the marketplace.

INTRODUCTION

Change is coming faster and faster for organizations. Many organizations feel that modest structure changes and slight strategy modifications are enough to counter popular cultural influences. As the baby boomer generation retires, a new generation of leaders will replace them. These new leaders will cross age, gender, race, and geography. A recent Department of Labor report, *Futurework: Trends and Challenges for the Work in the 21st Century*, reveals that this rapid demographic shift will impact the future dynamics of organizations (Department of Labor, 1999). The purpose of this article is to provide an exploratory insight related to the new dynamics of a new workforce in American culture. This paper addresses two major objectives. The first objective is to identify the values of the current workforce and compare it with the Emergent Workforce in 21st century organizations. The second objective is to propose possible leadership styles in order to address any value chasms with workforce transition. The following discussion will be investigated: (a) an evaluation of the current workforce, (b) the Emergent Workforce value issues, and (c) possible solutions to issues of value alignment in the future.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Corporate culture plays a critical role in organizational value formation. Organizational culture relates to the underlying set of key values, beliefs, and norms shared by the workforce. Organizational culture development is amazing considering different people have varying values.

Furthermore, Bass (1999) maintained that collectivistic values strengthen commitment within an organization. Malphurs (2004) argued that organizational values co-exist on two planes: personal and corporate. Core organizational values guide the operations. On a personal level, individuals have a set of core values that dictate their actions. Organizational leaders then find themselves as institutional advocates; they influence how followers perceive organizational values. The values and beliefs of an individual are embedded in a culture and affect a leader's behavior. Therefore, an effective organization must contain leaders with high integrity who understand their corporate culture. However, Hackman and Johnson suggested that leaders cannot simply impose their values on followers. Given this perspective, there is an obvious possibility that personal and organizational values may clash. If leaders do not possess morals consistent with the organization's values, there may be problems. In fact, Draft (1991) argued that individuals within an organization find themselves dealing with competing values. Therefore, leaders must prioritize which values are the most important for them and their organizations.

Values provide personal guidance in decisions and supply the basic convictions that provide a framework for personal conduct. Values are considered to be the staple and cornerstone for an individual's moral compass; they carry a judgmental element that tells an individual what is right or wrong. Values include both content and intensity component. The content component identifies a mode of conduct and its importance while the intensity component how important it is to an individual (Robbins, 2005). Organizational values are a key component of its character and signal to followers the organization's bottom-line. Kouzes and Posner (2003) argued that most employees admire leaders with high values, such as honest, forward-looking, inspiring, and competent. Conversely, an individual's value system will help determine a person's involvement in an organization or a cause. A well-informed employee who understands his own value should align himself with a similar minded organization. However, the problem arises when the employee's values do not align with the organization.

Furthermore, Hackman and Johnson (2000) explained that leaders and followers are also interrelated. A large portion of an individual's values are formed in the early stages of life through parents, teachers, family, friends, and his or her environment. Simultaneously, ethics relates to instrumental values where values influence a person's behavior. Ciulla (2004) maintained that there are so few models of businesses and leaders, operating with ethical principles. Consequently, unethical leadership provides a dangerous model for today's workforce. A Prentice Hall survey in 1990 revealed that 68 percent of the people surveyed believed that unethical behavior of executives was the leading cause of the decline in organizational productivity and success (Ciulla, 2004). This perceived low standard of unethical conduct by senior management allows some employees to feel justified in their misbehavior through such acts as absenteeism, petty theft, and poor job performance. Values and ethics are therefore critical factors in dealing this workforce transition.

METHODS

This investigation provides exploratory data by utilizing comparative analysis. Comparative study provides a process that enables the development of more generalized results than individual case studies can provide. This investigation conducts an extensive literary review of critical documents, including scholarly opinions and practitioner discussions. The primary objective of this literature review is to increase depth of knowledge in this field in order to make a relevant analysis. Electronic databases, such as EBSCO Host and the Internet, were searched using the following key words: 'values,' corporate values,' '21st century organizations,' 'emergent workforce,' and 'leadership.' Through this process, there is an opportunity to discover the gaps in research as they relate to value transition. Therefore, this study incorporates an examination and review of the current workforce and the new replacement workforce value system.

