JOURNAL OF ORGANIZATIONAL
CULTURE, COMMUNICATIONS AND CONFLICT

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A STUDY OF THE MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP STYLE PREFERRED BY IT SUBORDINATES

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ABSTRACT

The current study examined the Transformational, Transactional, and Passive/Avoidant Leadership styles as defined by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) and how they are perceived by subordinates in predicting subordinate Extra Effort, manager Effectiveness, and Satisfaction with management. One hundred fifty IT professionals from AITP, Association of Information Technology Professionals, were administered the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X-Short form (MLQ 5X-Short). The survey measured all nine full range leadership variables and results were analyzed using multiple regression.

Three hypotheses examined the relationship between the subordinate's perception of the leadership style of IT managers and one of three dependent measures: predicting subordinate Extra Effort, manager Effectiveness, and Satisfaction with management. Partial support was found for all three hypotheses. In the first, Transformational Leadership and Passive/Avoidant Leadership, but not Transactional Leadership was able to predict Extra Effort. In the second, Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership (via a slightly modified "reversed" form as well as the two subscales individually), and Passive/Avoidant Leadership were able to predict management Effectiveness. In the last, Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership (reversed and subscales), were able to predict subordinates' Satisfaction with their leaders. Most findings were consistent with existing literature. In addition, this study also identified several areas of further study.

INTRODUCTION

Since the 1960s and 1970s, the world has seen tremendous technological and social changes. The world has figuratively, gotten smaller, and has become more complex and inter-related (Friedman, 2005). Today, organizations have to be more flexible, more nimble and more adept than ever before. Managers must not only need to be involved in the day-to-day activities of their company but they must also effectively provide vision that will lead, inspire, and motivate employees. This vision will be necessary to help others embrace change, create new products, improve processes, lower costs, and be more competitive in a global economy (Friedman, 2005).

Informational Technology (IT) is a critical piece of any business's operations and strategic planning. Technology is a competitive advantage as it enhances customer service, improves and

streamlines processes, reduces costs, shortens the time to get new products to production, and attracts new customers. A company's IT effort is supported by such IT professionals as systems analysts, developers, programmers, technicians, project leaders, etc. These IT professionals support and maintain current systems. They build new applications and integrate them with other systems already in place. Their technical expertise is extremely critical to a company's success and it can become quickly out-of-date. IT professionals have a need to continually grow and learn about new upgrades, new enhancements, and new directions in IT. Choosing the wrong path in IT can cost millions of dollars and force a company to fall behind the competition.

One key element of success for a company is for leaders to manage and motivate their IT employees to reach their maximum potential, to be engaged, to embrace change, and to make good technical decisions. Leaders need to do more than just manage the day to day operations. Leaders need to provide guidance that encourages employees to take on more ownership of issues and problems, to think out of the box more to solve business concerns, and to demonstrate self-sacrifice for the good of the team and company. What kind of leadership is necessary to help employees transform themselves, to demonstrate personal sacrifice for the benefit of their company, and to help their company move forward to the next level and beyond? This is a critical question for business. Leadership can determine the success or failure of an organization.

Research has indicated that leadership style can influence employees' willingness to exert Extra Effort, job Satisfaction, burnout, and productivity (Burns, 1987; Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993). Burns (1987) and Bass (1985) along with many others believe that transformational leadership is a key to our future success. Transformational leadership can positively affect employees' willingness to exert Extra Effort, Satisfaction with their supervisor, and perception of supervisor Effectiveness (Bass, 1985; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). Burns and Bass have identified a model that focuses on three key types of leadership: Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Laissez-Faire Leadership (Burns, 1987; Bass, 1985). Through continued research, this model continues to advance and current researchers have found it helpful to use the term Passive/Avoidant Leadership instead of Laissez-Faire Leadership as one of the three types of leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999).

Transformational Leadership motivates workers and appeals to followers' ideals and moral values. Transformational leaders inspire others, create vision, and set direction. This approach would encourage greater commitment, loyalty, trust, and respect from employees and increase the overall effectiveness of the organization (Bass, 1985). Transactional Leadership motivates by appealing to individual desires. Passive/Avoidant or Laissez-Faire Leadership delays decisions, is not accountable or responsible to others in achieving goals, and takes a "hands-off" approach to management (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Although there has been a substantial amount of research done on Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership and Laissez-Faire Leadership since the 1980's, there has been limited amount of research conducted in the IT area. Much of this research has focused more on

employee burnout, leadership styles of IT project managers, and the lack of skills IT management has to lead people (Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse, 2000; Sumner, Bock, & Giamartino, 2006; Hetland, Sandal, & Backer Johnsen, 2007; Thite, 1999, 2000). It is important to investigate the perceptions that IT subordinates have of their managers and to identify the style of leadership under which IT subordinates perform the best.

BACKGROUND

The modern day body of thought on Transactional and Transformational Leadership began to develop in the 1970s and 1980s. Downton (1973) was recognized as one of the first to use the phrase, "transformational leadership". Burns (1978) soon followed with a focus on Transformational Leadership and Transactional Leadership in the political arena. Burns further defined the concepts of Transactional and Transformational Leadership and looked at them as opposites (Burns 1978). Bass added to these concepts but believed that managers could demonstrate both depending on the situation (Bass, 1985). Later, Bass et al. (1987) and Waldman, Bass, and Yammarino (1990) noted that Transformational Leadership was an extension of Transactional Leadership. Much of the research on Transformational Leadership today goes back to the original works of Burns and Bass (Bass, 1990).

Burns and Bass (1990) define Transformational Leadership as leadership that motivates and appeals to followers' ideals and moral values to do more. Transformational Leaders look to inspire, to set direction and vision, to empower subordinates to participate and take the initiative in changing the organization. Transformational Leaders are also charismatic leaders that lead, inspire, and improve behavior and productivity (Bass, 1985; Tucker & Russell, 2004). As workers think beyond themselves, they would then provide Extra Effort to do the work, take more Satisfaction from their jobs, be Effective in getting the job done, and increase productivity. Transformational Leaders take a real interest in the well being of their employees (Howell & Avolio, 1993). Bass (1985) believed that Transformational Leadership would result in employees performing beyond expectations and that improvement could be due to the followers' commitment to the leader and their sense of purpose and mission. Followers would demonstrate Extra Effort, Satisfaction, Effectiveness, and overall productivity in their jobs. They would also demonstrate more trust and respect toward their leader.

On the other hand, Transactional Leadership motivated subordinates by appealing to their personal desires. Burns described this as a "favor-for-favor" exchange (Burns, 1978). Rewards are based on expected performance. Transactional leaders focus on doing things right; while Transformational leaders focus on doing the right things (Bass, 1985). Bass (1985) found evidence for five leadership factors: Individualized Consideration, Charismatic Leadership, Intellectual Stimulation, Contingent Rewards, and Management-By-Exception. Transformational Leadership consisted of the first three: Charismatic Leadership, Individualized Consideration, and Intellectual

Stimulation. Transactional Leadership consisted of the last two factors: Contingent Rewards and Management-By-Exception.

Based on additional research approximately between 1985 and 1995, the theory was expanded to denote three types of leadership behavior: Transformational, Transactional, and nontransactional Laissez-Faire Leadership or Passive Leadership and is referred to as the full range of leadership (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Also, the theory expanded to nine factors: five transformational factors, three transactional factors, and one nontransactional Leadership factor (Hater & Bass, 1988; Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Howell & Avolio, 1993, Den Hartog et al., 1997; Avolio et al., 1999; Bass et al., 1999; Goodwin, Wofford, & Whittington, 2001; Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Barbuto Jr., 2005; Rowold & Heinitz, 2007).

Lowe et al. (1996), DeGroot, Kiker and Cross (2000), Dumdum et al. (2002), and Judge and Piccolo (2004) all conducted meta-analysis of multiple studies. Together, they provided a review of hundreds of studies completed over the past twenty years. Over that time, it appeared that there has been fairly consistent support for the key factors of Transformational Leadership: Charisma/Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Yet, the theory continues to be modified. Antonakis et al. (2003) suggested using Idealized Influence instead of Charisma and that Idealized Influence should be separated into two parts: Attributed and Behavior. Hater and Bass (1988) noted that Management-By-Exception should be divided into two parts: Active and Passive. Avolio and Bass (2004), Avolio et al. (1999), Geyer and Steyrer (1998), and Den Hartog et al. (1997) suggested using the term "Passive/Avoidant" instead of "Laissez-Faire" because it was more descriptive as the third leadership type, that Management-By-Exception (active) was a better fit with Transactional Leadership, and Management-By-Exception (passive) was a better fit with laissez faire as two subscales under the third type of leadership, now identified as Passive/Avoidant.

FACTORS WITHIN EACH LEADERSHIP STYLE

There are five key factors of Transformational Leadership. Idealized Influence (attributed) refers to charisma, being confident and powerful, focusing on ethics, and followers identifying with the leader. Idealized Influence (behavior) refers to charismatic actions focused on values and missions, as well as having a trustworthy role model to follow (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). This work extended House's view of charisma and his focus on the interaction between the leader and follower (Bass, 1985; House, 1977). Inspirational Motivation allows leaders to share a positive vision of the future and challenge followers to high standards and morals. Through Intellectual Stimulation, leaders question current traditions and beliefs and look for new ways of doing things. Questioning beliefs is encouraged. Employees are encouraged to

think for themselves. Through Individualized Consideration, leaders deal with people as individuals and focus on individual strengths and development areas and help them achieve the higher parts of Maslow's needs hierarchy (Maslow, 1954). They helped improve worker Satisfaction (Bass, 1985; Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003).

There are two key factors of Transactional Leadership. Contingent Reward allows leaders to clarify expectations, make promises, negotiate, and reward for successful performance. Management-By-Exception (active) allows leaders to monitor performance and take action if performance deviates. It also is pro-active in trying to prevent mistakes (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999; Geyer & Steyrer, 1998; Den Hartog et al., 1997).

There are two key factors of Passive/Avoidant Leadership. Management-By-Exception (passive) allows leaders to monitor performance and take action if performance deviates. This occurs when leaders wait to jump in until problems become serious. They wait until mistakes are brought to their attention. Laissez-Faire describes the leader that avoids responsibilities, fails to follow up on issues, and basically demonstrates a lack of any kind of leadership (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999: Geyer & Steyrer, 1998; Sarver, 2008).

MEASURING OUTCOMES OF DIFFERENT LEADERSHIP STYLES

Bass's model proposes that Transformational Leadership will contribute more to a follower's or worker's Extra Effort in doing the work, Effectiveness of getting the job done, and Job Satisfaction with their management than Transactional Leadership or Nontransactional Laissez-Faire (Passive/Avoidant) Leadership (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999). Extra Effort pertains to leaders getting others to do more than expected, to try harder, and be more productive than they thought they could. Effectiveness pertains to the ability of the leader in meeting individual, group, and organizational needs, and leading the group and getting results. Satisfaction pertains to follower Satisfaction with the leader and how the leader helps followers to work with others in a satisfying way. All three outcomes are from the view of the employee (Bass 1985). Others have also conducted research on the effect of Transformational Leadership on Effort, Satisfaction, and Effectiveness with similar results (Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Medley & Larochelle, 1995; Densten, 2002; Özaralli, 2003; Chen, 2004).

Bass created the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to measure the effect of the three independent variables of Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Nontransactional Laissez-Faire or Passive/Avoidant Leadership upon the three dependent variables of Extra Effort, Satisfaction, and Effectiveness (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004). Originally, the survey included 73 items and was based on the original five factors identified by Bass (1985). Over the last twenty years, a number of factor models have been used by researchers and items have been changed, added, or eliminated.

Although the MLQ survey has been by far the most often used tool when measuring transformational leadership, it also has had its critics (Dumdum et al., 2002). Hater and Bass (1988) made a major change when they split management-by-exception into active and passive components. Den Hartog, Muijen, and Koopman (1997) altered their scale when they found that internal consistency was missing from two of the three scales. Carless (1998) indicated that the MLQ survey does not measure separate transformational behaviors but instead, it measured a single construct of Transformational Leadership. Tejeda, Scandura, and Pillai (2001) questioned the reliability and validity of the MLQ instrument and recommended using a 27 item reduced version. Multiple studies documented the concern that Contingent Reward was related to Transformational Leadership (Tejeda, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001; Waldman, et al., 1990; Goodwin et al., 2001). Avolio, Bass, & Jung (1999) acknowledged several shortcomings of the survey and after additional studies, revised it to 36 items. Rafferty and Griffin (2004) has gone further to recommend that the five components of Transformational Leadership should be: Vision, Inspirational Communication, Intellectual Stimulation, Supportive Leadership, and Personal Recognition.

Today, the MLQ-5X contains 45 items. It takes approximately 15 minutes to complete and is at a U.S. ninth-grade reading level (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Of those 45, 36 items were based on the current nine components that make up the full range of leadership noted earlier. The other nine items assess three leadership outcomes (Antonakis et al., 2003). Antonakis et al. (2003) and Barge and Schlueter (1991) also support the current MLQ-5X as being a valid and reliable instrument.

MLQ RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

The MLQ developed by Bass and Avolio (1995) was the instrument administered to the sample population. Bass and Avolio (1995) used two confirmatory analyses to test the construct validity and refine the original instrument into its present form. There has also been a large body of research done since Bass created the original instrument in 1985.

Lowe, Kroech, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) did an extensive review of the results of the MLQ tool. This review focused on five factors of the MLQ: Charisma, Individualized Consideration, Intellectual Stimulation, Contingent Reward, and Management-by-Exception. Internal reliability was good as the Mean Cronbach scale obtained for the five scales tested were 0.92 for Charisma, 0.88 for Individualized Consideration, 0.86 for Intellectual Stimulation, 0.82 for Contingent Reward, and 0.65 for Management-by-Exception. The mean raw correlation and the mean corrected correlation values were 0.623 and 0.713 for Charisma, 0.528 and 0.615 for Individualized Consideration, 0.512 and 0.602 for Intellectual Stimulation, 0.338 and 0.408 for Contingent Reward, and 0.040 and 0.054 for Management-by-Exception. Across the studies, findings showed that Charisma was the variable most related to leader Effectiveness. Management-by-Exception showed mixed results. Overall, this study provided strong reliability and validity support for the MLQ instrument (Lowe et al., 1996).

Dumdum, Lowe, and Avolio (2002) completed a later study that was an update to the work of Lowe et al. (1996) and focused on twelve scales of the MLQ: Attributed Charisma, Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration, Transformational Leadership, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception (active), Management-by-Exception (passive), Management-by-Exception, Laissez Faire, and Transactional Leadership. Internal reliability was good as the Mean Cronbach scale obtained for eleven of the twelve scales tested were above 0.70. Management-by-Exception (passive) was the one exception but it was at 0.69 (Dumdum et al., 2002). The mean raw correlation and the mean corrected correlation values reported for Effectiveness were 0.55 and 0.68 for Charisma, 0.52 and 0.68 for Idealized Influence, 0.46 and 0.55 for Inspirational Motivation, 0.47 and 0.59 for Intellectual Stimulation, 0.47 and 0.59 for Individualized Consideration, 0.43 and 0.50 for Transformational Leadership, 0.41 and 0.51 for Contingent Reward, 0.04 and 0.05 for Management-by-Exception (active), -0.26 and -0.34 for Management-by-Exception (passive), -0.16 and -0.21 for Management-by-Exception, -0.30 and -0.38 for Laissez faire, and 0.17 and 0.20 for Transactional Leadership (Dumdum et al., 2002).

The results of the Dumdum et al. (2002) study were consistent with those found by Lowe et al. (1996). The results were very similar between the two for Charisma, Individual Consideration, and Intellectual Stimulation. Contingent Reward was a little different but still positive (0.56 for the Dumdum study and 0.41 for the Lowe study). The biggest difference was Management-by-Exception (-0.30 for the Dumdum study and 0.05 for the Lowe study). It is important to note that since 1996, this scale has often been replaced by two subscales, Management-by-Exception (active) and Management-by-Exception (passive). Secondly, Management-by-Exception (active) in Dumdum's study was close to the Management-by-Exception in Lowe's study (0.08 to 0.05). Dumdum et al. (2002) suggested these differences may be due to the several changes that were made to the MLQ tool since 1996. However, the overall results of the meta-study still provide strong support for the MLQ tool.

Judge and Piccolo (2004) conducted a third meta-study and looked at the full range of transformational, transactional, and Laissez-Faire leadership. They identified 87 studies that met their criteria of use. This review focused on five leadership behaviors: Transformational Leadership, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception (active), Management-by-Exception (passive), and Laissez-Faire.

The mean corrected correlation values was 0.44 for Transformational Leadership, 0.39 for Contingent Reward, 0.15 for Management-by-Exception (active), -.18 Management-by-Exception (passive), and -.37 for Laissez-Faire. There continues to be strong broad support for the validity of Transformational Leadership and Contingent Reward. However, in this study, Transformational and Transactional Leadership appear to be so highly related that it is difficult to separate. This finding provides additional support for using Contingent Reward and Management-By-Exception (active)

as subscales for Transactional Leadership and Management-By-Exception (passive) and Laissez-Faire subscales for Passive/Avoidant Leadership.

Note that charisma was used in a variety of studies. However, the model continues to change and grow. As noted earlier, Antonakis et al. (2003) suggested using Idealized Influence instead of Charisma and also separating Idealized Influence into two parts: Attributed and Behavior. Hater and Bass (1988) recommended separating Management-By-Exception into two parts: Active and Passive. Avolio and Bass (2004) recommended moving Management-By-Exception (active) under Transactional Leadership and move Management-By-Exception (passive) and Laissez-Faire together as two subscales under the third type of leadership, Passive/Avoidant.

Moving forward, the independent variables for this study were: Transformational Leadership, composed of Idealized Influence (attributed), Idealized Influence (behavior), Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration; Transactional Leadership, composed of Contingent Reward and Management-By-Exception (active); and Passive/Avoidant Leadership, composed of Management-By-Exception (passive) and Laissez-Faire. The dependent variables were: Extra Effort, IT manager Effectiveness, and Satisfaction.

SAMPLE POPULATION AND HYPOTHESES

IT employees are one key to a company's future success and this research looks to identify the leadership style that manages and motivates their IT employees to be the most productive, to put forth the greatest Extra Effort and obtain the greatest Satisfaction. To do that, this study focused on the 3,000 members of the Association of Information Technology Professionals (AITP) (www.aitp.org). AITP provides educational opportunities and professional networking with almost 3,000 IT experienced peers, IT professionals, educators, and students. AITP members work in every aspect of IT including mainframe systems, PCs, and PC based network systems. They work in colleges and universities, military, government, and business and have different education levels, technical backgrounds, and ages. This study focused on the full range of leadership that includes Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Laissez-Faire or Passive/Avoidant Leadership. Three hypotheses examined the relationship between the subordinate's perception of the leadership style of IT managers and one of three dependent measures: predicting subordinate Extra Effort, manager Effectiveness, and Satisfaction with management.

DATA COLLECTION AND PREPARATION

For this study, the 45 questions from the MLQ-5X instrument and eight multiple choice demographic questions were developed into an online electronic survey using www.zoomerang.com. The amount of time to take this survey was approximately fourteen minutes. Permission to use the

MLQ-5X survey instrument was obtained from the publishers, Mind Garden, Inc. (www.Mindgarden.com).

The AITP office sent out an email to each association member requesting them to take the survey through a link, documented the significance of the survey, noted that the survey had the support of AITP leadership, and that the findings would be shared with the membership. Overall, three emails were sent to the membership asking for their participation. A link to the survey was also included in the AITP newsletter located on their website. The survey was made available for thirty days in the fall of 2008 and each member was allowed to respond once. At the end of the thirty days, 150 out of approximately 3,000 AITP members completed the survey, an estimated 5% return. Again, multiple attempts were made to increase this low response rate. With such a low response rate, only whole sample analysis can be conducted.