CHANGING WORK CULTURE

The current workforce represents a conservative structure that is rapidly changing. For the first time in American history, there are four generations in the workforce. The demographics, which are referred to by many names, are the Matures who were born before 1946; Baby Boomers, those born between 1946 and 1964; Generation X, those born 1965 between and 1978; and Generation Y, those born after 1978 (Kaplan-Leiserson, 2005). Currently, most organizations are being managed by the Mature and Baby Boomer generations with Generation X and Y on the upward climb in organizations. Since the 1990's, the fundamental belief systems of workers have changed. The American workforce is experiencing a major shift in basic attitudes about work, compensation, and relationships as it relates to employment. Grantham and Ware argue that people's workforce attitudes are shaped by fundamental beliefs. This workplace attitude is then amplified by reacting to the behaviors of others in the environment (Grantham & Ware, 2005).

The recent mirage of scandals and unethical dealings by both governmental and business senior managers has made the workforce skeptical of today's leadership. Uncertainty and pressure become a staple of the current workforce as employees devote more time to their jobs out of necessity. As a result, organizational relationships are being damaged. According to Caudron (1996), management has lost credibility and trust of workers. She further cites that the primary reason trust has degenerated is not because of the loss of job security, but is due to managers mishandling the workforce changes by treating employees inconsistently, thereby losing credibility in the process. The enormous demographic changes within the 21st century American workforce are creating organizational growth pains. For the first time in American history, there are four generations co-existing in the workplace (Hankin, 2005). For most businesses, these changes may appear sudden. However, since 1998, the Spherion study has been annually reporting on these new workforce dynamics and their impacts on organizational culture.

Harding (2000) explained that a new generation of workers will produce significant human resource problems for traditional organizations. He described this new generation as the *Emergent Workforce*, which crosses age, gender, race, and geography. To further understand these value changes, a distinction must be made between the current and emergent workers. The current workers will be called Traditional workers; this group is heavily dominated by Baby Boomer leadership. The Emergent worker will represent the Emergent Workforce for this discussion. According to a 2003 national Spherion workforce study of more than 3,000 working adults, more workers are embracing the emergent mindset. This mindset is characterized by being self-directed, self-motivated, and self-reliant. The results showed 31 percent of the polled workers as emergent, 48 percent as migrating (moving from traditional to emergent), and 21 percent as traditional. By 2007, it is predicted that more than 50 percent of the workforce will be emergent (Ali, 2006).

CULTURAL VALUE CLASHES

As pop culture continues to bear down on today's organizations, traditional values will be challenged by this Emergent workforce. In fact, economic, social, and other influences have already impacted the value system of today's workers. Furthermore, Yukl (2002) suggested generational differences challenge modern leaders who manage diverse organizations. Obviously, incongruent values held by employees damage group dynamics by creating unhealthy conflicts in an organization. A leader's behavior is also influenced by cultural values and tradition (Diversity Connection, 2006). These value conflicts can escalate over time. Organ and Bateman (1991) suggested that the existence of a hierarchy, competition, and constraints on behavior guarantee that frustration will be frequent in an organization. Organizations communicate their expectations both formally and informally through their corporate culture. Scholars call this environment organizational culture (Organ & Bateman, 1991). In most businesses, organizational culture has been a domain where institutions try to promote the values of a more efficient and effective organization.

These Emergent values attack the heart of traditional organizations and thus, provide an avenue for organizational conflict between leaders and followers. This new set of workers is driven by a new set of values and job expectations. First, the Emergent Workforce is more concerned with gaining new experience and opportunities than job security, while the traditional employees are more concerned with job stability (Harding, 2000). This would also explain that emergent employees are less loyal than traditional employees. Traditional and emergent workers are defined by their vastly views on values as shown in Table 1.

Values	Traditional Worker Characteristics	Emergent Worker Characteristics
Loyalty	Defined as tenure	Defined as contribution
Job Change	Viewed as damaging to one's career	Viewed as a vehicle for growth
Career Path	Considered company's responsibility to provide	Considered employee's responsibility to pursue
Advancement	Based on length of service	Based on performance
Job Security	Required as a driver a driver of commitment	Rejected as a driver of commitment

Source: 1997, 1999, 2003 *Emerging Workforce Studies*

In the Spherion study, 88 percent of emergent employees felt that loyalty was not related to employment length while 94 percent of the traditional employees felt loyalty meant staying with a company for a long period. Emergent workers were also found to have a low tolerance for low performers and expected workers to pursue their own career development (Harding, 2000). Another key value shift among generations is their priorities. While Baby Boomer males in previous generations were more work-focused, Generation X and Y employees are more family-focused. Younger generations are also less accepting of traditional gender roles than previous generations (Harding, 2000). This Emergent Workforce also seeks a more spiritual workplace that emphasizes personal integrity and accountability (Harding, 2000). Value conflicts across generations have a bearing on good group dynamics. As more US workers migrant to an emergent paradigm, traditional workers will become a passing fad (Spherion, 2005). Thus, today's workforce is becoming more complicated to manage due to the evolution of the Emergent Workforce shown in Table 2.

Type of Employees	1997	1999	2003	2007
Emergent	20%	22%	31%	52%
Migrating	46%	49%	48%	40%
Traditional	34%	29%	21%	8%

Source: 1997, 1999, 2003 *Emerging Workforce Studies*

EMERGING LEADERSHIP ISSUES

Organizations must provide effective leadership to address these value changes. First, organizations need to communicate their organizational values to employees. Few executives take the time to explain their values; therefore, it leaves employees guessing about corporate value

systems. Today, many organizations operate under a modern cultural cloud while the vast majority of new employees operate in a pop culture. Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004) maintained that 21st century organizations must change their value creation system. They note the new system as an individual-centered co-creation of value between consumers and company. Second, leaders must exert more energy in influencing and guiding their followers about corporate values. Malphurs (2004) explains, "Though leadership is an amoral process, it is the leader who is decidedly moral or immoral." Therefore, leaders can heavily influence the buy-in of followers to organizations' values. However, a leader must be assured of his or her core values first. Leaders must then model the organizational values to employees because it critical for his credibility among his followers. Third, organizations must develop shared valued with employees. Leaders must make a conscious effort to promote these shared values within and outside of their organizations. Shared values help to unify both managers and employees on the vision and mission of an organization. According to Malphurs (2004), congruent values are the answer to these value conflicts. In mixing modern and pop culture values in organizations, incongruent values are generated. Therefore, there will be conflicting values held by the modern organization and the competing values espoused by the Emergent Workforce in the postmodern period. This could create chaos.

FUTURE AHEAD

Global competition and the shortage of workers have made diversity a center-point for most organizations. Analyzing the current and future workforce value systems will provide a good understanding of the issues associated with the creation of a new workforce. When Generation X and Echo Boomers finally assume these leadership positions, organizations may face growing tension. Apparently, the value systems do not align perfectly in the current organizational structure for most organizations. The divergent value alignments of the Emergent Workforce will create both institutional issues and innovations. New ways of leading employees and developing a new breed of leaders will be needed. Therefore, creative ways of stimulating this human capital resource asset will need to be further investigated. There are many questions to still ponder. Are organizations willing to modify their core values? Will baby boomers act like mature leaders in this organizational transformation or will they operate in a selfish manner? The future has endless possibilities. The paper highlighted the importance of the impending value system chasm between the current and future workforce for the 21st century organization. The understanding gained through this exploratory framework may help managers in evolving better management strategies for handling a transitional workforce in the public sector. This effort contributes to the current body of literature by further examining how to effectively manage corporate culture and values for 21st century organizations.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

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PROFESSIONAL MEN'S AND WOMEN'S PSYCHOLOGICAL, DEMOGRAPHIC, AND CULTURAL IMPLICATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This research requested men and women professionals to respond to a survey that assessed their personality and solicited demographic and background data. The personality assessment categorized the professionals into four behavioral patterns that are a reflection of a person's preferred behavior pattern. From the four categories one behavioral pattern showed a higher propensity to move into professional positions in business organizations than the other three categories, which has implications for company cultures. Other factors measured by the survey included: occupational positions in various industries, income level, years of experience, education, hours worked marital status, and children.