RESULTS

The mean and standard deviation for each leadership type, subscale, and dependent variable were found in Table 1. Note that of the three independent variables, Transformational Leadership had the highest average rating followed by Transactional Leadership followed by Passive/Avoidant Leadership. Generally, the five subscales of Transformational Leadership had the highest means. The exception was Contingent Reward. Contingent Reward, a subscale of Transactional Leadership had a higher mean than two subscales of Transformational Leadership: Intellectual Stimulation and Individualized Consideration. The subscales of Passive/Avoidant Leadership had the lowest average ratings of all. Based on these average ratings, it appears that responders had the perception their immediate supervisor demonstrated more often the qualities of a transformational leader than either a transactional or passive/avoidant leader. There was also the perception that the responders saw the qualities of a passive/avoidant leader the least often of the three leadership types. These statistics are similar to those based on the earlier work of Bass and Avolio (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999).

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Independent and Dependent Variables (n=150)		
First column is blank	Mean (scale:0-4)	Standard Deviations
Transformational Leadership	2.45	0.99
* Idealized Influence (Attributed)	2.54	1.16
* Idealized Influence (Behavior)	2.45	1.07
* Inspirational Motivation	2.73	1.08
* Intellectual Stimulation	2.27	1.01
* Individualized Consideration	2.26	1.16
Transactional Leadership	2.05	0.65

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Independent and Dependent Variables (n=150)		
First column is blank	Mean (scale:0-4)	Standard Deviations
* Contingent Reward	2.38	1.01
* Management by Exception (Active)	1.72	1.01
Passive/Avoidant	1.36	0.93
* Management by Exception (Passive)	1.58	1.01
* Laissez-Faire	1.15	1.01
Extra Effort	2.30	1.29
Effectiveness	2.57	1.12
Satisfaction	2.50	1.34

REGRESSION MODELS

Once the data were reviewed and the descriptive characteristics identified, several linear regressions were run. Correlations between leadership type subscales and dependent variables were calculated. These correlations serve as zero-order regressions and a 0.01 significant level was used. The framework for this study was based on the work of Bass and Avolio (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999). A complete list of all correlations between individual independent variables, subscales, and dependent variables are available from the author. All leadership types and scales correlated significantly with the dependent measures, meaning that each independent variable by itself predicts the level of each dependent variable. Full regression models were run using the three independent measures as indicators.

The two subscales of Transactional Leadership were correlated with the dependent variables in opposite directions. Contingent Reward correlated positively (0.772, 0.811 and 0.809) with all three dependent variables (Extra Effort, Effectiveness and Satisfaction, respectively). However, Management-by-Exception (active) correlated negatively (-.269, -.391 and -.395) with all three dependent variables. A review of the survey items showed that Management-By-Exception (active) questions were phrased in an opposite manner as the Contingent Reward questions. In order for both subscales to correlate positively, Management-by-Exception (active) was reversed and Transactional Leadership was recalculated. Another set of full regression models were run with the three independent variables as indicators except Transactional Leadership (reversed) was used instead of Transactional Leadership.

Intercorrelations amongst independent variables are quite common but they create problems when interpreting regression results. For instance, the zero-order regression between an independent and dependent variable may be significant but when independent variables were added to the model, the original independent variable may no longer be significant. This is often due to one of the other independent variables accounting for the same variability or collinearity. Care must be taken in the

interpretation of the regression results. Table 2 shows the correlations between Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, Passive/Avoidant Leadership, and Transactional Leadership (reversed) (with Management-by-Exception (active) reversed). Results indicate the reversal of the Management-by-Exception (active) subscale showed an increased correlation of Transactional Leadership with Transformational Leadership (0.784) and Passive/Avoidant Leadership (-0.579).

Table 2: Correlations Between Independent Variables (n=150)			
	Transformational	Transactional and (Transactional (reversed))	Passive-Avoidant
Transformational	1.000		
Transactional and (Transactional (reversed))	0.505** (0.784**)	1.000	
Passive-Avoidant	-0.648**	-0.256** (-0.579**)	1.000
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Hypothesis One: *There is a relationship between the subordinate's perception of the leadership style of IT managers and the subordinate's perception of IT managers to inspire extra effort.*

The significant zero-order correlations suggest that leadership type might be able to predict level of Extra Effort. There was a strong correlation between Transformational Leadership and Extra Effort (0.840). Transformational Leadership subscales of Idealized Influence (attributed), Idealized Influence (behavior), Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration also had strong correlations (0.839, 0.654, 0.691, 0.809, and 0.804, respectively).

As expected, Transactional Leadership had a much lower correlation of 0.473. As noted earlier, the two Transactional Leadership subscales were correlated in opposite directions with Extra Effort and may be the reason for the lower correlation. Contingent Reward had a high positive correlation of 0.772 and was higher than two Transformational Leadership subscales: Idealized Influence (Behavior) (0.654) and Inspirational Motivation (0.691). The relatively high value of Contingent Reward was also consistent with other research (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Den Hartog et al., 1997, Judge et al., 2004). On the other hand, the second subscale, Management-By-Exception (active), had a correlation of -0.269. Results from several documented studies have shown that this correlation has been positive or negative (Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Judge et al., 2004).

Passive/Avoidant Leadership had a negative correlation with Extra Effort (-0.634). Its two subscales, Management-By-Exception (passive) and Laissez-Faire, were consistent with each other and had correlations of -0.539 and -0.627, respectively. These negative correlations have been

consistent with other research (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Den Hartog et al., 1997, Judge et al., 2004).

A linear regression on the full model of leadership was conducted to predict the effect of Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Passive/Avoidant Leadership on Extra Effort. The full model of leadership was significant overall (F(3,146)=128.015, p=0). R^2 for this model was 0.725. However, significance tests for individual independent leadership variables were not all significant. Transformational Leadership (t=10.786, p=0) and Passive/Avoidant Leadership (t=-2.863, p=.005) were significant, but Transactional Leadership was not. Transformational Leadership was positively correlated to Extra Effort (t=10.786, p=0), while Passive/Avoidant Leadership was negatively correlated (t=-2.863, p=.005.

An examination of the part and partial correlations show that there was little relationship between Transactional Leadership and Extra Effort once Transformational Leadership and Passive/Avoidant Leadership were controlled for in the model. This effect was most likely due to the collinearity that exists between the independent variables since, by itself, Transactional Leadership produced significant results (F(1, 148)=42.689, p=0).

A model without Transactional Leadership was run to see if there was a significant change in the regression coefficients. The change was nominal, suggesting the contribution of Transactional Leadership not already accounted for in the other two leadership styles was not significant.

Since the two components of Transactional Leadership were correlated with Extra Effort in an opposite manner, a model was run substituting its two subscales: Contingent Reward and Management-by-Exception (active). Neither subscale significantly contributed to the model, individually or together, suggesting that the full model and not the subscale model best predicts Extra Effort.

The full regression model was also run using Transactional Leadership (reversed) instead of Transactional Leadership. While the full model was significant overall (F(3,146)=124.975, p=0) and R^2 was 0.720, Transactional Leadership still did not significantly contribute to Extra Effort. Both Transformational Leadership and Passive/Avoidant Leadership were significant. Transformational Leadership correlated positively (t=9.547, p = 0) and Passive/Avoidant Leadership correlated negatively with Extra Effort (t=-2.618, p=.01). An examination of the part and partial correlations show that there was little relationship between Transactional Leadership and Extra Effort once Transformational Leadership was controlled for in the model. This effect is most likely due to the collinearity that exists between the independent variables since, by itself, Transactional Leadership produces significant results (F(1, 148)=124.112, p=0).

In summary, there is partial support for this hypothesis. A significant relationship between Transformational Leadership, Passive/Avoidant Leadership and Extra Effort was found. Transformational Leadership had the strongest correlation with Extra Effort and supports the concept that subordinates prefer to exert Extra Effort when led by Transformational Leadership. Passive/Avoidant Leadership had a significant opposite effect on Extra Effort and was the least

effective form of leadership to inspire Extra Effort by subordinates. However, Transactional Leadership, when considered with the other two leadership types, does not appear to inspire Extra Effort. The results for Transformational Leadership and Passive/Avoidant Leadership were consistent with the literature review. However, the result for Transactional Leadership predicting Extra Effort was not (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Lowe et al., 1996, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Den Hartog et al., 1997, Judge et al., 2004).

Hypothesis Two: *There is a relationship between the subordinate's perception of the leadership style of the IT manager and the subordinate's perception of IT manager effectiveness.*

All zero-order correlations for all three leadership independent variables, subscales, and the manager Effectiveness dependent variable were significant (p=>.01). At first glance, this suggests that leadership type might be able to predict level of Effectiveness. There was a strong correlation between Transformational Leadership and management Effectiveness (0.886). Transformational Leadership subscales of Idealized Influence (attributed), Idealized Influence (behavior), Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration also had strong correlations (0.887, 0.706, 0.781, 0.761, and 0.861, respectively).

As expected, Transactional Leadership had a much lower correlation of 0.406. As noted earlier, the two Transactional Leadership subscales were correlated in opposite directions with Effectiveness and may be the reason for the lower correlation. The first subscale, Contingent Reward, had a high correlation of 0.881 and was higher than four Transformational Leadership subscales: Idealized Influence (Behavior) (0.706), Inspirational Motivation (0.781), Intellectual Stimulation (0.761), and Individualized Consideration (0.861). The relatively high value of Contingent Reward was also consistent with other research (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Den Hartog et al., 1997, Judge et al., 2004).

The second subscale, Management-By-Exception (active), had a correlation of -0.391. Results from various documented studies have shown that this could be positive or negative (Yammarino & Bass, 1990, Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Den Hartog et al., 1997, Judge et al., 2004).

Passive/Avoidant Leadership had a negative correlation with Effectiveness of -0.711. Its two subscales, Management-By-Exception (passive) and Laissez-Faire, were consistent with each other and had values of -0.577 and -0.733, respectively. These negative values have been consistent with other research (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Hater & Bass, 1988, Avolio et al., 1999, Yammarino & Bass, 1990, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Den Hartog et al., 1997, Judge et al., 2004).

A linear regression on the full model of leadership was conducted to predict the effect of Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Passive/Avoidant Leadership on Effectiveness. The full model of leadership was significant overall (F(3,146)=218.573, p=0). R^2 for

this model was 0.818. However, significance tests for individual independent leadership variables were not all significant. Transformational Leadership (t=14.388, p=0) and Passive/Avoidant Leadership (t=-4.995, p=.000) were significant, but Transactional Leadership was not. Note that Transformational Leadership was positively correlated to Effectiveness (t=14.388, p=.0), while Passive/Avoidant Leadership was negatively correlated, (t=-4.995, p=.0).

An examination of the part and partial correlations show that there was little relationship between Transactional Leadership and Effectiveness once Transformational Leadership and Passive/Avoidant Leadership were controlled for in the model. Again, this effect is most likely due to the collinearity that exists between the independent leadership variables since, by itself, Transactional Leadership produced significant results (F(1, 148)=29.269, p=0).

Since the two components of Transactional Leadership were correlated with Effectiveness in an opposite manner, a model was run substituting its two subscales: Contingent Reward and Management-By-Exception (active). This model turned out to be a better model than the one with the three leadership scales. The model was significant overall (F(4,145)=173.54, p=0). R^2 for this model was 0.827. Contingent Reward was positively correlated with Effectiveness (t=2.046, p=.05) while Management-By-Exception (active) was negatively correlated (t=-2.12, p=.05).

The full regression model was also run using Transactional Leadership (reversed) instead of Transactional Leadership. This time, not only was the full model of leadership significant overall (F(3,146)=231.727, p=0) and R^2 was 0.826 but all three individual independent variables were significant (Transformational Leadership (t=10.339, p=0); Transactional Leadership (reversed) (t=2.799, p=0.006) and Passive/Avoidant Leadership (t=-4.754, p=0)).

In summary, there is partial support for this hypothesis. A significant relationship between Transformational Leadership, Passive/Avoidant Leadership and Effectiveness were found. Transformational Leadership had the strongest correlation with Effectiveness and supports the concept that subordinates believe that managers are more effective when they provide Transformational leadership. Passive/Avoidant Leadership had a significant opposite effect and is the least effective form of leadership. The results for Transformational Leadership and Passive/Avoidant Leadership were consistent with much of the literature (Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Lowe et al., 1996, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Den Hartog et al., 1997, Judge et al., 2004).

At first glance, Transactional Leadership doesn't appear to be significant. Yet, the two subscales were significant and when the Management-By-Exception (active) scale was reversed and recalculated, Transactional Leadership became significant. These results suggest that the construction of the scale might be the reason that Transactional Leadership was not always significant. This indicates that the Transactional Leadership questions, scales, and subscales needs to be explored further. Results for Transactional Leadership and related subscales were somewhat different from the literature (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Judge et al., 2004).

Hypothesis Three: *There is a relationship between the subordinate's perception of the leadership style of IT managers and the subordinate's perception of IT manager's ability to enhance subordinate satisfaction with their manager.*

All zero-order correlations for all three leadership independent variables, subscales, and the Satisfaction dependent variable were significant (p=>.01). At first glance, this suggests that leadership type might be able to predict the level of Satisfaction. There was a strong correlation between Transformational Leadership and subordinate Satisfaction (0.869). Transformational Leadership subscales of Idealized Influence (attributed), Idealized Influence (behavior), Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration also had strong correlations (0.879, 0.718, 0.757, 0.717, and 0.848, respectively).

As expected, Transactional Leadership had a much lower correlation of 0.402. As noted earlier, the two Transactional Leadership subscales were correlated in opposite directions with Satisfaction and may be the reason for the lower correlation. Contingent Reward had a high correlation of 0.809 and was higher than three Transformational Leadership subscales: Idealized Influence (Behavior) (0.718), Inspirational Motivation (0.757), and Intellectual Stimulation (0.717). The relatively high value of Contingent Reward was consistent with other research (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Den Hartog et al., 1997, Judge et al., 2004). On the other hand, the second subscale, Management-By-Exception (active), had a correlation of -0.395. Results from the various documented studies have shown that this could be positive or negative and that both have often been documented in the literature (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Den Hartog et al., 1997, Judge et al., 2004).

Passive/Avoidant Leadership had a negative correlation of -0.618 with the subordinate's perception of the IT manager's ability to enhance subordinate Satisfaction. Its two subscales, Management-By-Exception (passive) and Laissez-Faire, were consistent with each other and had values of -0.497 and -0.642, respectively. These negative values have been consistent with other research (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Den Hartog et al., 1997, Judge et al., 2004).

A linear regression on the full model of leadership was conducted to predict the effect of Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Passive/Avoidant Leadership on Satisfaction. The full model was significant overall ($F(3,146)=155.475$, p=0) and R^2 for this model was 0.762. However, Transformational Leadership (t=13.917, p=0) was the only significant indicator. Passive/Avoidant Leadership and Transactional Leadership were not.

An examination of the part and partial correlations show that there was little relationship between Transactional Leadership, Passive/Avoidant Leadership and Satisfaction once Transformational Leadership was controlled for in the model. This effect was most likely due to the collinearity that exists between the independent variables since, by themselves, Transactional

Leadership produces significant results (F(1, 148)=28.501, p=0) as well as Passive/Avoidant Leadership (F(1, 148)=91.377, p=0). Transformational leadership was positively correlated to Satisfaction (t=13.917, p=0) and although not significant, Transactional Leadership and Passive/Avoidant Leadership were negatively correlated with Satisfaction.

Additional regression runs were made. Since Transactional Leadership consisted of two subscales, Contingent Reward and Management-By-Exception (active), and Passive/Avoidant Leadership consisted of Management-By-Exception (passive) and Laissez-Faire subscales, two additional models were run. The first run substituted the Transactional Leadership subscales Contingent Reward and Management-By-Exception (active) for Transactional Leadership. The second run kept the two Transactional Leadership subscales and substituted the two Passive/Avoidant Leadership subscales Management-By-Exception (passive) and Laissez-Faire for Passive/Avoidant Leadership.

When only the Transactional Leadership subscales were substituted, the model turned out to be only slightly better than the one with the three leadership scales. The model was significant overall (F(4,145)=128.616, p=0). R^2 for this model was 0.780. Contingent Reward was positively correlated with Satisfaction (p=2.600 and p = .01) and Management-By-Exception (active) was negatively correlated with Satisfaction (t=-2.574, p=.05).

When the Passive/Avoidant Leadership subscales were included, the inclusion did improve the overall model a bit but its two subscales were not significant. Laissez-Faire Leadership was close with p=.057.

A final regression was run, removing Passive/Avoidant Leadership from the equation. The model R^2 increased a small amount (0.783), and both Contingent Reward and Management-By-Exception (active) were significant at the 0.05 level. However, neither Management-By-Exception (passive) nor Laissez-Faire was significant at the 0.05 level. The last two regression models clearly show that Passive/Avoidant Leadership did not significantly predict Satisfaction.

The full regression model was also run using Transactional Leadership (reversed) instead of Transactional Leadership. While the full model was significant overall (F(3,146)=169.756, p=0) and R^2 for this model was 0.777, not all the independent variables were significant. Transformational Leadership (t=9.672, p=0) and Transactional Leadership (reversed) (t=3.318, p=.001) were the only significant indicators. Passive/Avoidant Leadership was not. An examination of the part and partial correlations show that there was little relationship between Passive/Avoidant Leadership and Satisfaction once the other independent variables were controlled for in the model. This effect is most likely due to the collinearity that exists between the independent variables since, by itself, Passive/Avoidant Leadership produces significant results (F(1, 148)=91.377, p=0).

The full model was run again but with the Passive/Avoidant Leadership subscales Management-By-Exception (passive) and Laissez-Faire subscales. The model was significant overall (F(4,145)=120.031, p=0) and R^2 for this model was 0.781. Transformational and

Transactional Leadership (reversed) significantly contributed to the model. However, the subscales were not significant, even though Laissez-Faire was nearly significant at the 0.05 level.

In summary, there is partial support for this hypothesis. A significant relationship between Transformational Leadership and Satisfaction was found. Transformational Leadership had the strongest correlation with Satisfaction and supports the concept that subordinates have more Satisfaction with management that provides Transformational Leadership. These results were very similar to those found in other studies (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Lowe et al., 1996, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Den Hartog et al., 1997, Judge et al., 2004).

Initially, Transactional Leadership does not appear to be significant. Yet, the two subscales were significant and when the Management-By-Exception (active) scale was reversed and Transactional Leadership recalculated, Transactional Leadership significantly predicted Satisfaction. Like the first two hypotheses, these results suggest that the construction of the scale might be the reason that Transactional Leadership was not always significant. This indicates that the Transactional Leadership questions, scales, and subscales need to be explored further. Results for Transactional Leadership and related subscales were somewhat different from the literature (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Judge et al., 2004).

Passive/Avoidant Leadership was not significant in predicting Satisfaction. Neither the Passive/Avoidant scale, nor the two subscales, Management-By-Exception (passive) subscale or the Laissez-Faire Leadership subscale were significant and these results were different from much of the literature (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Judge et al., 2004). However, it is important to note that Yammarino and Bass (1990) and this study had similar findings. Management-By-Exception (passive) did not significantly predict Satisfaction in both studies and although Laissez-Faire was significant in their study, Laissez-Faire was close here with p=.053.

SUMMARY

Table 3 and Table 4 provide a summary of the findings for all three hypotheses. Note there was partial support for all three hypotheses, since at least two of the three independent variables significantly predicted each of the three dependent variables.

Looking across all three hypotheses, Transformational Leadership had the strongest effect on Extra Effort, Effectiveness, and Satisfaction of all three leadership types. Regression coefficients were high in both full scale and subscale regression runs. By far, responders preferred to work for leaders that demonstrated Transformational Leadership.