INTRODUCTION

Recent research indicates human capital and social capital represent intangible assets that when aligned with a firm's strategy produces a positive impact on a firm's competitive advantage (Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes, (2002). A more recent article in Business Horizons explains a capital framework (Luthans, 2004). This framework includes four categories of capital: economic, human, social, and psychological. Economic capital consists of tangible assets of a business as recorded on the balance sheet of a business. Human capital represents the skills, education, and experience of the employees within an organization. Social capital springs from relationships in and outside the organization, which focuses on what a person knows and who that person knows. Psychological capital springs from the inner strengths an individual possesses that permit a person to persevere and succeed. To evaluate psychological capital this survey measures the personality traits of business professionals and gathers demographic information about these professionals.

This survey was mailed to 630 professional women and men who are members of the Kansas City Women's Exchange and members of the St. Joseph Chamber of Commerce. The Women's Exchange is an organization that provides women with an opportunity to go to lunch together and attend relevant activities for the professional woman. The survey received a 19.2 percent response rate with 62 women professionals responding and 59 men professionals. Mail response rates are often between 5 or 10 percent and a 30 percent response rates is rare (Alreck & Settle, 1985). From

the survey information, the paper is divided into the introduction, review of the literature, results, conclusion and implications.

The survey identifies the primary personality characteristics of the business professional, and provides demographic information about business professionals. The demographic factors are the job title, the industry, the income level, the years of experience, the educational level, the hours worked per week, their marital status, and the percentage of professional men and women with children. The identification of the primary personality characteristics was based on the work of Marston (Marston, 1979), and the assessment used in this survey measured four primary categories: Dominance, Influential, Steady-Relationship, and Compliant-Detailed (Mohler, 1981).

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Previous research indicates that the determinants of personality are partially determined by biological heritage. For example, using the California Psychological Inventory assessment 50% of the variance in personality traits of identical twins was explained (Bouchard, Lykken, McGue, Segal & Tellegrin, 1990). To help support the genetic determinants of personality two longitudinal studies indicated personality dispositions remain stable and consistent over time (House, Howard, and Walker 1991; Kohn & Schooler, 1983). This propensity toward consistency and stability with certain types of behavior guides individuals to select occupations and situations consistent with genetic predispositions (Kendrick & Funder, 1988; Scarr & McCartney, 1983). Further research indicates a growing body of literature has developed that suggests that personality is useful in explaining and predicting how workers behave on the job (George 1992). For example, using the same personality assessment as the present study it was found there was a greater incidence of women entrepreneurs, who came from the dominant personality category, rather than from the three other personality categories: the influential, the steady-relationship, and the compliant (Krueger, 2000).

From the research on personality and the development of numerous assessments many business firms are using assessments to supplement traditional hiring practices, to evaluate employees for promotion, and for team building (Kamen 1997). This rise in the use of personality assessments is partially attributed to the increase in litigation from checking references. As a result of the litigation more and more firms are implementing non-disclosure policies and turning to probing applicants and using personality assessments to help determine work behavior, honesty, and specific personality traits (Supplement Survival Guide, 1994). Other firms such as Motorola have used the Myers Briggs Preference Indicator in the human resource department to produce information and synergy for their human resource groups (Ludeman, 1995). By using personality assessments for team building and occupational selection companies are trying to improve productivity by selecting the best individual for the job to avoid conflict and turnover (Edwards, 2006).