Table 3: Summary of Regression Coefficients (n=150)			
Independent Variable	Hypothesis1 (Extra Effort)	Hypothesis 2 (Effectiveness)	Hypothesis 3 (Satisfaction)
R^2	0.725 full model	0.818 full model, 0.827 for subscale model	0.762 full model, 0.780 for subscale model
Transformational	0.898	0.850 full, 0.667 subscale	1.126
Transactional	N/S	N/S full	N/S full
* Contingent Reward	N/S	0.143	0.245
* Mgt-By-Exception (active)	N/S	-0.087	-0.143
Passive/Avoidant	-0.228	-0.282 full, -0.266 subscale	N/S either model
+ N/S – Not Significant + Mgt – Management			

Table 4: Summary of Regression Coefficients With Transactional Leadership (reversed) (n=150)			
Independent Variable	Hypothesis1 (Extra Effort)	Hypothesis 2 (Effectiveness)	Hypothesis 3 (Satisfaction)
R^2 full model	0.720	0.826	0.777
Transformational	0.945	0.703	0.892
Transactional (reversed)	N/S (full or subscale models)	0.203	0.326
Passive/Avoidant	-0.212	-0.264,	N/S (full or subscale models)
Descriptive Information - + N/S – Not Significant			

Although Contingent Reward is a subscale of Transactional Leadership, it had a higher mean than two of the Transformational Subscales. In addition, Contingent Reward had correlations with each of the dependent variables that were higher than at least two of the Transformational Leadership subscales. These results indicate that there seems to be more here between Contingent Reward and Transformational Leadership than is currently known and more investigation is needed (Dumdum et. al., 2002, Judge et al., 2004).

The Transactional Leadership scale as defined by Avolio and Bass (2004) and Hater and Bass (1988), did not significantly predict the level of Extra Effort, Effectiveness, or Satisfaction of subordinates. However, when the two subscales were used independently in the model, there appears to be some predictive ability. Subscales Contingent Reward and Management-By-

Exception (active) were significant for Effectiveness and Satisfaction but not Extra Effort. Also, when the Management-By-Exception (active) subscale was reversed and the Transactional Leadership scale was recalculated, Transactional Leadership significantly predicted Effectiveness and Satisfaction but not Extra Effort. As noted earlier, these results may suggest that the construction of the scale might be the reason that Transactional Leadership was not always significant. Further research on this scale is necessary.

Passive/Avoidant Leadership significantly predicted Extra Effort and Effectiveness, but not Satisfaction. This scale was unique in that it was negatively correlated with the dependent measures. Neither the scale nor its two subscales were significant in the regression models. Yammarino and Bass (1990) had similar findings. Management-By-Exception (passive) was not significant with Satisfaction in both studies and although Laissez-Faire was significant only in their study, Laissez-Faire was close here at p=.053.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As noted by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985), Transformational Leadership motivates and appeals to followers' ideals and moral values to do more. Transformational Leaders inspire and set direction and vision. They empower subordinates to participate and take initiative in changing the organization. Transformational Leadership would result in employees performing beyond expectations and that improvement could be due to the followers' commitment to the leader and their sense of purpose and mission.

Of all three leadership styles, the level of Transformational Leadership was the strongest predictor of Extra Effort, Effectiveness, and Satisfaction. For all three dependent measures, the Transformational Leadership scale accounted for the most variance in the regression models. Thus, the results indicate that responders in AITP prefer to be challenged, inspired and given a vision to work toward.

The high correlation between Extra Effort and all five Transformational Leadership subscales indicate that the more leaders are transformational, the more IT associates want to succeed and try harder to be productive in the workplace. These correlations are consistent with the literature (Lowe et al., 1996 and Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Idealized Influence (Attributed) and Intellectual Stimulation subscales had the highest two correlations with Extra Effort. The correlation between the Intellectual Stimulation subscale and Effectiveness suggest that independent thinking from subordinates is acceptable. The other correlation between Effectiveness and the Individual Consideration subscale suggests that IT professionals expect their boss to help coach, mentor, and develop them for future career opportunities. In both correlations, these specific characteristics are measured in the MLQ.

Furthermore, Satisfaction with management is highest with subordinates that perceive higher levels of Transformational Leadership. There was a high correlation between the Inspirational

Motivation subscale and the Intellectual Stimulation subscale with Satisfaction. These findings support the belief that in Transformational Leadership, subordinates are encouraged to be enthusiastic about the future and to look for new ways to solve problems.

As noted by Avolio and Bass, (2004), Passive/Avoidant Leadership delays decisions, is not accountable or responsible to others in achieving goals, and takes a "hands-off" approach to management. In all regression models, Passive/Avoidant Leadership was not as strong of a predictor as Transformational Leadership for Extra Effort and Effectiveness and did not significantly predict Satisfaction at all. In addition, Passive/Avoidant Leadership had the opposite effect of Transformational Leadership. The more a leader demonstrated Passive/Avoidant Leadership, the less subordinates were willing to demonstrate Extra Effort to get the job done and the less effective subordinates felt their boss was in the organization. Therefore, these results further imply that IT professionals look for management to inspire, provide vision, encourage extra effort, and are effective within the organization.

The high negative correlation between Passive/Avoidant Leadership and Extra Effort support that AITP professionals are less willing to provide extra effort when management is not willing to make decisions or go beyond the idea of "if it ain't broke, don't fix it" mentality. This finding further suggests that IT professionals expect managers to do more than just go with the status quo. They exert more effort for management that is engaged, willing and capable to make timely decisions.

The strong negative correlation between Passive/Avoidant Leadership and management Effectiveness support the concept that the more the Passive/Avoidant leadership style is demonstrated, the more managers are perceived as not meeting subordinate's individual job related needs or the organization's needs. In other words, IT subordinates expect management to be aware of individual needs, organizational needs, and engaged in organizational activities.

As noted earlier, the negative correlation between Passive/Avoidant Leadership and Satisfaction was not significant in the regression models. This finding was surprising since Dumdum et. al. (2002) noted that Laissez-Faire (a subscale of Passive/Avoidant Leadership) negatively predicted Satisfaction. Later, Avolio & Bass (2004) noted that both Laissez-Faire and another subscale of Passive/Avoidant Leadership, Management-By-Exception (passive), negatively predicted Satisfaction. Since Laissez-Faire and Management-By-Exception (passive) are subscales of Passive/Avoidant Leadership, it was expected that Passive/Avoidant leaders should predict Satisfaction in this study.

One possible explanation for this unique finding may be that over time, lack of action by leadership may affect subordinates' sense of satisfaction with their management. Yet, as sometimes happens when there is a leadership void others step in. Highly motivated subordinates, respected by others, may take the initiative and leadership courage to "put out the daily fires" or help set long term vision and direction. Some of this effort may be done "behind the scenes" to avoid potential political battles and help achieve desired results. Perhaps, an IT professional's manager may be

nice, kind to employees, easy to get along with, but is not engaged in the work; resulting in the variable Satisfaction ratings.

Although it is not the best scenario, subordinates can live and work with weak management as long as management does not interfere with progress. Perhaps, when subordinates are highly motivated, willing to take initiative, and are knowledgeable about the job, Satisfaction becomes irrelevant. At that point, Passive/Avoidant Leadership cannot reliably predict Satisfaction. In this study, there may have been enough responders in similar situations that prevented Passive/Avoidant Leadership from predicting Satisfaction. However, the survey was not designed to measure the level of importance Satisfaction was to IT professionals so further research is needed.

As noted by Bass (1985), Transactional leaders understand the needs of their employees and how to meet those needs in exchange for the appropriate level of effort. Transactional leaders focus on efficiencies, current processes, maintaining the status quo, and meeting contractual agreements.

At first glance, the Transactional Leadership Scale did not appear to predict any of the three dependent variables, Extra Effort, Effectiveness, or Satisfaction. However, both subscales, Contingent Reward and Management-By-Exception (active), when considered independently in the models, predicted Effectiveness and Satisfaction but not Extra Effort. For every tested hypothesis and dependent variable, the two subscales were oppositely correlated with the dependent measure. Each time, Contingent Reward was positively correlated and Management-By-Exception (active) was negatively correlated with the dependent variables.

In addition, when the Management-By-Exception (active) subscale was reversed, Transactional Leadership was able to predict Effectiveness and Satisfaction but not Extra Effort. This is not a unique finding. Previous research has found that Transactional Leadership and its two subscales were not always significant (Lowe et al., 1996; Geyer & Steyrer, 1998; Dumdum et. al., 2002; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Since the subscales and the reversed-Transactional scale successfully predicted two of the three dependent measures, it suggests that the *construct* of Transactional Leadership is sound, but the *construction* of the scale needs further research.

As noted above, Transactional Leadership (reversed), subscale Contingent Reward, and subscale Management-By-Exception (active) were not able to predict Extra Effort. Perhaps, transactional leaders did not significantly motivate subordinates to try harder to be successful. The expectation of appropriate monetary awards was not enough to overcome the negative approach of management tracking a subordinate's mistakes and errors. Subordinates valued a more positive management approach found in Transformational Leadership.

Transactional Leadership (reversed), subscale Contingent Reward, and subscale Management-By-Exception (active) were able to predict management Effectiveness. Perhaps, the high correlation between Transactional Leadership (reversed) and subscale Contingent Reward with management Effectiveness support the concept that the more managers follow through with their promises of appropriate financial rewards when goals are achieved, the more effective they are

perceived by AITP professionals. Thus, this builds trust and loyalty between subordinates and management.

The negative correlation between the Management-By-Exception (active) subscale with management Effectiveness supports the idea that the more managers focused on proactively tracking mistakes, failures, and irregularities, the less effective management was perceived by AITP professionals. Subordinates could have experienced a drop in morale and perceived that management focused on the trivial things, things that kept leaders from helping subordinates get to the real root of problems. Since the role of morale in leadership style is not specifically addressed in the MLQ-5X, more research is needed.

Transactional Leadership (reversed), subscale Contingent Reward, and subscale Management-By-Exception active) were able to predict Satisfaction with management. The high correlation between Transactional Leadership (reversed) and subscale Contingent Reward with Satisfaction support that the more leadership followed through with financial rewards, the more satisfied AITP professionals were with management. As with Effectiveness, fulfilling promises builds trust. The negative correlation between the Management-By-Exception (active) subscale with Satisfaction further support that the more the managers tracked mistakes and failures, the less satisfied AITP professionals were with their management. Thus, subordinates perceived that they were always under the microscope and that their management was only tracking the losses and not the wins. Over time, this could create frustration and diminish the desire for subordinates to take calculated risks for the good of the team or company. Unfortunately, the ultimate result could be for subordinates to play it safe, not make waves, and consequently not provide the kind of technical leadership a company needs to compete in a fast changing technical environment.

Finally, Contingent Reward, a subscale of Transactional Leadership, had higher correlations than at least two subscales of Transformational Leadership. These results have been consistent with the literature and some researchers have noted that more research should be done to determine if Contingent Reward should be a component of Transformational Leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999, Dumdum et. al., 2002, Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

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LINKAGES AMONG EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT TO THE GREEN MOVEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, AND THEIR PERCEIVED IMPACTS UPON OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

In this research, we find support for a proposed set of linkages among employee perceptions of organizational green orientation, individual green orientation, and outcomes, in terms of positive impacts of the green movement and organizational performance. Specifically, we find that employees who believe that their organizations are aligned with the green movement are more likely to also see the organization as higher in outcomes in terms of overall performance and their perceptions of the positive impact of the green movement will also be higher.

INTRODUCTION

In this research, we consider how employee perceptions of the organization's commitment to the "green" movement and employee perceptions that the organization has implemented green practices in a high quality manner. A stimulus for our work has been widespread recent discussion of the need to shift attention to issues of *sustainability,* a concept that is central to the green movement.

The Green Movement

Recent events, and especially rising gasoline prices, a depressed housing market, and instabilities in the world economy, have led to considerable discussion of the current status of the "green movement", a phenomenon that has appeared over the past 20 years (Stafford, 2003). It encompasses areas such as "green buying" by consumers (Mainieri, et al., 1997), Environmentally Preferable Purchasing (EPP) by government agencies and ultimately by organizations in the private sector (Elwood & Case, 2000), Environmentally Benign Design and Manufacturing (EBDM)

(Newsdesk, 2006), and Socially Responsible Investing (SRI) (Blodget, 2007). In each case, discussion has centered on purchasing, manufacturing, and investing in ways, which are environmentally beneficial. Historically, emphasis has been placed on insuring that EPP products are attractive to consumers (Ottman, Stafford & Hartman, 2006; Dale, 2008) and insuring that organizations have sufficient incentives to behave in environmentally-constructive ways (Elwood & Case, 2000).

In contrast, a second stream in the literature has suggested that the "green movement" may be in decline. Specifically, one of the "Current Issues in the Greening of Industry" (July 2007) suggests that the current "new-found environmental ethic" may be somewhat ephemeral and that "… corporate greening could go bust" in ways analogous to other recent fad-like phenomena. Moreover, Stafford (2003) points out that "… green issues as a whole appear to be taking a back seat to concerns of terrorism, war, and the economy." However, Dale (2008) points out that, with soaring energy prices pushing up the price of mainstream goods, green products are becoming just as -- or even more -- affordable these days. Stafford also notes that concerns about oil could lead to a movement to reduce dependence on oil in the U.S., and thus foster this aspect of the green movement.

During this unsettled period, one important set of questions centers upon consumers, who, themselves are employees as well and the issue of determining the extent of their commitment to the green movement. We have recently (Li, Hartman & Zee, 2008) reported our initial work to design a scale to measure commitment to the green movement. Our emphasis was on development of an instrument which would tap the key concerns of the green movement. Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, points out that the Green Movement originated from Green Politics, a political ideology. Greens, the supporters of the green movement, advocate green politics and place a high importance on ecological and environmental goals. The greens share many ideas with the ecology, conservation, environmental, feminist, and peace movements; civil liberties, social justice and nonviolence are the issues they focus upon as well. We reported encouraging initial findings which suggest that the instrument can be used to examine consumer/employee commitment.
Environmental friendliness and sustainability are the major concerns of green products, green manufacturing and service, and green organizations (Liu & He, 2005). All of the green activities, such as reducing waste, using harmless materials, and providing organic food can be placed under the umbrella of greening. Providing a clean, ethical and safe environment to human beings and all creatures is the goal of green movement, and is one which potentially requires the efforts of all the people, industries and governments on the earth (Grewe 2002; Holden 2004; Patulny & Norris, 2005; Tiemstra, 2003).

Organizational Culture and Sustainability

In this research, we also speculate that *organizational culture* may impact employee perceptions of the green movement and its importance to the organization and to them personally. Moreover, culture may impact perceptions about outcomes as well. Note, however, that the impacts between the culture and the perceptions may move in two directions. Specifically, as organizations become *greener*, we should see a move toward a more empowered, employee-centered, and customer-centered culture. Additionally, however, a culture, which is supportive of the green movement, should lead to better outcomes and, perhaps in part through self-selection, to employees who, themselves, are more supportive of the green movement.

One specific impact of culture may be through concern for *sustainability*. A recent in-depth discussion by Zairi (2002) can illustrate what is being considered:

> *The concept of sustainable development has been touted as a new planning agenda (Beatley & Manning, 1998). As such, it becomes a fundamental concept that should be an important aspect of all further policy developments (Loffler, 1998). Sustainable development is based on a perceived need to address environmental deterioration and to maintain the vital functions of natural systems for the well being of present and future generations.* **Sustainability** *is defined as 'the ability of an organization to adapt to change in the business environment to capture contemporary best practice methods and to achieve and maintain superior competitive performance' (Zairi & Liburd 2001). This concept implies that* **sustainability** *is a means for an organization to maintain its competitiveness. Quinn (2000) has a similar idea on* **sustainability**. *He describes it as the development that meets present needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Gladwin et al. (1995), on the other hand, define it as 'development, which meets the needs of the present, without compromising the ability of future organizations to meet their own needs'.* **Total Quality Management** *(TQM) represents an integrative approach for the pursuit of customer satisfaction (Chin et al., 2001). However, facing intense pressure of global competition, organizations need to consider incorporating the idea of* **sustainability** *in TQM in order to sustain their competitive advantage and performance improvement. In addition, the interest of organizational survival, growth and prosperity has therefore got to be concerned with not just the present, but also the future.*

See also similar ideas by Hitchcock and Willard (2002), Jonker (2000), and McAdam and Leonard (2003).

Several researchers have also speculated that sustainability is being fueled by pressures to insure long-term survival under increasing emphasis on globalization. See especially Dervitsiotis (2001) and Wilkinson, Hill and Gollan (2001). Finally, and relating closely to our ideas about culture and employee attitudes toward the green movement, work by Rapp and Eklund (2002) calls for employee involvement with emphasis on suggestion systems. Daily and Huang (2001) point to the importance of human resources management and especially in HR leadership in developing programs such as those fostering commitment (see also Matta, Davis, Mayer & Conlon, 1996). Underscoring the importance of employee personality, and our thoughts on self-selection, Ahmad and Schroeder (2002) have called for selection efforts centering on identifying applicants with potential fit.

In this research, we extend the examination of these issues to consider employee perceptions of organizational commitment to the green movement and the relationships which may exist between personal and organizational commitment and perceived outcomes.

Figure 1 shows the linkages we expect and relates linkages to the corresponding research questions. In our study, we believe that more organizations with more desirable organizational culture should be more supportive of the green movement (Research Question 1 labeled as RQ1 in Figure 1). Furthermore, employees' personal green orientation should be related to or affected by the green movement within the organization (Research Question 2 labeled as RQ2 in Figure 1). Additionally, as organizations become more green-oriented, the organization itself will be seen as "doing better" in general and the impact of the green movement will be more positive (Research Questions 3 and 4 labeled as RQ3 and RQ4 in Figure 1). We also believe that as the organization is "doing better," the employees will perceive the impact of the green movement even better (Research Question 5 labeled as RQ5 in Figure 1). Finally, we expect that organizational culture is related to the impact of the green movement and will be shaped by employees' individual green orientation (Research Questions 6 and 7 labeled as RQ6 and RQ7 in Figure 1).

Research Question 1:   *Organizational Green Orientation is related to Organizational Culture.*

Research Question 2:   *Organizational Green Orientation is related to Individual Green Orientation.*

Research Question 3:   *Organizations which are described by employees as higher in Organizational Green Orientation, will also report more positive feelings about the impact of the green movement.*

Research Question 4:	*Organizations which are described by employees as higher in Organizational Green Orientation will also report more positive feelings about the organization's performance.*
Research Question 5:	*Organizations which are described by employees as higher in Organizational Performance, they will also report more positive feelings about the impact of the green movement.*
Research Question 6:	*Organizational Culture is related to employees' feelings about the impact of the green movement.*
Research Question 7:	*Organizational Culture is related to Individual Green Orientation.*

METHODOLOGY

Subjects of the Current Study

Subjects in the sample were approximately 323 managers from a wide variety of industries in the South. The subjects were roughly 57.3 % male and 42.7% female with an average age of 41.26. These managers had an average of 20.64 years working experience with 11.11 years in management positions. 35.9% of the subjects are employed in a company, which has more than 500 employees, 8.7% of the subjects work in a company, which has 251 to 500 employees, 19.5% of the subjects work in a company, which has 51 to 250 employees, and 35.9% of the subjects work in a company which has less than 50 employees. Subjects responded to a survey asking about their perceptions and experiences about green movement, quality management, and organizational culture in their own firms. In this study, we will concentrate on the relationships among perceptions of support for the green movement by individuals and the organization, organizational culture, organizational performance, and the impact of green movement.

Instrument

Organizational Green Orientation

In this study, we developed nineteen survey questions to measure the Organizational Green Movement. Table 1 provides the items and shows the results of our factor analysis.

Table 1: Factor Analysis on Organizational Green Orientation

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
Produce environmentally friendly goods and services	.222	.900	.054
Design environmentally friendly goods and services	.214	.900	.067
Reuse or refurbish a product's components	.247	.615	.257
Provide a safe and healthy workplace for employees	.108	.109	.841
Make ethical and socially responsible decisions	.169	.145	.717
Make an effort to preserve the natural environment	.680	.274	.277
Lead and support corporate responsibility activities	.606	.202	.261
Encourage employees to conserve energy/resources.	.725	.083	.242
Set goals to conserve energy/resources.	.848	.194	.108
Commit to be environmentally friendly at all levels	.806	.312	.082
Preserve employees' physical and emotional well-being	.355	.043	.690

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

As Table 1 indicates, we obtained a three-factor solution with 66.644% of the variance explained in the case of the organizational green orientation items. We have labeled Factor 1 as "Green Leadership", Factor 2 as "Green Products/Services", and Factor 3 as "Green Workplace."

Organizational Culture

Based on previous research (Fok et al., 2000, 2001), we measured the Organizational Culture by constructing a series of paired opposite items which asked whether the organization's climate should be described as open vs. closed, soft vs. tough, competitive vs. collaborative, and the like. Table 2 below provides the items and shows the results of our factor analysis. We obtained a two-factor solution in the case of the culture items and have labeled Factor 1 as "TQM Culture" and Factor 2 as "People-Friendly Culture." 52.63% of the variance was explained by these two factors.

Table 2: Factor Analysis on Organizational Culture

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
Soft	-.036	.478
Informal	.076	.713
Decentralized	.185	.568
Quality-oriented	.803	.074
Innovation-promoting	.867	-.033
Proactive	.834	.142
Collaborative	.006	.683

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.256	32.233	32.233	2.256	32.233	32.233	2.132	30.461	30.461
2	1.428	20.397	52.630	1.428	20.397	52.630	1.552	22.169	52.630
3	.977	13.951	66.581						
4	.788	11.257	77.838						
5	.706	10.087	87.926						
6	.505	7.219	95.145						
7	.340	4.855	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Organizational Performance

The Organizational Performance items were primarily adapted from the Malcolm Baldridge National Quality Award outcome assessment measures. The Baldridge Awards are designed to

identify organizations, which are performing in an exceptional manner and include criteria for identifying excellence. We used the Baldridge criteria in the form of a scale, which asks respondents to provide their perceptions about their organizations along Baldridge lines. The resulting scale has been used and reported in previous research (Fok, et al., 2000, 2001). The instrument included are items such as "Overall, my company is performing well," "Overall, morale in my company is high," "Overall, I am satisfied with the use of technology in my company," and the like. Factor analysis in this study indicated that one factor was present. We named the factor as "Organizational Success."

Impact of Green Movement

The instruments included are items such as "Provide better products," "Provide better services," "Have better relationship with customers," "Have better relationship with suppliers," "Have better reputation," "Provide better working environment," "Increase profits," "Reduce costs," and "Improve productivity." Factor analysis produced a two-factor solution and we named them "Strategic Benefits" and "Operational Benefits." 82.184% of the variance was explained by these two factors. Table 3 below provides the items and shows the results of our factor analysis.

Table 3: Factor Analysis on Impact of Green Movement

Rotated Component Matrix

	Component	
	1	2
Have better relationship with customers	.828	.374
Have better relationship with society at large	.892	.214
Have better reputation	.837	.295
Increase profits	.305	.871
Reduce costs	.267	.902
Have better relationship with suppliers	.803	.333
Improve productivity	.413	.815
Have better relationship with employees	.798	.399

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.523	69.034	69.034	5.523	69.034	69.034	3.796	47.454	47.454
2	1.052	13.150	82.184	1.052	13.150	82.184	2.778	34.731	82.184
3	.383	4.788	86.973						
4	.280	3.499	90.471						
5	.233	2.908	93.379						
6	.215	2.692	96.070						
7	.163	2.033	98.103						
8	.152	1.897	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Individual Green Orientation

In this study, we developed twenty survey questions to measure the Individual Green Orientation. We obtained a three-factor solution with 51.903% of the variance explained in the case of the individual green orientation items. We have labeled Factor 1 as "Green Actions", Factor 2 as "Green Consciousness" and Factor 3 as "Green Belief." Table 4 provides the items and shows the results of our factor analysis.

Table 4: Factor Analysis on Individual Green Orientation

Rotated Component Matrix

	Component		
	1	2	3
Recycle paper, plastic, or aluminum products	.239	.575	.303
Drive a hybrid or electric car	.683	.188	.060
Plant your own vegetable garden	.402	.129	.069
Buy organic food	.544	.134	.253
Bank at an eco-friendly bank	.633	.031	.056
Buy products based on the willingness to recycle old devices	.545	.274	.295
Run your home on renewable energy	.758	.180	-.062
The city or state should provide an ability to recycle	.186	.093	.710
It is inconvenient being "green"	-.012	-.036	-.731
You think of yourself as energy conscious	.125	.889	-.070
You think of yourself as eco-conscious	.271	.842	.108

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

RESULTS

Our first research question examines the relationship between Organizational Green Orientation and Organizational Culture. Table 5 provides the results of our correlation analysis. We found only one pair of significant relationship. "TQM Culture" has significant correlation with "Green Workplace" which implies that as organizations embrace culture that focuses on quality, team, and being proactive, they also are trying to develop a workplace that is environmental friendly to the employees.

Table 5: Pearson's Correlation Matrix – Organizational Green Orientation
and Organizational Culture (RQ1)

Correlations

		TQM Culture	People_friendly Culture	Green Leadership	Green Products/ Services	Green Workpplace
TQM Culture	Pearson Correlation	1	.000	-.068	-.010	-.158**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		1.000	.228	.861	.005
	N	321	321	321	321	321
People_friendly Culture	Pearson Correlation	.000	1	-.033	.006	.099
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000		.553	.913	.078
	N	321	321	321	321	321
Green Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.068	-.033	1	.000	.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.228	.553		1.000	1.000
	N	321	321	323	323	323
Green Products/Services	Pearson Correlation	-.010	.006	.000	1	.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.861	.913	1.000		1.000
	N	321	321	323	323	323
Green Workpplace	Pearson Correlation	-.158**	.099	.000	.000	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.078	1.000	1.000	
	N	321	321	323	323	323

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

Research Question 2 investigates the relationship between Organizational Green Orientation and Individual Green Orientation. We found seven pairs of significant relationships among them. The results are shown in Table 6. "Green Leadership" has significant and positive correlations with "Green Actions", "Green Consciousness", and "Green Belief" at the 0.01 level. "Green Products/Services" has significant and positive relationship with "Green Actions" and "Green Consciousness" at the 0.01 level, and with "Green Belief" at the 0.05 level. "Green Workplace" has significant and positive correlation with "Green Belief" at the 0.05 level. The relationships are all

positive which imply organizations which are described by employees as higher in Organizational Green Orientation will also report more positive feelings about their own Individual Green Orientation. The findings strongly support that employees' individual green orientation affects the organizations' green movement and vice versa.

Table 6: Pearson's Correlation Matrix – Organizational Green Orientation and
Individual Green Orientation (RQ2)

Correlations

		Green Actions	Green Consciousness	Green Belief	Green Leadership	Green Products/ Services	Green Workpplace
Green Actions	Pearson Correlation	1	.000	.000	.190**	.213**	.087
	Sig. (2-tailed)		1.000	1.000	.001	.000	.122
	N	319	319	319	319	319	319
Green Consciousness	Pearson Correlation	.000	1	.000	.233**	.309**	.052
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000		1.000	.000	.000	.359
	N	319	319	319	319	319	319
Green Belief	Pearson Correlation	.000	.000	1	.228**	.110*	.136*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000	1.000		.000	.049	.015
	N	319	319	319	319	319	319
Green Leadership	Pearson Correlation	.190**	.233**	.228**	1	.000	.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000		1.000	1.000
	N	319	319	319	323	323	323
Green Products/Services	Pearson Correlation	.213**	.309**	.110*	.000	1	.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.049	1.000		1.000
	N	319	319	319	323	323	323
Green Workpplace	Pearson Correlation	.087	.052	.136*	.000	.000	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.122	.359	.015	1.000	1.000	
	N	319	319	319	323	323	323

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

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

Research Question 3 suggested that organizations with higher level of green orientation would be reported by the employees to have more positive feeling about the impact of the green movement. We found three pairs of significant relationships among them. The results are shown in Table 7. "Green Leadership" has significant and positive correlations with "Strategic Benefits" and "Operational Benefits" implying that green leadership within an organization leads to organizational efficiency *and* effectiveness. "Green Products/Services" has significant and positive correlation with

"Strategic Benefits". The results support the premise that when organizations develop "green" products/services or use "green" material in the production, show more concern with avoiding negative consequences of not being green, and help their employees at all levels to be more green-oriented, the overall impact of these green initiatives is perceived to be more positive by the employees.

Table 7: Pearson's Correlation Matrix – Organizational Green Orientation, Organizational Performance, and Impact of Green Movement (RQ3, RQ4, and RQ5)

Correlations

		Green Leadership	Green Products/ Services	Green Workpplace	Organizational Performance	Strategic benefits	Operational benefits
Green Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	.000	.000	-.013	.141*	.194**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		1.000	1.000	.820	.011	.000
	N	323	323	323	323	323	323
Green Products/Services	Pearson Correlation	.000	1	.000	.022	.292**	.091
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000		1.000	.692	.000	.104
	N	323	323	323	323	323	323
Green Workpplace	Pearson Correlation	.000	.000	1	.212**	.008	-.072
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000	1.000		.000	.883	.199
	N	323	323	323	323	323	323
Organizational Performance	Pearson Correlation	-.013	.022	.212**	1	.173**	.160**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.820	.692	.000		.002	.004
	N	323	323	323	323	323	323
Strategic benefits	Pearson Correlation	.141*	.292**	.008	.173**	1	.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.000	.883	.002		1.000
	N	323	323	323	323	323	323
Operational benefits	Pearson Correlation	.194**	.091	-.072	.160**	.000	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.104	.199	.004	1.000	
	N	323	323	323	323	323	323

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

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

Research Question 4 suggested that organizations with higher level of green orientation would have received more positive feelings about the organization's performance. The results are shown in Table 7. Only one pair of significant relationships is found. The relationship between "Green Workplace" and "Organizational Performance/Success" is significant at the 0.01 level. The relationship is positive which implies that as the organizations show more concern in helping their employees at all levels to be more green-oriented, and pay more attention to safety concerns, the organizational performance is perceived by the employees to be higher.

Research Question 5 suggested that organizations with higher level of organizational performance would be reported by the employees to have more positive feeling about the impact of the green movement. We found two pairs of significant relationships in Table 7. Two factors ("Strategic Benefits" and "Operational Benefits") of Impact of Green Movement and "Organizational Performance/Success" have significant correlations at the 0.01 level. The

relationships are positive and imply that organizations with higher levels of performance would also be reported by their employees to have positive feelings about the impact of the green movement. Our sixth research question examines the relationship between Organizational Culture and Impact of Green Movement. We found two pairs of significant relationships in Table 8. "TQM Culture" has a significant correlation with "Strategic Benefits" and "People-Friendly Culture" has a significant correlation with "Operational Benefits". The findings indicate that as the organizational cultures are more green-oriented and employee-friendly; the employees see more positive impacts from the green movement.

Table 8: Pearson's Correlation Matrix – Organizational Culture and Impact of Green Movement (RQ6)

Correlations

		TQM Culture	People_ friendly Culture	Organizational Performance	Strategic benefits	Operational benefits
TQM Culture	Pearson Correlation	1	.000	-.591**	-.205**	-.095
	Sig. (2-tailed)		1.000	.000	.000	.088
	N	321	321	321	321	321
People_friendly Culture	Pearson Correlation	.000	1	-.036	-.101	-.132*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000		.524	.070	.018
	N	321	321	321	321	321
Organizational Performance	Pearson Correlation	-.591**	-.036	1	.173**	.160**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.524		.002	.004
	N	321	321	323	323	323
Strategic benefits	Pearson Correlation	-.205**	-.101	.173**	1	.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.070	.002		1.000
	N	321	321	323	323	323
Operational benefits	Pearson Correlation	-.095	-.132*	.160**	.000	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.088	.018	.004	1.000	
	N	321	321	323	323	323

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

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

Research Question 7 investigates the relationship between Organizational Culture and Individual Green Orientation. The results are not significant which implies organizational culture does not have significant impact on employees' view of being green at a personal level.

Table 9: Pearson's Correlation Matrix – Organizational Culture and Individual Green Orientation (RQ7)

Correlations

		TQM Culture	People_ friendly Culture	Green Actions	Green Consciou sness	Green Belief
TQM Culture	Pearson Correlation	1	.000	.065	-.062	-.100
	Sig. (2-tailed)		1.000	.249	.268	.074
	N	321	321	318	318	318
People_friendly Culture	Pearson Correlation	.000	1	.012	-.046	.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000		.836	.416	.885
	N	321	321	318	318	318
Green Actions	Pearson Correlation	.065	.012	1	.000	.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.249	.836		1.000	1.000
	N	318	318	319	319	319
Green Consciousness	Pearson Correlation	-.062	-.046	.000	1	.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.268	.416	1.000		1.000
	N	318	318	319	319	319
Green Belief	Pearson Correlation	-.100	.008	.000	.000	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.074	.885	1.000	1.000	
	N	318	318	319	319	319

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this research, we find considerable support for the linkages among employee perceptions of organizational green orientation and outcomes, in terms of positive impacts of the green movement and organizational performance (see Figure 1). Employees who believe that their organizations are aligned with the green movement are more likely to also see the organization as higher in performance. Moreover, outcomes in terms of overall performance and positive impact of the green movement will also be higher. Individual Green Orientation did not have a significant relationship with Organizational Culture (see RQ7), but Individual Green Orientation does have seven pairs of significant relationships with Organizational Green Orientation (see RQ2).   These findings may have implications for management. This research suggests that when employees believe that their organizations are committed to being green, a number of positive feelings will result. Yet, anecdotally, at least, it appears that many organizations are doing little to keep employees informed of their efforts to support the green movement and its relationship to ideas like sustainability. More and better information appears to have the potential to bring about positive results. Such information, in turn, can be helpful in building an organizational culture, which is supportive of the green movement, *and* attracting and retaining employees who are personally committed to supporting the movement.

Figure 1: Research Model
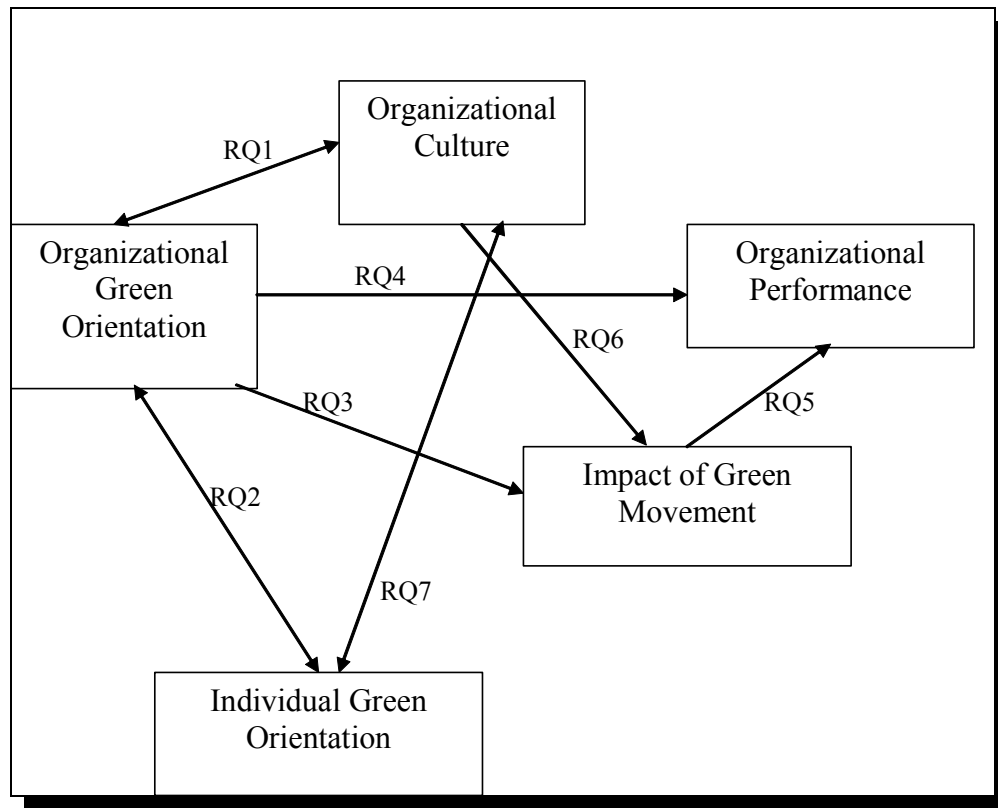
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ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN THE RESTAURANT INDUSTRY: IMPLICATIONS FOR CHANGE

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ABSTRACT

The foodservice sector of the hospitality industry is unique in its structure and prevailing organizational cultures. The manuscript examines the effect of organizational culture and climate on foodservice operations. A four-quadrant model of organizational culture types is presented. The findings indicated that the extent to which foodservice leaders are mindful of effective organizational culture principles would determine the level of future operational success. It further demonstrates that the Clan type culture or "family-type organization" results in sustained organizational effectiveness. The authors draw conclusions and present suggestions for restaurants looking to improve their organizational culture with the aim of effecting overall positive change. They further call for empirical research to measure the effect of leading-edge organizational culture principles on the restaurant industry.

INTRODUCTION

Employee perspective with regard to organizations has been shown to have effects on the success of the organizations. Having employees with appropriate attitudes will enhance the probability for success in any company in any industry (Davidson, 2003). Organizations with a strong sense of customer orientation have also shown greater levels of customer satisfaction (Schneider & Bowen, 1993). The restaurant industry has a greater likelihood of being influenced by employee actions than other industries, because of its labor-intensive nature and the high level of interaction between the employees and customers (Davidson, 2003; Seidman, 2001).

The purpose of the paper was to research findings in the existing literature for suggesting directions restaurant leaders could follow with regard to cultural development. Their implementation could have a significant impact on many aspects of their operations, including increasing productivity, reducing turnover and building commitment. For the transformational change to be achieved, organizations must first understand and manage the complexities of their respective organizational cultures (Goodman, Zammuto, & Gifford, 2001) and build stronger levels of organizational commitment. The manuscript reports the findings of a study to determine how

organizational culture influences full-service restaurants. The purpose of the study was to determine the most suitable cultural model for full-service restaurants among the four presented.

Restaurant Industry Challenges

Although individual restaurant entities are usually considered small businesses, the restaurant industry has been traditionally known for having a highly bureaucratic management style (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994). Classical management styles are that of highly defined, routine practices, which have strict adherence to specific rules and regulations (Smucker, 2001). The traditional management philosophy (i.e., Theory X management) in the hospitality industry does not take into effect the person or individual doing the job, but focuses more on the job itself. Identifying what the specific tasks and requirements of the job are and then training the employees to perform these duties has been and remains the norm in the food and beverage industry (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994). Generally, the restaurant industry is almost autocratic in nature. It is hence a difficult and demanding industry within which to be employed. Theory X management style works when there is little competition and local unemployment figures are high. The realities of the industry depict a different story. Industry statistics show that competition among operators is fierce and that a lack of a large labor pool has plagued the industry for a long time, which continues to be a major concern for restaurant owners and managers (Crook, Ketchen, & Snow, 2003; Enz, 2004). Ultimately, harsh organizational climates tend to discourage employees from continuing employment with foodservice operators and cause people to "job-hop." The restaurant industry is notorious for having high employee turnover rates. An industry-wide study of restaurants concluded that restaurant managers should do a better job of being an employer of choice if they are to satisfy customers and produce financial results (Koys, 2006).