Although the present study includes professional men and women, other research indicates there are differences between men and women when assessing personalities. For example, by using a Meyers Briggs Type Inventory Instrument the Center for Creative Leadership identified four managerial types: the traditionalist, the catalyst, the visionary, and the troubleshooter. The traditionalist exhibits practical, factual, and realistic behavior. In contrast, the catalyst is outgoing, enthusiastic, works well with people, but seeks approval from others. Next, the visionary solves problems, and is restless, creative, unfulfilled, and is not likely to stick with the system. In contrast, the troubleshooter prefers a structured system and is less likely to move beyond the system. In analyzing these four behavior patterns researchers in the United States and in the United Kingdom found fifty-seven percent of the males came from the traditionalist category and the majority of the females were visionary (Bates & Kiersey, (1984); Vinnicombe (1987). Other studies demonstrate a similar gender basis for many personality traits (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, and Abraham, 1990; Loehlin & Nichols, 1976). However, more recent studies that focus on gender differences between female and male business owners found that female business owners adopt a different approach to management than their male counterparts. For example, in the insurance industry a survey of 1,300 women owned businesses found women business owner's value relationships with their agents and carriers more than men (Esters, 1997). Also, the Esters study revealed women have an ability to manage risk. Another study between men and women examined differences in performance, goals, strategies, and management practices in small businesses (Chaganti and Parasuraman, 1996). In the Chaganti and Parasuraman study the three performance criteria were previous year's sales, three-year employment growth and the three-year average return on assets. The study indicated women were more concerned with quality than men, and differed significantly on management practices such as formalization, use of staff, operation planning, and resource planning.

To place the gender differences in perspective, currently, women represent almost half of the U. S. labor force and hold forty-two percent of the entry level and mid-level management positions (U.S. Department of Labor, January 1996). However, less than three percent are represented in the ranks of corporate leadership (Catalyst, 1996), which perhaps partially explains the significant increase in women owned businesses in the U.S. Many of these women have invested a number of years in their careers and at midlife find what the corporation offers does not address their needs. To help explain mid-life changes for women a recent study found disparities in perceptions between the CEOs and the executive women in their organizations (Ragins, Townsend & Mattis, 1998). These perception differences help explain why women choose to leave a position or remain in a corporate environment.

RESULTS

Sixty-two women professionals responded to the survey and fifty-nine men. The first part of the survey measured the personality characteristics of the professionals using a personality

assessment that identifies the primary personality traits of individuals by measuring four distinct behavior patterns or leadership styles (Marston, 1979). The four personality patterns are titled and described as follows: dominant, influential, steady-relationship and compliant. The second part of the survey provided various demographic information: occupational title, industries represented, educational level, income level, years of experience in present position, average hours worked per week, marital status, and number of children

Personality and Demographic Patterns			
Dominant		Influential	
Overtly aggressive		Verbally Aggressive	
Hard Driving and results oriented		Enthusiastic-can motivate others	
Goal oriented		Avoids details by socializing	
Direct and judgmental		Tendency toward disorganization	
Assertive and creative		Approachable & people oriented	
Risk Taker		Optimistic and likes recognition	
Competitive		Wants to lead	
Steady-Relationship		Compliant	
Organized and systematic		Factual and technically competent	
Friendly and helpful		Reliable, accurate, systematic	
Good listener and patient		Sensitive and detail oriented	
Avoids risks		Likes routines and procedures	
Conceals emotions		Not a risk taker	
Passive Aggressive		Defensively aggressive	
Predictable and dependent		Thorough and well prepared	
Occupational Titles			
Women Professionals		Men Professionals	
Vice Presidents	8	Vice Presidents	13
Directors	11	Directors	10
Accountants	4	Accountants	5
Attorneys	3	Attorneys	5
Consultants	2	Consultants	2
Sales	2	Sales & PR	4
Psychologist	1	Psychologist	1
Social Scientist	1	Social Scientist	1

Personality and Demographic Patterns			
Net Work Engineer	1	Net Work Engineer	1
Managers	29	Managers	17
Industries Represented			
Banking		Accounting	
Not for Profit		Education	
Telecommunications		Insurance	
Health Care		Food Service	
Law		Marketing	
Educational Levels			
Women Professionals		Men Professionals	
Ph.Ds	4	Ph.Ds	4
Masters Degrees	18	Masters Degrees	20
J.Ds	6	J.Ds	6
Bachelor Degrees	28	Bachelors Degrees	25
Associate Degrees	3	Associate Degrees	2
High School	2	High School	1
Income Levels per Year			
Greater than \$60,000	27	Greater than \$60,000	40
Between \$50,000-\$59,000	10	Between \$50,000-\$59,000	10
Between \$40,000-\$49,000	18	Between \$40,000-\$49,000	3
Between \$30,000-\$39,000	2	Between \$30,000-\$39,000	2
Below \$30,000	1	Below \$30,000	3
Years of Experience in Present Position By Personality Type			
Dominant	6.4	Dominant	6.7
Influential	3.4	Influential	4.7
Relationship	13.9	Relationship	7.5
Compliant	9.8	Compliant	7.9
Average Hours Worked per Week			
Dominant	47.2	Dominant	48.5
Influential	48.8	Influential	48.8
Relationship	47.5	Relationship	49.7
Compliant	50	Compliant	51
Marital Status			