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE DEFINED

Before Pettigrew's (1979) landmark organizational culture study, research centered on the construct of organizational climate (Obenchain, 2002). Organizational climate emphasizes the importance of shared perceptions as underpinning the notion of climate (Anderson & West, 1998; Mathisen & Einarsen 2004). Reichers and Schneider (1990) defined organizational climate as "the shared perception of the way things are around here" (p. 22). According to Schein (1990), the main differences between organizational climate and organizational culture are the levels of complexity of the two constructs. Organizational culture takes a more in-depth look at the organization's components, whereas organizational climate is simply a surface view of the organization. Denison (1996) reviewed the literature, and provided a representation of conceptual differences between the two paradigms. Schein (1990) defined organizational culture as "what a group learns over a period of time as that group solves its problems of survival in an external environment and its problems of

internal integration. Such learning is simultaneously a behavioral, cognitive, and an emotional process" (p. 111). Organizational culture was described by Davidson (2003) as "the shared beliefs and values that are passed on to all within the organization" (p. 206). Researchers have shown parallels between the two constructs (Davidson, 2003; Obenchain, 2002; Reichers & Schneider, 1990). Table 1 presents an overview of the contrasts.

Table 1: Contrasting Organizational Culture and Organizational Climate		
Research Perspective	Cultural Literature	Climate Literature
Epistemological	Contextualized and idiographic	Comparative and nomothetic
Viewpoint	Native view	Researcher's view
Methodological	Qualitative observation	Quantitative data
Temporal orientation	Historical evolution	Historical snapshot
Levels of analysis	Underlying values and assumptions	Surface level manifestations
Discipline	Sociological	Psychological
Adapted from Denison (1996, p. 625) and Davidson (2003, p. 207)		

Organizational Culture

As established above, organizational culture comprises the conventions in an organization. Conceptually, organizational culture has roots in two distinct disciplines: anthropology and sociology (Obenchain, 2002). According to Ouchi (1981), researchers began studying organizational culture when they needed to better understand the implications of organizational behavior and what made organizations unique (Creque, 2003).

Researchers have made comprehensive strides in defining the concept of organizational culture. In 1990, Schein characterized organizational culture as (a) a pattern of basic assumptions; (b) invented, discovered, or developed by a given group; (c) as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration; (d) that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore; (e) is to be taught to new members as the; (f) correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 1990, p. 111). More recent research (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) built on previous work and defined organizational culture as follows:

Organizational culture refers to the taken-for-granted values, the underlying assumptions, expectations, collective memories, and definitions present in the organization. It represents how things are around here. It reflects the prevailing ideology that people carry inside their heads. It conveys a sense of identity…

provides unspoken guidelines for how to get along and enhance the stability of the social system to which they belong. (Cameron & Quinn, p. 134).

While there are many definitions of organizational culture, a common attribute throughout all definitions is that organizational culture is something that groups within an organization have in common (Obenchain, 2002). Increased organizational performance can be achieved through a strong organizational culture (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Obenchain, 2002). The ability to drive organizations in the same direction creates a sense of loyalty and belonging and strengthens organizations (Denison, 1996; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Obenchain, 2002). Deshpande and Webster (1989) reported a correlation between organizational culture and marketing management (Creque, 2003). In their study, it was postulated that the culture of an organization could be utilized as a tool to strengthen the organization and help in the attainment of goals. The resulting practice is often referred to as internal marketing.

Organizational Culture Type / Competing Values Framework

According to Ulrich (1998), human resource practices and how they are viewed must be radically changed for organizations to optimize the use of their human assets. The one area that most employees would welcome additional exploitation is their cognition. Few people would suggest that their creative abilities are being close to reaching full potential in the workplace. To further understanding, researchers have developed typologies of organizational culture. The fundamental work for the study of organizational culture types goes back to the landmark studies conducted by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983). Quinn and Rohrbaugh were credited with the development of the Competing Values Model (CVM) of Organizational Effectiveness. Since then, many researchers have added to the body of knowledge that has come to be known as The Competing Values Model of Organizational Culture Type (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Cameron & Quinn 1999; Creque, 2003; Deshpande, Farley & Webster, 1993; Obenchain, 2002; Zamuto, Gifford, & Goodran, 2000).

Cameron and Quinn (1999) stated, "the most appropriate frameworks should be based on empirical evidence, should capture accurately the reality being described (i.e. valid), and should be able to integrate and organize most of the dimensions being proposed" (p. 29). The Competing Values Framework has accomplished these objectives in a variety studies. The Competing Values Framework maintains two dimensions, each with opposing characteristics. In the first dimension, organizational structure is differentiated as effective from being flexible and spontaneous, an organic type structure to its polar opposite of high level of control, order and rigidity, or more of a mechanistic structure (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). This dimension simply states that some believe that the more organic the organization the better chance for survival to the belief that strict control is the true measure of longevity of an organization.

The second dimension illustrates the differentiation between internal maintenance and internal positioning of an organization. Internal maintenance includes high levels of integration and a high sense of organizational unity. Internal positioning breeds a high level of competitiveness and differentiation within the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The polarity of these two dimensions created a four-quadrant model of organizational types. The four quadrants include clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy. They were all derived from literature that explains "how, over time, different organizational values have become associated with different forms of organizations" (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, p. 32)

According to Howard (1998), the Competing Values Framework is excellent for evaluating organizational cultures for the following reasons: (a) it gives a detailed description of the organizational cultures, (b) it describes the components of these cultures, (c) it gives a method of evaluating similarities and differences in cultures, and (d) it gives a way to measure and analyze cultures (Creque, 2003). The Competing Values Framework adapted by Cameron and Quinn (1999) shows a complete evaluation of different culture types. There are four culture types that exist in this typology, including (a) Clan Culture Type, (b) Adhocracy Culture Type, (c) Market Culture Type, and (d) Hierarchy Culture Type. These culture types are defined as follows, appearing alphabetically:

Adhocracy culture type

This culture breeds a sense of entrepreneurship. The workplace has a sense of urgency in a highly dynamic environment, where creativity is at the forefront (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Creque, 2003). Such an organizational culture exists in many advertising firms, high-tech software companies, and certain sectors of academia.

Clan culture type

Clan type culture can be defined simply as a "family-type organization" (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, p. 36). This type of culture incorporates a sense of "we" in the organization instead of "I." Clan culture has a high level of autonomy, which is indicative of a more organic organizational paradigm than is usually observed in most companies. The development of a humane work environment and an environment of loyalty, commitment, and participation is paramount in this type of culture. Examples of such an organization abound in the hospitality industry where so-called Mom and Pop operations still flourish, although decreasingly so.

Hierarchy culture type

This culture type dates back to the work of Max Weber during the late 19th and early 20th centuries. The characteristics of the hierarchal organization include a very distinct authoritarian structure. It is a culture high on rules and regulations, distinct lines of communication and accountability. Maintaining tight control and smooth operations are important in this type of culture. The rules and policies are believed to hold the organization together and increase levels of efficiency and effectiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Creque, 2003). Arguably, all corporations are pyramid-shaped, hierarchical, and autocratic structures. The larger they are the more high-handed and inefficient their systems generally become, where the majority of people essentially mimic the actions and words of those above them in the organizational hierarchy (Alexakis, Platt, & Tesone, 2006).

Market culture type

The word market concerns itself with the external market environment. This type of culture orientation is goal focused, geared towards market superiority, and highly competitive in nature (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Creque, 2003). Microsoft Corporation is an extreme example of a market culture type. The people who run the company are highly class conscious and see themselves engaged in some kind of bitter class struggle reminiscent of Marxists from what appears a vanished era (Couey & Karliner, 1998).

Organizational Culture and the Hospitality Industry

Ogbonna and Harris (2002) investigated organizational culture in an international five-star hotel, a national four-star hotel, and two national restaurants and wine bars in the United Kingdom. The study observed the organizations' cultures and the effects of forced changes in culture on the organization. The researchers wanted to see if an organizational change in culture could be used as a management tool to enhance operations. One of the implications of the research related to employee turnover in the hospitality industry. The study questioned how high levels of turnover affected the overall organizational culture. The researchers concluded that indoctrination with a specific culture would have a positive impact on the organization. However, it was found that the employees that finished their employment quickly, a common industry occurrence, never acclimated to the culture (Ogbonna & Harris, 2002). Davidson (2003) looked at organizational climate and service quality in the hotel industry. Results showed a high correlation between organizational climate and performance. Davidson stated, "The culture and climate shape not only employee actions but also their commitment to a service ethic. It is this commitment to service that is of paramount importance if customer satisfaction is to be achieved" (p. 211). The model that Davidson

postulated discusses organizational culture as the essential bonding element among organizational climate, HR practices, and service quality (2003).

Culture Change and Clan Focus in the Restaurant Industry

The Competing Values Framework literature suggests that additional empirical research investigating existing culture types in the restaurant industry is needed. The range of restaurants should include quick service, fast casual, full service and fine dining restaurants including independently owned, national and regional chains and franchises. The research (Ogbonna & Harris, 2002; Davidson, 2003) suggested a progress change of organizational culture to the clan culture type as defined by Cameron and Quinn (1999). This culture type boasts a family type of environment where the employees are an integral part of the organization. It is more of a free flowing type of organization, which has limited structure and informal lines of communication. Viewing the employees as part of an interconnected, extended family and addressing the needs and wants of the individuals creates a higher sense of loyalty. Rather than reinforcing managerial authority and confining the subordinate's role to that of highly motivated obedience, the shared power structure (Kohn, 1999) and autonomy associated with the clan culture would result in greater productivity. A study conducted by Koutroumanis (2005) showed a high level of clan culture (mean of 5.67, on a 7 – point Likert scale) in a sample of 293 respondents in 6 independently owned full service restaurants. The study indicated a high level of correlation between the clan type culture and service quality in these restaurants (r=0.56, p<.001) (Koutroumanis, 2005).

Restaurant employees are on the front lines of service and hear customer reactions immediately, thereby being a useful source of information. Allowing the employees to impact operations at such a level tends to enrich their job functions and create a sense of ownership within their food and beverage unit. Besides the intrinsic rewards associated with deeper involvement, the routine of tedious tasks to which restaurant personnel have become accustom is liable to be minimized if not transcended. If employees see that their contributions and input become implemented company strategies, they will naturally begin to build a bond with the foodservice operation. The possibility of sharing and retaining the knowledge which resides in employees' minds would not only add value for internal and external customers, but also benefit overall organizational effectiveness in today's knowledge-oriented era (Yang & Wan, 2004).

Creating the Culture Change—Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (Ocia)

Developing a new organizational culture requires time and perseverance from the foodservice proprietors and the employees. Nonetheless, it is a practice that organizations engage in frequently. According to Ogbonna and Harris (2002), studies show that during the course of their existence, over 90% of organizations engage in some type of planned organizational culture change.

The reasons for engaging in this change range from improving employee morale to increasing levels of organizational effectiveness. The structural context of the employees understanding their new role as collaborators and partners in the organization takes time to take hold, but should have a significant positive impact to the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Stamper & Van Dyne, 2003; Davidson, 2003).

Researchers have reported varied methodologies to engage in cultural change within organizations. Based on the Competing Values Framework, Cameron and Quinn (1999) developed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) to assess and change culture types within organizations. The primary step in this evaluation process is to use the OCAI instrument to answer a series of questions that will assist management in diagnosing the current culture type within the organization and decide if change is desired. Once the organization has decided to change the culture, the OCAI instrument utilizes a six step systematic model in stimulating the culture change. The six-step model includes: (1) Diagnosis and Consensus for the Present, (2) Diagnosis and Consensus for the Future, (3) What it Means (which direction of culture change should be developed), (4) Illustrative Stories (what are the new key values and desired orientations of the new culture), (5) Strategic Action Steps, (6) An Implementation Plan (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). A critical factor to effective culture change is managements' ability to minimize resistance to change, by creating a "buy in" with the employees. Utilizing the OCAI Instrument not only helps in structuring the change but also is a systematic way of involving employees at every level, increasing chances of success (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). According to previous research (Davidson, 2003; Ogbonna & Harris, 2002; Creque, 2003), the ability to change and shape organizational culture can have multiple positive effects on organizations, making the OCAI instrument a very valuable tool in aiding the cultural change process.

Impact and Conclusion of Organizational Culture on the Restaurant Industry

Restaurant operation failure rates indicate that the challenges involved in running such establishments are greater than other small businesses. The industry is unique in many aspects. Operations rely on exactness of execution to create the perfect dining experience. Crook, Ketchen, and Snow (2003) believed that employees should be viewed as strategic resources. The goal should be to use employees as a distinctive, strategic competency. Additionally, research has shown that hospitality organizations that have self-managed teams and empowerment strategies in place have lower employee turnover and higher levels of success and profitability (Crook, Ketchen, & Snow). The research indicated that less bureaucratic organizational cultures in foodservice organizations, like those found in independently owned food and beverage businesses, create positive relationships between the employees and the organization (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2003). The implications of the research are simultaneously many and one—profit. The literature suggested that developing a clan culture will help in building higher levels of commitment within restaurants. Restaurant operators

using clan culture would benefit by creating an environment that will allow the employees to maximize their input in all areas of operations, including areas traditionally conducted by management, such as scheduling, service training, and menu development, which can ultimately lead to higher levels of productivity. The result will assist in reducing turnover and simultaneously help build higher levels of service and overall productivity. The intent is to play an important role in building repeat patronage, which has positive effects on the profitability and sustained longevity of foodservice operations. In sum, modifications of organizational climate and culture can appreciably affect profit margins; that much is evident in the literature.

Much of the academic and mainstream sources of hospitality research have not significantly advanced the level of discourse in the area of organizational culture. Those who formally study the restaurant industry should be mindful of the emerging leadership principles and concepts that are applicable. Hence, they will be able to engage in research that progresses the discipline at a quicker rate than has been the case.

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THE "HOME TEAM" APPROACH TO SERVICE QUALITY: LINKING AND LEVERAGING COMMUNICATIONS BETWEEN HUMAN RESOURCES, OPERATIONS AND MARKETING

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ABSTRACT

Many service organizations continue to struggle with concerns of service quality delivery. While internal marketing has been implemented in organizations as a method of supporting service quality, its effectiveness has been limited. We suggest that internal marketing must incorporate structural communication linkages between human resource management (HRM), operations management (OM) and marketing (MKT) in order to be more effective. Specifically, the HOME Team approach – with a coalescence of human resources, operations and marketing expertise – is suggested for improving the development and implementation of internal marketing strategies for service quality improvement. By formulating a team in which information on the "what" (MKT), "how" (OM) and "who" (HRM) of service quality is freely shared, used and communicated, the stage is set for the service provider to "be the brand"– that is, to be a tangible, physical representative of the brand in delivering quality services to the consumer.

INTRODUCTION

Organizations that have a successful service orientation – that have the ability to consistently create and deliver service quality – are often said to be high performance firms (Homburg, Hoyer & Fassnach, 2002; Lytle & Timmerman, 2006; Owen, Mundy, Guild & Guild, 2001). Indeed, when a firm's service orientation becomes a distinctive core competence, the firm can enjoy a differentiated position in the minds of consumers, resulting in increased customer satisfaction, loyalty, profit and growth (Gray, 2006; Henkoff, 1994; Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser & Schlesinger, 1994; Homburg, et al., 2002; Lytle & Timmerman, 2006; Narver & Slater, 1990). Singapore Air, Disney World, and the Mayo Clinic are examples of high performance organizations in which service is a distinctive core competence; however, these high performance service organizations are more the exception than the rule.

Despite the desire to achieve high performance outcomes, many firms continue to struggle with service quality issues. Why? One possible explanation is that organizations may not be able

to leverage their expertise in producing quality goods, to producing quality services demanded by consumers. (As a simple example, an owner-chef of a restaurant may have expertise and ability to "produce" menu items desired by patrons, but flounder with regard to developing and managing a wait staff that is friendly, attentive and knowledgeable.) Another possible explanation is that organizational communications and functions still remain, for the most part, in silos bounded by departmental loyalties and metrics for success – even though the customer experiences the service brand through promises communicated and delivered by the organizational gestalt (Complex Business, 2008). Yet a third possible explanation is that internal marketing, which has been used to support aspects of service quality, is not – as currently implemented – the service quality panacea that firms have expected it to be.

The purpose of this article is to extend the current conceptualization of internal marketing to encompass more comprehensive communication linkages that support service quality in an organization. First, we describe service quality and how it is assessed. Next, we describe why and how internal marketing has been used in an attempt to improve service quality. We will submit that its current conceptualization and operationalization may be insufficient in supporting high service quality, as evidenced by the number of firms that continue to be plagued with service quality problems. We posit that an extended template for internal marketing – based on an established communication infrastructure – is needed in order for organizations to leverage inter-departmental knowledge to improve intra-organizational service quality performance. To this end, we will offer a cross-functional "HOME Team" approach to internal marketing for service quality.

SERVICE QUALITY – CONSUMER EVALUATIONS OF THE BRAND PROMISE

The consumer is the arbiter of quality. When the brand is a tangible good, a consumer evaluates brand quality on the basis of technical quality: how well the brand performs as expected and as promised through marketing communications. However, service quality is not always easily assessed. The consumer's assessment of service quality relates to how well the service outcomes and the service experience meet his/her needs, requirements and expectations (Lewis, 1993). In other words, a consumer evaluates service quality based on perceptions of technical quality and/or functional quality. Specifically, a consumer assesses technical quality on the basis of what is delivered (e.g., "Did the outcome meet the brand promise?"). In contrast, a consumer assesses functional quality on the basis of how the service is is delivered (e.g., "Did I like the way the service provider delivered the brand promise?") (Bitner, Booms & Tetreault, 1990; Brady & Cronin, 2001b). Furthermore, when a consumer does not have the expertise, time, and/or desire to make an assessment of technical quality, he/she may rely primarily, and sometimes completely, on perceptions of functional quality to assess service quality (Berry, Zeithaml & Parasuraman, 1990; Ostrom & Iacobucci, 1995; Zemke, 1992).

Consider the example of a consumer – let's call her Ms. Byer – who goes to Midas for brake repairs. Ms. Byer is more likely to perceive that Midas has delivered on its brand promise – i.e., Trust

the Midas Touch™ – if her car no longer has brake problems (her only assessment of technical quality) <u>and</u> if the service provider was confident and friendly – or trustworthy (which would be Ms. Byer's assessment of functional quality, per the brand promise). However, if Ms. Byer takes her car to Midas for an oil change, there is no way for her to be able to assess the technical quality of the service; as such, her assessment of functional quality would be the only basis for her assessment of service quality. The quality of the oil change service (technical quality) would be the perceived quality of the experience with the service provider (functional quality).

As a result, the consumer often sees the service provider as the brand itself, for it is through the experience with the service provider that the consumer perceives whether or not the brand promise is fulfilled (Wirtz, Heracleous & Pangarkar, 2008). From the perspective of the consumer -- the perspective of primary interest to the service organization -- the service provider <u>is</u> the brand. Critical to the success of service organizations is that delivery of the service brand promise (and consumers' perceptions thereof) hinges on the knowledge, skills and abilities of the service provider; thus, it is imperative that the organization educate employees internally to "be the brand" before they are charged with delivering the brand promise to the external customer. Many organizations look to human resource management (HRM) to identify and train the service providers to "be the brand" – and HRM has used internal marketing techniques to accomplish this challenge.

INTERNAL MARKETING – A SERVICE QUALITY EFFORT

Traditional marketing focuses on creating, delivering and promoting products that simultaneously meet the needs of the consumer and the goals of the organization. With internal marketing, the consumers are internal to the organization – that is, the consumers are employees. Given the employee focus, internal marketing has typically been under the direction of human resource management (HRM). In a service organization, HRM uses internal marketing to strengthen relationships with service providers so that they might better satisfy external customers (Mafi, 2000). The idea supporting internal marketing is that, by keeping employees informed about the services they provide in an effort, employees will be increasingly motivated to deliver a high level of service quality (Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000; Gray, 2006; Owen, et al., 2001; Wasner & Bruner, 1991).