Personality and Demographic Patterns			
Married	40	Married	28
Single	8	Single	9
Divorced	9	Divorced	10
Widowed	2	Widowed	2
Children			
With children 18 or less	22	With children 18 or less	22
With children 18 or more	10	With children 18 or more	11
With no children	25	With no children	26

RESULTS SUMMARY

Although most of the demographic variables responses between men and women were close to being equal, the four primary personality assessment categories were not. The influential personality category response was 50 percent with the other three personality categories splitting the other 50 percent on an equal basis.

In the Occupational Titles category the number of men and women responding to the survey was similar from the vice president level to the net work engineer. Right after the network engineer is the manager category where 29 women responded and 17 men .

The industries represented category begins with banking in the left hand column and ends with marketing in the right hand column. Banking had the greatest number of respondents represented in the survey and marketing the least.

The educational level between professional men and women was almost identical considering PhD's, J.D's, Master Degrees, Bachelor Degrees, Associate degrees, and High School graduates. Forty four percent of professional women and men had bachelor degrees, 33 percent masters' degrees, 18 percent PhD's and J. D's, and 5 percent with an associate or high school degree. The educational levels represented in this survey are consistent with other surveys for professional women (Robichaux, 1989).

The income level comparisons for men and women indicated some differences. Thirteen more men earned \$60,000 or 18 percent more compared to women. However, 15 women or 26 percent more women earned between \$40,000 and \$49,000 than men. For the other income levels the differences between the men and women were similar with 10 women and 10 men earning between \$50,000 and \$59,000 and 5 men reported incomes below \$30,000 and 3 women.

For years of experience between the different personality categories the professional women in the steady and compliant categories averaged 9 to 14 years of service, the dominant category averaged 6.4 with the influential category the least with 3.4 year of service. The results for the men were similar to the professional women in the dominant and influential category, but the professional

men averaged less years of experience in the steady-relationship and compliant categories than the women.

For hours worked per week the results were almost identical with both professional men and women averaging very close to 50 hours per week with no substantial differences between personality categories. Marital Status was almost identical between men and women with approximately 68 percent married, 13 percent single, and 17 percent divorced with a few widowed. Forty four percent of the professional women and men did not have children.

CONCLUSION

From the survey 50 percent of the respondents fell into influential category. The expectation would have been that all four-personality categories would be equally represented among the professionals with each of the four personality categories receiving a twenty-five percent response rate. Therefore, the influential personality respondents were more likely to select a career path into professional positions, and businesses were more apt to hire the influential personality type. The question is why is the influential personality type preferred?

Individuals from the influential personality category are described per the assessment as enthusiastic, self-confident optimistic, motivators, verbally aggressive, and very social. When pursuing professional career paths these individuals satisfy a number of specific personal needs related to self-esteem and achievement. Self-esteem and achievement helps represent a psychological capital level in the employee. In addition to high self esteem and achievement, the influential person's high socialization need about what I know and whom I know further helps explain why the influential personality category has possibly more representation in the business professions. Since the influential category exhibits proactive behavior, based on extroversion, relationship skills, and communication skills, the assumption is organizations are more likely to hire the influential personality than other personality categories (Grant 2000). These individuals focus on networks and relationships more so than the other personality categories.

This networking allows the influential category to leave positions more frequently than the other personality type. For example, the influential person has less years of experience in their positions than any of the other three categories 3.4 years for women and 4.7 years for men. The other personality categories report 6.5 years in a position for the dominant category for men and women, 7.9 years for men and 9.8 for women in the compliant category, and 13.9 and 7.5 for women and men respectively. Because the influential person ranks high on extroversion and has less years of service in their position than the other categories, this extroversion indicates a propensity toward optimism, confidence, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness to experience.

In contrast to the influential personality category the steady-relationship and the compliant personality categories by definition are not as extrovert nor do they accept change as readily as the influential personality category. However, for the dominant category there is evidence among

women entrepreneurs that the dominant category has a propensity to gravitate toward starting their own business compared to the other personality categories, where as the influential person prefers an existing structured organization (Krueger, 2000)

In evaluating educational differences and occupational titles these categories are equivalent, but a difference exists between men and women on income levels. In the \$40,000- \$49,000 level 18 women responded and only three men. Since no significant educational differences existed between men and women in this study, this income disparity points toward other explanations. For example, women take a leave of absence or leave the labor force to have children, This leave of absence results in a career interruption and adversely affects promotion possibilities and leads to some differences in income levels between men and women (Tyson, 2005). The glass ceiling is another consideration.

The average hours worked per week, marital status, and the number of children did not show any significant differences, but these demographic variables do have an impact on the quality of life. Today, a professional career path requires both men and women to work more than a forty hour week, which indicates most businesses expect exempt personnel to work over-time without additional compensation. For these business professionals these time demands spill over into men and women's personal lives.. Twenty nine percent of the professional women reported they are single or divorced. Similarly, 32 percent of the professional men are single or divorced. Surprisingly, 44 percent of professional men and women don't have children. In fact, the latest Census Bureau statistics reflect a trend that women are furthering their education or entering the workforce rather than choosing to have children (Armas, 2003). These statistics raise some interesting questions about balancing professional careers, lifestyles, marriage, and family life because more women and men are choosing careers and certain lifestyles over marriage and children. The question arises whether these professionals understand the ramifications of their decisions or avoid personal decisions because of the lack of balance between personal life and the demands of the business community.

IMPLICATIONS

The results and conclusions of this survey indicates possible diversity issues in regard to personality traits, selection practices, the development of employee psychological capital, and the effect of these business practices on the culture and performance of the business (Thomas, 1996). To address these diversity issues the present survey results predicts and explains how primary personality characteristics influence professional career choices and how businesses select certain types of professionals for leadership positions (George 1992). This selection process becomes important and over time and represents a firm's psychological capital, which helps determine the nature or diversity of the organization (Schaubroeck, Ganster, and Jones 1998). Initially, the values, philosophy, and culture of an organization are influenced and determined by personality

characteristics of its professional leaders (Schneider 1987). However, over time the organization evolves and hopefully fosters professional development that builds upon the human and social capital present in the organization and then moves the employees toward the development of their psychological capital (Luthans, 2004). This psychological capital (confidence, optimism, resiliency, conscientiousness) in turn influences the culture of the organization (Edwards, 2000). For example, Altera Corporation uses personality assessments to retrain its pushy sales personnel to become better listeners and to become more empathetic to their customer needs. Altera's approach indicates some corporations are assessing each employee's primary personality strengths and then encouraging their personnel to move outside their personality comfort zone. This training improves an employee's psychological capital and also, has an effect on an organization's strategic planning, strategic decisions, and operational decisions, which then affects the degree of success or failure of the organization. As a result organizations need to address diversity issues in the selection and hiring process based on personality preferences. Furthermore, perhaps a balance between an employee's personal life and career needs attention. Maybe 50 hour work weeks for exempt personnel adversely impacts employee productivity, turnover, marriage, and the family,

There are some limitations to this study because the study was limited to the Midwest and did not include other sections of the country. Although the sample was random, it represents a cross-section of the industries and businesses. However, the sample does not address hiring processes for each organization or internal procedures within each organization that address the selection of teams and the selection of personnel for managerial positions. There is a possibility response bias may present. However, the response percentage from the mail survey was well above normal. Since the number of female and male responses was almost equal on a number of demographic variables, it is assumed that any response bias is minimal.

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