Internal marketing may be implemented in a variety of ways. While the responsibility for internal marketing rests with HRM, operations management (OM) has a significant role in its implementation. OM must coordinate with HRM in recruiting, hiring, training, and evaluating service providers. During a new employee's training and probationary period, OM works in conjunction with HRM to engage employees in unique learning experiences and to closely evaluate service performance. In addition, collaboration between HRM and OM is more likely to result in correct job placement (to capitalize on employee strengths) and appropriate reward systems that are aligned with expected work behaviors. Likewise, communication linkages between HRM and OM could open discussion training programs, as well as performance evaluation and rewards systems, that HRM and OM could jointly

implement toward the goal of service quality delivery. Indeed, research has shown hiring practices and training opportunities to be correlated with "speed" and "courtesy" aspects of service quality (Deszca & Ament, 1992; Elmadag, Ellinger & Franke, 2008; Schneider and Bowen, 1993).
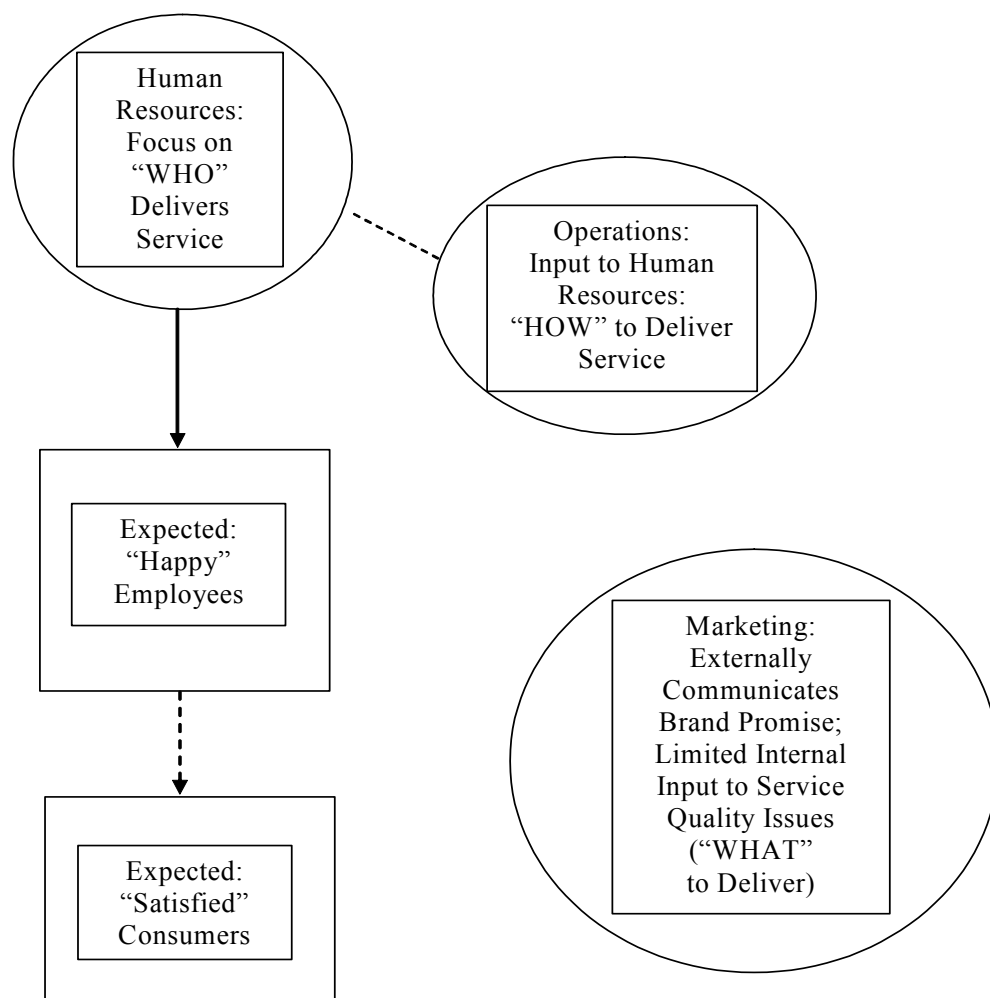
In service firms, HRM also works closely with OM to appropriately empower service providers (Wirtz, et al., 2008). Employees are more likely to feel empowered when they are given information about the organization and about the importance of the service they are providing; this empowerment is felt to an even higher degree when the employees' feedback is incorporated into organizational decisions. The resulting positive employee attitudes are thought to contribute to the delivery of service quality (Dean, 2004). Empowerment results in quicker responses to consumer needs during service delivery, and increases in customer satisfaction and loyalty retention rate (Barnes, Fox & Morris, 2004; Bowen & Lawler, 1992; Dean, 2004; Rafiq & Ahmed, 1998; Wasmer & Bruner, 1991).

INTERNAL MARKETING IS NOT A SERVICE QUALITY PANACEA

Internal marketing techniques have been shown to enhance inter-departmental relationships (Pitt, Bruwer, Nel & Berthon, 1999), to keep employees updated about new service developments (Wirtz, et al., 2008) and to support on-the-job coaching of service providers (Elmadag, et al., 2008; Owen, et al., 2001). However, using internal marketing may inherently and artificially delimit the organization's focus of service quality in two ways. First, the burden of service quality may be placed, at least in part, on HRM, since they are responsible for internal marketing. However, it is unfair to place the onus of service quality delivery – an organizational goal – on a single department, particularly one whose role is tangential to the actual production of quality services and not directly aligned with external consumers. Second, there may be a misguided assumption that service providers simply need to be "happy" in order to deliver quality service and, thereby, satisfy consumers. There is more to service quality delivery than ensuring employees are informed and satisfied. As such, the current conceptualization and implementation of internal marketing in many companies (see Figure 1) falls short of the communication linkages that must be established and utilized within an organization with a service orientation.

Unfortunately, many service organizations may have looked to internal marketing as "the" answer to the question of how to improve service quality. Internal marketing has been more of a reality for HRM and OM, than for marketing (Pitt et al., 1999). While it may appear intuitive that internal marketing should at least include input from marketing (MKT), research has shown this is not always the case. MKT's traditional focus is on the external consumer, and is responsible for understanding consumer behavior, providing input to the organization vis-à-vis brand offerings, and for communicating the organizational brand promise to consumers.

Figure 1:   Internal marketing, as currently conceptualized and operationalized.

Human Resources: Focus on "WHO" Delivers Service

Operations: Input to Human Resources: "HOW" to Deliver Service

Expected: "Happy" Employees

Expected: "Satisfied" Consumers

Marketing: Externally Communicates Brand Promise; Limited Internal Input to Service Quality Issues ("WHAT" to Deliver)

While it is MKT who interfaces with consumers, who understands their quality service expectations and delivers brand promises of quality to them, MKT does not typically have a structural linkage to HRM or OM in internal marketing for service quality. However, without the direct input of MKT, who has the expertise in knowing "what" should be delivered, it is more burdensome for HRM to influence "who" provides the service. Often, HRM is responsible for training service providers on how to deliver quality and to ultimately "be the brand" – even though understanding the specifics of

functional quality and how to "be the brand" from the consumer's standpoint are the expertise of MKT, not HRM.   As such, communications between MKT and HRM are vital in a firm with a service orientation.

Service providers are the purveyors of the brand promise. As such, OM must be able to understand technical quality from the standpoint of the consumer, so that the OM can identify the "hard skills" that employees must possess that enable them to perform the service tasks. OM must also be able to understand the functional quality demands of the consumer, so that the OM can identify the "soft skills" that will allow them to perform the tasks in the manner that is valued by the target market (Alboher, 2008). While technical quality specifications are typically objective (e.g., to complete the transaction within 30 minutes of the consumer's arrival), functional quality specifications may be more difficult for the OM to identify. However, these soft skills should be relatively easily determined by MKT, who knows the nuances of the consumers requirements for functional quality and who is more intimately familiar with the brand messages about the service being communicated to the consumer. Accordingly, MKT and OM should maintain direct communication in the service firm.

Implementation of internal marketing in an organization is not a task that should be delegated to, and/or the ultimate responsibility of, only one department. Gray (2006) asserts that successful services must integrate everything from external marketing messages, to internal marketing messages, to service delivery strategies. In other words, organizations need to have an established system of communication linkages that will allow HRM, OM and MKT to see the totality of the brand as it is externally and internally communicated, delivered and assessed. We assert that marketing, operations and human resource professionals have valuable knowledge and skills that should be leveraged, and that there must be more than transitory interfaces between departments in order to ensure service quality.

Firms have found that, when employees are internally coordinated and focused on service quality, the service will be more likely to fulfill their consumers' expectations (Cespedes, 1992; Heskett, et al., 1994; Mohamed, Stankosky & Murray, 2004; Moorman & Rust 1999). Organizational success is more likely to occur when all major forces within the organization are synergistically oriented toward the same goal (Czaplewski, Ferguson & Milliman, 2001; Hartline, Maxim & McGee, 2000; Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000).   The literature points to the value of inter-functional relationships in establishing, maintaining and improving service quality (Dean, 2004; Heskett, et al., 1994; Moorman & Rust, 1999). We seek to formalize the communication infrastructure necessary to improve service quality by extending the current conceptualization of internal marketing to include the utilization of cross-functional teams in the HOME Team approach.

HOME TEAM APPROACH:
A COMMUNICATION EXTENSION OF INTERNAL MARKETING

The coalition of HRM, OM and MKT in a cross-functional communication team maximizes the potential for internal marketing success. To this end, we offer an extension to the current internal marketing approach that specifically incorporates structural communication linkages that are integral to improving service quality. As shown in Figure 2, the HOME Team approach is a cross-functional structural communication extension of internal marketing, characterized by an alliance of human resource, operations and marketing expertise, who contribute to service quality delivery by establishing and consistently communicating to both internal and external customers "who" will deliver the service, "how" the service will be delivered, and "what" service outcomes will be to delivered.

Figure 2: The Proposed "HOME Team" Model
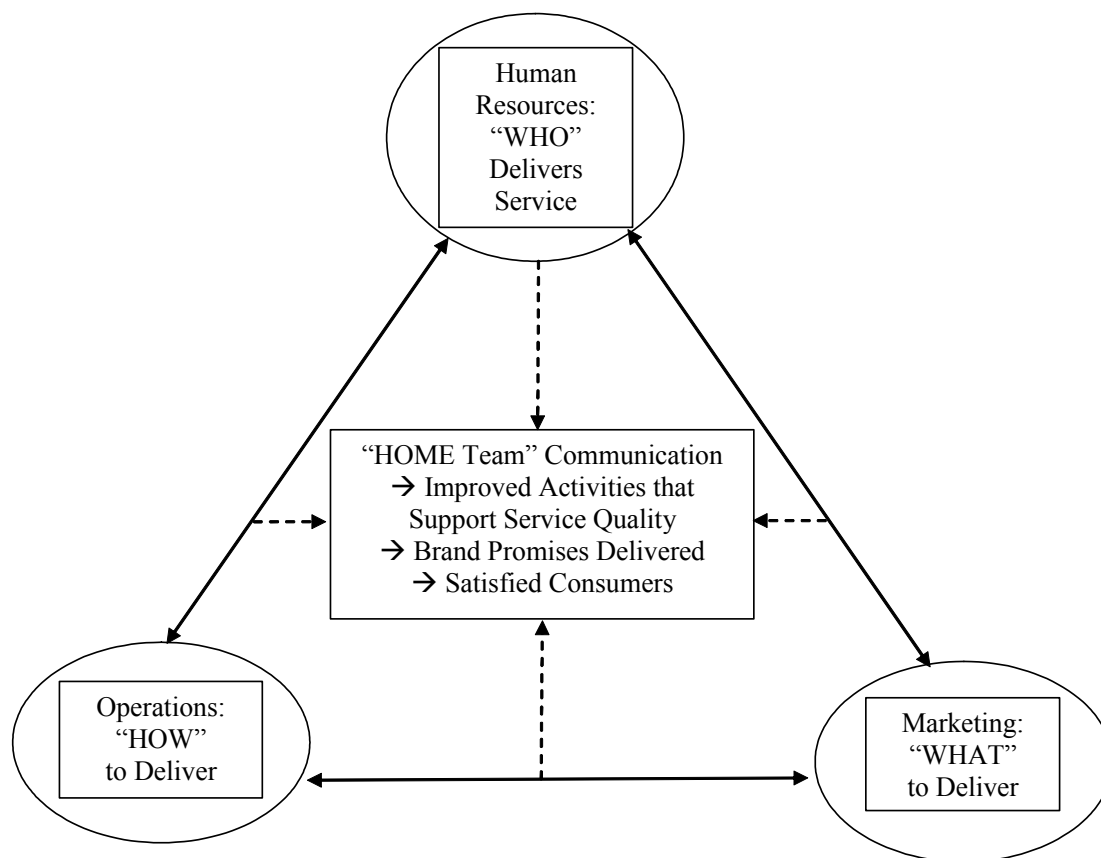
Davis (1991) discusses the integration of departments via cross-functional teamwork. Cross-functional teams consist of specialists from several disciplines or departments who work together toward problem solving or process improvement. The cross-functional team approach can generate commitment among its members, and has been used to improve organizational processes (Palmer & Burns, 1992), to reduce problems with product quality (Henke, Krachenberg & Lyons, 1993), and to improve customer relationships (McCutcheon, Ramri & Meredith, 1994). Sedlock (2007) asserts that cross functionality is a guiding principle of quality. Moorman & Rust (1999) refer to this as the "cross-functional dispersion of marketing" (p.183). Communication barriers, conflicting goals and even "turf" issues can inhibit departments from effectively working together.

The name of the proposed approach – HOME Team – is significant in that it identifies that human resources, operations and marketing have expertise that should be leveraged in internal marketing order to promote service quality; "team" emphasizes the singular organizational (vs. departmental) focus on service quality. The HOME Team approach is supported by the literature, in that it answers a call, from HRM, OM and MKT researchers alike, for practitioners to cross the functional boundaries of their respective disciplines that, for too long, have separated organizational departments into self-contained entities (Lovelock, 1992; Mohamed, et al., 2004; Proehl, 1997; Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000; Schuler, 1992; Schneider, 1994).

What is the value of implementing the HOME Team approach to improve internal marketing and service quality initiatives? Implementing the HOME Team approach would be an overt signal to the organization that internal marketing and service quality is important to the organization, and viewed as a shared responsibility. With HRM, OM and MKT working as a unit, all team members are more likely to "own" the internal marketing function, feel that they have the responsibility and authority to ensure that the service quality goals of internal marketing are achieved, and benefit from the sharing of tacit knowledge that can occur in cross-functional teaming (Mohamed, et al., 2004).

The HOME Team is an uncomplicated, practical, goal-oriented approach, in that it suggests simple structural linkages that support simultaneous communication focused on service quality. For MKT to provide input regarding consumer quality expectations to OM separate from HRM would be inefficient at best. At worst, three different interpretations of quality requirements could result: one interpretation held by MKT, a second interpretation held by HRM and yet a third interpretation held by OM. Simultaneous communication of quality (and other) consumer requirements in a cross-functional team environment would serve to reduce misinterpretations and to enhance consistency in internal marketing and quality service delivery.

MKT knows that the service provider is a strong cue to the consumer regarding service quality through the delivery of functional (as well as technical) quality, and that the service provider must be able to be a tangible representation of the service brand (i.e., to "be the brand"), as opposed to simply produce the brand through technical quality. The HOME Team approach supports the organizational effort to manage employees and outcomes as part of the service itself.

Furthermore, the HOME Team approach can lead to closer communications with external consumers. OM, through service provider interactions and data collection efforts, can be an indispensible resource of consumer feedback to MKT (Complex Business, 2008; Wasner & Bruner, 1991). The systematic means of obtaining on-going market research could then be used by the HOME Team in an effort to make quick responses to changing customer needs and perceptions of service quality (Gray, 2006).

ORGANIZATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

Organizational structure must support its strategy: If an organization seeks to improve service quality, then top management must be willing to make the necessary structural changes to support that goal. Indeed, implementing the HOME Team approach would require such a change; however, the structural impact would be relatively delimited, since it would be an addition of a cross-functional team representing departmental areas (HRM, OM and MKT) that already exist. This Home Team addition to the organizational structure would not affect reporting hierarchies nor other structures for the lower-level employees, and as such can be more easily envisioned and established than those changes that would affect the entire workforce and potentially disrupt workflow (e.g., reorganizing departments). However, the relative simplicity of implementing the HOME Team does not imply that the change would not meet with some challenges and perhaps varying degrees of resistance. While it is impractical to attempt to address all potential challenges, we will speak to major considerations in putting the HOME Team approach into action.

The implementation of a cross-functional HOME Team is dependent upon an organizational commitment to service quality. A focus on service quality must be planned, communicated and reinforced throughout the organization, beginning at the top (George, 1990; Gray, 2006). It may be obvious that top management would have to approve the implementation of the HOME Team in their organization. Additionally, and just as importantly, top management must be willing to give HOME Team the responsibility for improving service quality <u>and</u> the authority to make it happen.

The HOME Team would have to be selected with care. Members from each of the functional areas (HRM, OM and MKT) should have knowledge of current organizational issues with service quality, and have a commitment to service quality improvement. Members must have good communication and decision-making skills, be open-minded and good problem solvers, and have the proven ability to perform at a high level in a team environment. The team member(s) must have (or be given) the authority to make decisions or recommendations on behalf of his/her functional area.

Once formed, the HOME Team should be introduced to the entire organization. Several benefits of doing so: It would give top management an opportunity to publically offer support and recognition of the importance of the HOME Team to the organization's future goals, and it would reinforce the importance of service quality improvement to employees. A public introduction would also reinforce

to the team members that they are a part of the HOME Team – something bigger than themselves – which would be beneficial in the early stages of team building.

Specific service quality objectives will vary depending on the organization, but must always be understandable by and effectively communicated to all employees (Proehl, 1997). The HOME Team approach, given that it is an extension of internal marketing, will be more likely to result in consistent and reinforcing quality service messages that will resound throughout the organization. Another advantage that could emanate from the HOME Team is that it could be perceived as an embodiment of a service orientation where the organization is working toward a common goal, and where employees understand and appreciate others in the organization. Furthermore, the HOME Team could reinforce that all employees, working together, are responsible for achieving corporate objectives. As asserted by Narver & Slater (1990) and emphasized by Brady & Cronin (2001a), organizations must share customer information with employees, and employees must know how to use this information to be responsive to consumers, in order for a customer-oriented culture to exist. A cross-functional HOME Team approach may be employed in organizations where service providers are challenged to "become" the service brand in order to deliver both technical and functional quality to the consumer.

The HOME Team formalizes interpersonal interactions that are necessary to coordinate activities across functional boundardies (Gounaris, 2008; Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000). The Team environment (endorsed by Mohemed, et. al, 2004 and Sedlock, 2007) becomes one where points of contact between HRM, OM and MKT are firmly established and oriented toward enhancing service quality delivery. The Team concept emphasizes the importance of understanding the service quality as a flow of work through an organization, instead of simply focusing on tasks performed in each functional area (Davis, 1991; Heskett, et al., 1994). A cross-functional HOME Team approach allows HRM, OM and MKT to actively work and make decisions in an environment where there is multi-lateral communication and information sharing. The Team's work could be accomplished in face-to-face meetings, which would be most important during the early stages of team development. As the HOME Team becomes a more established entity, the communication and information-sharing could take place through an organization intranet or other communication system. As Mohamed, et al. (2004) assert, interpersonal knowledge transfer leads to better and faster results than simply sharing data through an information system.

The HOME Team, with responsibility and authority for service quality improvement, must function and make decisions as a unit. All team members must "sign off" on all decisions that impact service quality (for example, the selection of new service providers). Traditionally, these activities have been the primary responsibility of a single department. As such, this function of the team is likely to meet with resistance – since the HOME Team will begin to have jurisdiction over portions of the organizational "turf" traditionally governed by a single department. Again, upper-management support of the HOME Team is critical to overcome resistance; more importantly, all employees in the three affected departments (in particular) must be routinely informed as to the function and goal of the HOME Team, to continue to engender their support and cooperation in meeting service quality objectives.

A strategic focus on internal marketing of service quality demands that the procedures and methods used to improve quality service provision be cost-beneficial. This financial aspect is very important, given that internal marketing efforts to improve quality service is ultimately justified by competitive pressures. The economic value of customer retention must be considered, as well as the bottom-line benefits of those factors that build, maintain, or expand the customer's relationship with the service provider -- and thus the organization (Cespedes, 1992). The HOME Team must be able to show how the tactics that are employed impact profitability. This can be calculated by adding the current cost of the problem (or the opportunity costs of not addressing quality aspects of service delivery) and the cost of the solution (employee training, performance incentives, etc.), and comparing this total cost to the expected benefits to be derived from the solution. The resultant difference is, in effect, a "return on investment" calculation, which can be easily interpreted and understood by top management and employees alike. Quantification of quality improvements provides objective information that can be used as a communication tool for the HOME Team for further motivating employees and strengthening top management's support for HOME Team activities.

SUMMARY

Many organizations continue to wrestle with the question of how to improve service quality delivery. Some organizations have used internal marketing techniques to support and improve service quality; however, it has not been a panacea for service quality issues that continue to persist. We suggest that the success of internal marketing has been limited by its current conceptualization by, and implementation in, service organizations. We offer an extension to current implementation of internal marketing – a HOME Team – in which cross-functional communications between human resources, operations and marketing are enhanced and leveraged toward the goal of service quality improvement. In the future, researchers should continue to identify and explore inter-departmental communication linkages that must be structurally established and practically used, to further advance a truly organizational approach to service quality enhancement.

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CORRELATES OF THE BASES OF POWER AND THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to empirically test the relationship between personality traits mainly agreeableness and neuroticism, and power. 150 employees working in "medium" size organizations in Lebanon filled the questionnaire. The results of the regression analysis indicated that expert, referent, reward, and legitimate powers, were positively related to agreeableness; where as, neuroticism was negatively related to referent power and positively related to coercive power. Further research could also explore the other Big Five traits and their relation to power.

KEY WORDS: Power, Personality Traits, Emotional Stability, Neuroticism, Agreeableness.

INTRODUCTION

Kotter (1977, p.125) stated that "A misunderstanding is becoming increasingly burdensome because in today's large and complex organizations the effective performance of most managerial jobs requires one to be skilled at the acquisition and use of power".

Regardless of the organization type, one of the basic roles of an organization is to transmit knowledge, opportunities, and regulations of work from a manager to a subordinate employee (Koslowsky and Stashevsky, 2005). The cost of such influence process has been explored in research and was defined as "power" (Koslowsky and Stashevsky, 2005). Power is viewed as a precious asset that many businesses try to acquire (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2006) and is thought to have an effect on managements' actions and employees' reactions (Tjosvold and Sun, 2005).

When a leader exercises power, it could lead to many possible outcomes depending on the bases of power used, the method in which it was applied, and both the leader and the subordinate's individual characteristics (e.g. personality traits) (Moorhead & Griffin, 1998). Thus, power within an organization to a great extent, is dependent on employees' behaviors and attitudes. Power resides in the individual and is independent of that individual's position (Shermerhorn, et.al., 2004).

On the other hand, personality traits are viewed as significant and powerful variables, and are perceived as the most central psychological tools for directing and controlling behavior (Heinstrom, 2003).

According to Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) the effective use of power by managers leads to positive outcomes. However, power within managerial contexts can be positive i.e. enabling change to take place, or negative causing change or advancement to be blocked. Power can then be explained by the manager's ability to manipulate the feelings, purposes, values, and behaviors of subordinates (French and Raven, 1959). It is then imperative that we understand how personality traits influence the nature of power a person observes and uses.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Power

Power by definition, is the capacity to apply influence over others. It is the ability to get someone to do what you want done or the ability to make things happen in the way you want them to happen (Shermerhorn, et.al., 2004; Pfeffer, 1992). However, power is not a tool for altering others' attitudes and behaviors if they are not able and willing.

Power is a force that can induce change in the behavior of others. As a result, organizational development and innovation often requires obtaining the power necessary to induce change or to overcome resistance (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2006).

An individual's power in the organization originates from interpersonal bases (position, qualities, and expertise), and/or structural and situational bases (i.e. control over resources, formal authority, and control over information) (French & Raven, 1959; Kanter, 1982; Kotter, 1977). French & Raven (1959) proposed five different bases of power: reward, coercive, expert, legitimate, and referent. Reward power originates from the individual's ability to determine who will receive the rewards valued by others (tangible benefits or status symbols) and to eliminate unpleasant sanctions that is negative reinforcement (Robbins and Judge, 2008; McShane and Glinow, 2005; Erkutlu and Chafra, 2006). Its bases can be traced to the Expectancy Theory of Motivation i.e. a direct relation exists between performance and rewards. Coercive power, stems from the expectation of punishment (Robbins and Judge, 2008), physically or psychologically, (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004) if the individual does not act in accordance with given requirements, desires or demands.

On the other hand, legitimate power is derived from an individual's structural position that gives him/her the right to command obedience. However, it is restricted to the extent that the person who controls power is perceived as being legitimate (McShane and Glinow, 2005; Chuck, 2009). Expert power originates from the individual's own personality features, and qualities (Robins and Judge, 2008). It is the skill of influencing other individuals by having unique skills, knowledge, capability or proficiency that is of value to them (McShane and Glinow, 2005). Finally, referent power is identifying

with a person you admire, and wish to be like (Ambur, 2000). It originates from the individual's possessed personal characteristics, mostly depends on his/her interpersonal skills, and expands gradually through time. In many situations, it is associated with charisma and often involves willingness to follow, trust, affection, similarity, and emotional involvement (McShane and Glinow, 2005). That is why it may dissolve rapidly if the relationship is re-evaluated negatively by followers.

It is important to note that power bases produce power only in specific situations (McShane and Glinow, 2005). These situations are obligatory since they create the extent to which power holders have influences. They include: substitutability of resources; centrality i.e. the extent to which there is interdependence between those who hold power and others; visibility; and discretion or the choice the individual has when making decisions and providing judgments without prior recognition or agreement from superior;. These contingencies are not sources of power but determine how people can control and leverage their power bases.

Personality Traits

Ryckman (1982, p. 5) defined Personality as the "dynamic and organized set of characteristics of a person that uniquely influences his/her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors". This concept represents behavioral and cognitive prototypes that have been proven stable through time and in different settings (Cattell, 1964). Thus, we can rationally anticipate that personality traits manipulate personal attitudes and values, as most current pragmatic studies have confirmed (Olver and Mooradian, 2003).

Personality traits have recently become both popular and an accepted means for explaining individuals' behavior, i.e. actions, manners, targets, and purposes (Llewellyn and Wilson, 2003). It helps identify the reasons for individuals' different reactions to similar situations (Cooper, 1998). According to Havaleschka (1999) it is imperative that we understand the behavior of individuals since the success or failure of a business relies on the make up of the personalities of both managers and employees in the work group.

In recent years, the bases that form our personality introduced by McCrae and Costa (1982) also known as the BIG Five, have gained popularity as a basic framework for identifying and classifying traits (Sodiya et.al., 2007). Research has revealed that the Big Five are strong predictors of work behavior across cultures, time, and contexts (Robbins & Judge, 2008; Barrick & Mount, 1991). These traits were presented in a model termed the Five-Factor Model (FFM) which "describes the human personality sphere in a parsimonious and comprehensive way" (Leung & Bozionelos, 2004, p.63). The model comprises the following traits: Agreeableness, Extroversion, Emotional Stability, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience (Goldberg, 1990). However, the emphasis in this research will be on the two personality traits - mainly neuroticism and agreeableness.

Agreeableness

This dimension demonstrates how individuals can relate to others and how considerate are they of others' opinions and feelings. Without agreeableness, individuals tend to be cold, disagreeable, and aggressive. Highly agreeable individuals are warm, trusting, and cooperative.

Extroversion

This trait relates to one's ease with relationships. Extroverts are more likely to be friendly, sociable, confident, and outgoing, while introverts are reserved, quiet, shy, and distant.

Emotional Stability

Frequently known by its opposite, neuroticism, signifies an individual's ability to resist stress. Individuals having high emotional stability are more likely to be secure, calm, and self-confident. On the other hand, individuals scoring low on emotional stability are more likely to be worried, nervous, depressed, and unconfident.

Conscientiousness

This trait is a determinant of reliability. A highly conscientious person is persistent, organized, dependable, and responsible. Low conscientious individuals are distracted easily, unreliable, and disorganized.

Openness to experience

Openness to experience deals with one's attraction and interests with new things. Highly open individuals are sensitive, imaginative, inquisitive, and creative. Those low on openness to experience are conservative and are more comfortable with familiar environments.

Personality and Power

Agreeableness

Agreeable individuals tend to be sympathetic and are not hostile towards others. Agreeable individuals are pleasant, tolerant, warm, cooperative, flexible, modest, and tactful (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Those high in agreeableness are usually easy to get along with and perform extremely well in circumstances that require collaboration or interaction with others (Hough, 1992; Barrick & Mount,

1991). They tend to have less aggression and are reliable, emotionally stable, and conform (Clarke & Roberston, 2005). Agreeableness is useful in attaining and maintaining popularity. Highly agreeable individuals tend to have better interpersonal relationships (Asendorf & Wilpers, 1998). In work settings, these individuals show a higher level of interpersonal capability (Witt et al., 2002) and are more likely to collaborate effectively in groups. A study by Asendorf & Wilpers (1998) on the effects of personality on social relationships found that individuals who scored low in agreeableness compared to those who scored high, tended to use more power for resolving social conflict.

The correlation between agreeableness and work involvement imply that low agreeableness individuals tend to be more engaged with their work hoping to satisfy their ego needs by trying to advance their careers (Bozionelos, 2004). Keeping in mind that agreeableness has been positively related to work performance (Salgado, 1997), it is then possible that those with low agreeableness scores, do not display the kind of involvement needed on the job and thus their performance will suffer. From the above, we can then predict the following:

> *H1:*   *Reward power is positively related to agreeableness.*
> *H2:*   *Legitimate power is positively related to agreeableness*
> *H3:*   *Referent power is positively related to agreeableness.*
> *H4:*   *Expert power is positively related to agreeableness.*

Emotional Stability

Individuals with high scores on emotional stability, are more likely to be cheerful, calm, and even-tempered than low scorers (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997). These individuals tend not to display their emotions, and are less depressed or anxious. The opposite of emotional stability is neuroses. It is a form of emotional instability (McCrae & John, 1992) rather than a psychiatrical defect (Heinstrom, 2003). It includes: impulsiveness, resentment, depression, self-consciousness, and anxiety. Individuals high in neuroticism tend to have less performance and cognitive abilities (Mathews et al, 1991), experience higher stress levels, are pre-occupied with their anxieties and worries rather than with the task at hand, make more errors, and do not seek active control of their environment (Judge, 1993; Hansen, 1989).

Some of the characteristics associated with neuroticism include: insecurity, pessimism, nervousness, low confidence, and tendency to worry too much. Since individuals with high neuroticism tend to negatively interpret experiences and are pessimistic, they are more likely to develop negative attitudes towards their work and career. A recent meta- analytic research by Judge and Ilies (2002) concluded that work performance motivation and neuroticism are negatively correlated. In addition, Furnham and Rawles (1999) suggest that those with high scores in neuroticism tend to attach more importance to hygiene work related factors such as working conditions and security more than

motivating factors like work itself and opportunities for achievement. According to an empirical study by Malouff et al. (1990), individuals who score high on neuroticism, tend to be less goal- oriented.

Emotionally stable individuals tend to focus on behavioral skills when interacting with others i.e. interpersonal competence. However, highly neurotic individuals are more self conscious, highly self-monitor (Ang et al., 2006), emotionally reactive, and would explain normal situations as threatening and slight stressors as hard (Thomas et.al., 1996). When an individual feels anxious, he/she is more likely to flee from a threatening circumstance where a history of failure exists (Revelle, 1995). Emotional stability was also correlated with low stress levels. Research indicated that in stressful situations, highly neurotic individuals' performance drop (Costa & McCrae, 1992).Thus we predict that:

H5:   Coercive power is positively related to Neuroticism
H6:   Expert power is negatively related to neuroticism

METHODOLOGY

Employees working in "medium" size enterprises in Lebanon were surveyed to investigate the correlation between the two personality traits (agreeableness and neuroticism) and the bases of power. Medium size enterprises are defined in this study according to the number of employees (100>employees<500) relative to the country size where the majority of businesses are either small or medium. Thus, in order to collect data, a purposive sampling was used. According to Zikmund (1994) the use of a purposive sampling allows the researcher to select a sample to serve the specific purpose of the study. A total of 200 questionnaire were handed out with a response rate of 75% (150 employees filled the questionnaire).

The questionnaire had three parts. The first part asked for the demographic variables i.e. gender, age, education, and years of experience. The second part included French and Raven (1959) power bases, and part three the two personality traits (agreeableness and neuroticism). The French and Raven power variables (Reward, Coercive, Expert, Legitimate and Referent Powers) were measured using a 20-item scale developed by French and Raven (1959). The two personality traits (agreeableness and neuroticism) were measured with a 12 item scale (6 questions each) from the (NEO-Five Factor Inventory) developed by Costa and McCrae (1992). The questionnaire used a seven point Likert scale that ranged from 1= strongly agree, to 7= strongly disagree, and 4 = neutral.

Every variable had its result averaged into a single variable using SPSS 15.0 statistical package. A reliability test was conducted and the result showed an overall reliability with Cronbach's Alpha equal to 0.79. The overall reliability for each of the different bases of power and the personality traits were as follows: reward power = 0.82, coercive power = 0.89, legitimate power = 0.71, expert power = 0.87, referent power = 0.88, neuroticism = 0.88, and agreeableness = 0.70.

RESULTS

The objective of this study was to empirically test if a relationship exists between the personality traits (neuroticism and agreeableness) and French and Raven basis of power. Descriptive statistics including subscale, number of questions, mean, median, standard deviation and reliability estimates are presented below (see Table 1).

Table 1					
Subscale	No. of questions	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Standardized item alpha
Reward	4	5.68	5.75	1.11	0.82
Coercive	4	5.01	5.2	1.47	0.89
Legitimate	4	5.51	5.75	0.92	0.71
Expert	4	5.36	5.50	1.13	0.87
Referent	4	5.33	5.25	1.26	0.88
Neuroticism	6	3.50	3.50	0.77	0.88
Agreeableness	6	4.50	4.50	0.73	0.70

In order to test the above mentioned six hypotheses for a better organizational performance, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Regression analysis were computed with the bases of powers as the dependent variables and the two stable personality traits as the independent variables. (See results in Table II)

Table II: Regression Analysis Result					
	Reward Power	Coercive Power	Legitimate Power	Expert Power	Referent Power
Neuroticism	No Significance	F-Value=6.544 R^2=0.082 B=0.444 (0.005)	No Significance	F-Value=5.998 R^2=0.095 B=-0.260 (0.032)	No Significance
Agreeableness	F-Value= 7.511 R^2=0.093 B=0.403 (0.001)	No Significance	F-value= 7.731 R^2=0.095 B=0.393 (0.000)	F-Value=5.998 R^2=0.095 B=0.406 (0.002)	F-Value=3.986 R^2=0.051 B=0.390 (0.007)

The above table shows support for all the six hypotheses drawn from the literature review. H1 is supported, there is a positive relationship between reward power and agreeableness; H2, a positive relationship between legitimate power and agreeableness; H3, a positive relationship between referent power and agreeableness; H4, a positive relation between expert power and agreeableness; H5, a

positive relation between coercive power and neuroticism; and H6, a negative relationship between expert power and neuroticism.

This research demonstrates that agreeableness is strongly and positively correlated with referent, legitimate, expert, and reward powers. The findings also demonstrate that neuroticism is positively and highly correlated with coercive power and negatively correlated with expert power with no significant relationship with reward, legitimate, and referent powers within medium size Lebanese organizations.

The demographic variables did not show any significant relationship to neither power, nor personality traits.

DISCUSSION

A growing body of literature shows that a relationship exists among personality variables and behavior at work (Roberts and Hogan, 2001). The objective of the study was to test the relationship between the personality traits agreeableness and neuroticism, and power. Although studies using the Big Five have become so significant that Ozer and Reise (1994, p.361) declared "Personality psychologists who continue to employ their preferred measure without locating it within the five-factor model can only be likened to geographers who issue reports of new lands but refuse to locate them on a map for others to find," nevertheless, to the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study that empirically investigated the relationship between personality traits and French and Raven bases of power.

Our results indicate that a relationship exists between an individual's stable traits (neuroticism and agreeableness) and power. The results supported our hypothesis that referent and expert powers are positively related to agreeableness. According to Robbins and Judge (2008), a manager's reference power is improved by individuality that develops his/her appreciation and generates personal desirability in relations with other individuals. These involve agreeable behavior, satisfying personality characteristics, and attractive personal appearance.

Shermerhorn, et al. (2004) and Ambur (2000) agree that referent and expert powers are personal powers which arise from the personal characteristics of the individual and are independent of that individual's position and other characteristics.

Past research indicated that both referent and expert power correlate positively with employees' organizational commitment, satisfaction with supervision, and their performance (Robbins and Judge, 2008). It is then logical to assume that the higher the agreeableness trait, the higher the expert and the referent powers, and the higher the individual's organizational commitment, satisfaction with supervision, and performance.

The results also show that the formal bases of power, i.e. reward and legitimate powers which stem from the individual's position in the organization were positively related to agreeableness. That is, individuals high in agreeableness tend to rely more on reward and legitimate powers.

Neuroticism was negatively related to referent power and positively related to coercive power. This makes sense because neurotic individuals tend to be emotionally unstable, anxious, and have low

self- esteem. Employees in general will probably not look at such a person as having desirable characteristics to identify with, admire, and try to please. The neurotic individual might then resort to coercive methods to exercise his/her authority since coercive power stems from the person's formal position in the organization (Robbins and Judge, 2008).

CONCLUSION

This study extends the organizational behavior literature to "medium" size organizations (see definition above) and provides empirical evidence of the relationship between the two personality traits neuroticism and agreeableness with power. The regression analysis showed how the two personality traits agreeableness and neuroticism had significant impact on the different bases of power. However, since by definition, personality traits are believed to be constant overtime (Bozionelos, 2004), and the individual's personality profile will change little after 30 years of age (McCrae & Costa, 1994), then, the researchers are positive that causality is directed in one direction i.e. from neuroticism towards power, and agreeableness towards power, and not the other way around.

It is recommended that "medium" size organizations take into consideration the personality traits of individuals and how they related to power in their selection process. However, the results from this study can not be generalized since the sample size is relatively small (175 individuals) and carried out in Lebanon within "medium" size organizations. The researchers suggest that similar studies be carried out in different size organizations, regions, and cultures, where power and personality are deemed highly indispensable for the survival of organizations and the maintenance of competitive advantage. Further research could also explore the other Big Five traits i.e. conscientiousness, extroversion, and openness to experience, and their relation to power in order to build an inclusive and full model representing all the personality traits with the different bases of power.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

This study adds to research on management and managerial functions such that it will assist human resource managers in identifying the ideal candidate for a managerial or leadership job requiring power and personality type behaviors. It will also help them understand the individuals' potentials by identifying those who may exercise power regardless of their position, and those who might be unable to exercise power even though they have the appropriate position.

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THE USE OF TRAINING GROUPS (T-GROUPS) IN RAISING SELF AND SOCIAL AWARENESS AND ENHANCING EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENCE

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ABSTRACT

The application of training group (T-Group) dynamics in teaching emotional intelligence (EQ) offers a promising methodology for raising self and social awareness, for practicing authentic communication among group participants, and for enhancing emotionally intelligent behaviors. This paper discusses how the particular needs of an EQ-training program can be effectively served with a well-managed T-Group experience. It also addresses questions about "why are we doing this?" which inevitably emerge from the frustrations of T-Group participation.

The T-Group has been a viable learning modality for 60 years, and has seen myriad changes in its intended use and its application procedures over that time. This paper presents a model that is significantly truncated from the original T-Group format, and, as such, is more adaptable to short-term training interventions, as well as to MBA and management development courses that meet in short sessions.

A COMMENT ON THE CHOICE OF VOICE

Emotional intelligence (EQ) is about being aware of your own emotions, being aware of the emotions of others, respecting and appreciating the importance of emotions in daily interactions, and learning how to manage your own EQ behaviors to enhance your relationships at work, at home, and in your community. Note in this opening sentence we employed the second-person possessive "your" four times, a conscious decision to address the reader personally in this discussion – a discussion that is inherently personal and person-specific. We believe this choice of voice in our text is more efficient, more effective, and less abstract than the awkward third person in addressing a topic that is best understood in reference to one's ("your") own experiences in human relations. The issues germane to emotional intelligence resonate with everyone --and with everyone differently. We each come to this learning space with a unique package of skills, beliefs, values, needs and formative experiences, as well as our own level of effectiveness on the spectrum of emotionally intelligent awareness and behaviors.

You, the reader, are best able to navigate this discussion in reference to yourself, and thus our use of "you" and "your" is replete throughout the article.

GOALS OF TEACHING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

In a nutshell, developing emotional intelligence is about learning how to "show up as yourself" – and by doing so adding the most value that you are capable of adding to your organization, to your family, and to your community. It is about being in sustained relationship with your colleagues, family members, and friends, and about showing up in those relationships as an autonomous, individuated, authentic self.

To get the most from its workforce, every organization needs to have authentic, differentiated individuals showing up as themselves – telling their truths, saying what they mean, facilitating open communication, and implementing authentic data flow that is critical to the organization's success.
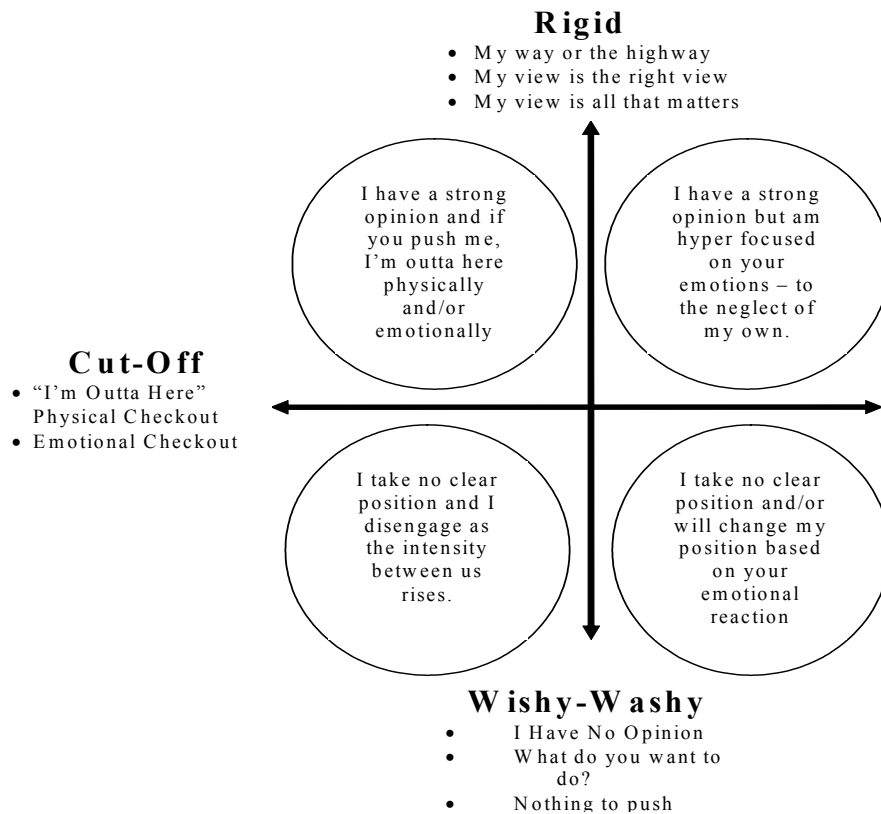
In teaching emotional intelligence, we begin by positing the model of an intersection of interpersonal relations that juxtaposes competing innate tendencies to be both connected and separated, the Conviction/Connection Model (see Diagram 1). We all have a fundamental desire, and need, to be differentiated individuals, having our own thoughts, beliefs, values, desires, and feelings. We call that tendency "conviction" – where we are embracing our individuality in the face of other people and other forces. In Diagram 1, the conviction axis runs from the polar extremes of fixed rigidity to complete malleability ("wishy-washy"). We also have a competing fundamental need to be connected to other human beings, to be part of a social system. We call that tendency "connection" – where we gravitate toward relating to the people around us. In Diagram 1, the connection axis runs from the extremes of total "cut-off" to total fusion.

Conviction and connection are inherently opposing forces, and the goal of teaching emotional intelligence is to help individuals balance these tendencies. By "balance", we mean mitigate the extreme positions and lean toward the intersection of these opposing forces. The center of this model is a space where you know who you are and are open to receiving ideas from others (conviction), where you are present, engaged, and value the feelings of others while also being aware of your own feelings (connection). Whether in business or personal relationships, achieving this balance of fundamental needs allows you to make your authentic contribution, to remain in sustained relationship, and to be at your most valuable and productive. Diagram 1, courtesy of the management-consulting firm *Teams & Leaders,* depicts this tension and provides a visual mapping for the goals of emotional intelligence training – specifically helping learners to move toward the intersection of these axes.

Diagram 1
Courtesy of *Teams & Leaders (www.teamsandleaders.com) Seattle, Washington*

Conviction / Connection Model

Rigid
- My way or the highway
- My view is the right view
- My view is all that matters

Cut-Off
- "I'm Outta Here" Physical Checkout
- Emotional Checkout

I have a strong opinion and if you push me, I'm outta here physically and/or emotionally

I have a strong opinion but am hyper focused on your emotions – to the neglect of my own.

I take no clear position and I disengage as the intensity between us rises.

I take no clear position and/or will change my position based on your emotional reaction

Wishy-Washy
- I Have No Opinion
- What do you want to do?
- Nothing to push

In summary, enhancing one's EQ is about moving toward the intersection of conviction and connection, and being there, in sustained relationship, with one's authentic self – with the true values, beliefs, wants, feelings and thoughts that comprise that self. That is why self-awareness is foundational to emotional intelligence. We need to know who we are, authentically, in order to show up at that intersection as our true selves. What is our essence? What do we value, care about, want, feel, think, and believe?

THE AUTHENTIC SELF

While the imagery of moving toward the intersection of conviction and connection is helpful to grasping the essence of EQ, it is important to realize that you can move to that intersection as an imposter. You can approach the intersection as someone else, or as a phony self – saying what you think the other wants to hear, saying what you want the other to hear, parroting the party line, or recycling the company's official *Newspeak* and *Doublethink* (apologies to George Orwell, 1949). To be of maximum value to your organization, as well as to yourself, your job is to be at that intersection as yourself, saying what you believe, what you want, what you feel, and what you think. In three words, your organization needs you, and your colleagues, to "tell your truth."

Hence, much of EQ training is about learning to perform in the role that you were cast to play in this life – in the role of you. Is that so hard? Is that asking too much? For many, the answer is an emphatic "yes." The role of "you" is comprised of what you value, care about, want, feel, think, and believe. In a cultural model that places the highest value on what you think and do, grasping and presenting a more complex authentic self may be a most challenging role to master. In order to frame this exercise in mastering this most personal of roles, we take a brief historical, philosophical, and artistic diversion.

The 19th Century Russian poet, Alexander Pushkin, is credited with saying that "the goal of the artist is to supply truthful feelings" (Binyon, 2002). One of his young contemporaries, the dramatist Konstantin Stanislavski, adapted Pushkin's entreaty to the theater and gave birth to what we loosely refer to today as "method acting" (Benedetti, 1989). The Stanislavski system of acting involves becoming "full" of the character you will be portraying – becoming that character, understanding his motivations, absorbing his personality, feeling his emotions, adapting his mannerisms, and living his values. When the accomplished method actor walks on the stage, he is so absorbed by his character that his portrayal is almost effortless and unconscious – because he has become that character.

A fundamental step in developing elevated EQ is to give a Stanislavskian effort toward understanding the character that you were hired to portray – indeed, that you were born to portray – so that you can unconsciously show up at the intersection of conviction and connection as your true self. Ironically, it is so much easier for a good actor to remain in character for a stage role, than to show up with similarly consistent characterizations of his true self.

> "All the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players;
> They have their exits and their entrances;
> And one man in his time plays many parts, his acts being seven ages."
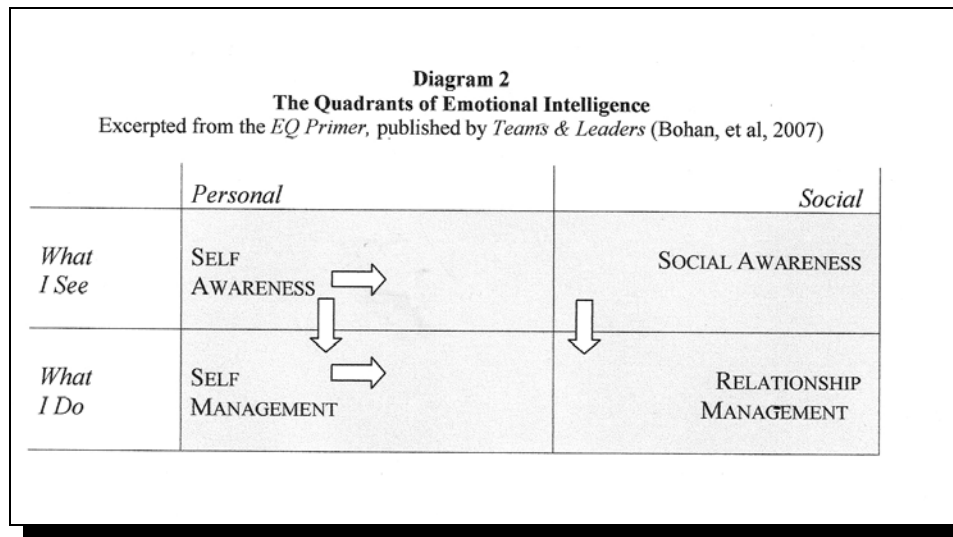>
> *As You Like It,* Act II, Scene 7

With all respect to William Shakespeare (1599), you have one character to play at any stage in your life. You may have many exits and entrances, and show up in many acts and scenes, but in every entrance, the emotionally intelligent individual shows up as the same person – that is, as his authentic self.

> "The privilege of a lifetime is being who you are"
>
> Joseph Campbell (Osbon, 1991)

BEING SELF-AWARE, SELF-ACCEPTING, AND "ENOUGH"

Self-awareness is the foundational quadrant of emotional intelligence (see Diagram 2), and it is a precondition for learning how to play that critical role of "you" effectively. True self-awareness begins with self-acceptance – by acknowledging and accepting that what is true is in fact true. A significant step toward self-acceptance is recognizing that emotions are always true and should not be assigned values of right or wrong. The feeling of fear and insecurity called jealousy is culturally assigned a wrong or negative value, but feeling something cannot be wrong or false. Self-acceptance is accepting that feelings simply are; actions and responses are where values of right and wrong come into play. Beginning with this assumption allows us to eschew an adversarial relationship with ourselves, replacing "I should not feel" with identifying and accepting our emotions. After all, self-acceptance is not a barrier to change; it is the prerequisite to change. Moreover, beginning with the premise that feelings are inherently true will allow the foundation of self-acceptance to be laid.

All of self-awareness, no matter how accurate, is ephemeral, transitory – it will be different two hours from now than it is now. Right now, you may be aware of a deep resentment toward the authors of this article as a result of something we wrote a page or two back that was upsetting and offensive to you. An hour from now you may see us differently and be aware that your resentment is gone, or perhaps intensified. Self-acceptance also plays a role in self-awareness when awareness allows you to recognize difficult emotions. Being aware that you feel angry when you shut your finger in a door may be easy to accept, while being angry over the death of a loved one, or jealous of the success of a spouse, may pose more of a challenge.

Diagram 2
The Quadrants of Emotional Intelligence
Excerpted from the *EQ Primer,* published by *Teams & Leaders* (Bohan, et al, 2007)

	Personal	*Social*
What I See	SELF AWARENESS	SOCIAL AWARENESS
What I Do	SELF MANAGEMENT	RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT

Tell yourself the truth in this moment – about yourself, about how you feel, about what you think, about what you value, about your strengths and challenges. The primary belief that you are always and inherently "enough" right now, yesterday, tomorrow, on the day you were born, is foundational to self-acceptance. Embrace that what is – is, embrace your inherent right to exist, just as you are. Without a primal level of self-acceptance, no amount of change or success or accomplishment will lead to effective emotional intelligence.

With the notable exception of those with mental illnesses or disabilities, most of what we are, in any moment, is the sum product of the set of choices that we have made over our lifetimes. Moreover, that set of choices is in constant change, as new choices are added onto old choices. Who you are right now, while being enough, is only the final word on your life if you *want* it to be and *choose* it to be. Nevertheless, failure to acknowledge and embrace your fundamental right to exist – which is the essence of being enough – precludes your moving forward with new choices and changes that will ultimately deliver healthy self-awareness and self-acceptance.

In order to take the first steps toward enhancing your EQ, or even toward being open to change, you must eschew "personal fundamentalism" – the kind of thinking that says "I am the type of person that (insert your own self concept)" with a sense of finality. You are the type of person you choose to be. You are the product of the aggregate set of choices you have made up until this moment – and that set of choices is constantly growing as you add choices onto your portfolio of personal decisions – free choices that are made of your own volition.

Yes, to be sure, there are exceptions. If you are schizophrenic, manic-depressive, obsessive compulsive, or otherwise delusional, you may not have the mental freedom to exercise conscious choice. As a psychotic, your awareness and reality may be so distorted by delusions that the concept of choice is illusory. Yet, even under these extreme circumstances, you may be or become capable of exercising conscious choice. One of the truly memorable and moving moments on CBS's *60 Minutes*

came during an interview conducted in 2002 by Mike Wallace with Noble Laureate and mathematician – and schizophrenic – John Nash. He told *60 Minutes* that while he has never been able to vanquish delusions from his life, in old age he has been able to choose not to believe them (CBS, 2002). For anyone familiar with the ravages of schizophrenia – and the extremes of Nash's debilitation were vividly dramatized in the Academy Award winning movie *A Beautiful Mind* (Howard, 2002) – that moment was both inspiring and profound.

If someone with disabling psychosis can choose not to believe his delusions, how easy it must be for the rest of us to choose against our own tendencies to remain stuck in ineffectual patterns of thinking -- for example, to remain beholden to decisions and actions that flow from our tendencies to be dependent, controlling, and competitive in ways that do not serve us.

Recognizing that you are the type of person that you choose to be is very powerful and crucial to the self-awareness that provides the foundation for EQ learning. Also important to the foundation is beginning to accept yourself as you are with all of your imperfections, allowing yourself to identify your emotions without judging them, and believing that you have an inherent right to be just as you are. The incorporation of these insights imparts a level of acceptance and awareness that provide the foundational quadrant of emotional intelligence, the pre-requisite to building successful EQ skills.

THE "T-GROUP" – SOME BACKGROUND

The "T-Group" has been used as a training tool for over a half century, having originated in the National Training Laboratories (NTL) in Bethel, Maine, in 1947. The principal pioneers in developing T-Groups were Kurt Lewin (although he died before the T-Group became the basic training format for the NTL's Human Relations Laboratory), followed by Kenneth Benne, Ron Lippitt and Leland Bradford (Benne, 1964).

In brief, the T-Group is a vehicle for learning about yourself, about your impact on others, and about adopting behaviors that enhance your effectiveness in group and interpersonal encounters. This is accomplished by assembling a small group, usually from six to eight individuals, to explore their own behaviors when they are interacting with each other in a closed system. The process of personal exploration and evaluation is augmented by feedback from a second group of individuals who observe the members of the first group as they interact with each other. In addition, a T-Group trainer provides structure to the group, and serves four key functions that are critical to a successful T-Group learning experience: emotional stimulation, caring, meaning attribution, and executive function (Lieberman, et al, 1973).

When we look at a partial list of the goals of T-Group training, it becomes readily apparent that this is a good fit for pedagogy in teaching emotional intelligence:

1. To increase awareness of your own feelings in the moment
2. To increase awareness of the impact of your behavior on others

3.   To enhance your skills in giving and receiving feedback
4.   To enhance your skills in managing and learning from conflict
5.   To gain knowledge of group dynamics and team development
6.   To gain and practice skills in facilitating group processes
7.   To heighten your awareness of and sensitivity to the feelings of others
8.   To hone your interpersonal communication skills
9.   To clarify responsibility for your feelings, thoughts, and actions
10.   To learn to make conscious choices, in the moment, that reflect your authenticity

Participants in T-Group training are coaxed and coached to be mindful and authentic. The structure and basic ground rules are both simple and frustrating. Participants sit in a circle and engage in spontaneous interaction. They are told to remain in the present and in the confines of the circle – in the here and now. They are coached to be present with their own feelings, thoughts, wants, and sensory awareness – in essence, to be mindful of their authenticity in the moment. A facilitator or facilitators will intervene, intrusively and often irritatingly, to keep the participants in the "here and now" and authentic with their verbal and nonverbal interactions.

To say the least, beginning practitioners find the format frustrating, irritating, uncomfortable, aggravating, challenging – and a bit weird. After a modicum of practice, however, most participants rise to the challenge, begin sanctioning their own departures from the "here and now," and appreciate the learning that emerges from this unique methodology. In addition, they begin to see the connection to enhancing EQ behaviors, especially the constant struggle to remain in sustained relationship while showing up as authentic, autonomous individuals.

T-GROUP BASICS

Before we describe what a T-Group session might look like, let us clarify some basic rules about what a T-Group is and does, and what it is not and does not do. A T-Group:

●   DOES encourage participants to share their emotional reactions to their fellow participants' words and gestures - that is, to share truthful feedback.

●   DOES NOT encourage participants to share opinions, judgments, or conclusions - that is, to offer evaluative and subjective feedback.

●   DOES encourage participants to remain in the "here and now" with their fellow participants.

- DOES NOT encourage digression to the "there and then" to a space and time away from the present time and present circle of participants.

- DOES encourage participants to be their authentic selves – to show up as themselves.

- DOES NOT encourage participants to be phony – to show up in roles other than as themselves.

The T-Group trainer intervenes to help participants speak their truths (to be themselves) and remain in the here and now. A skillful trainer helps participants learn from what is transpiring in their group. He or she creates the physical structure for the group. Specifically, the trainer helps the group commit to norms and rules that support the learning process (for example, an agreement to stay in the here and now), monitors compliance with these group norms (for example, intrudes when a group member drifts from the here and now), and supports the T-Group development with training in communication, feedback, coaching, and listening skills.

We realize that this brief description of the leader's role leaves much to the reader's imagination. Without many hours of practice both as a participant and as a T-Group facilitator, much about the workings of T-Groups will remain somewhat abstract and inaccessible. The brief simulation of T-Group interactions and leader interventions that follows may at least pique your interest in this training innovation. Regrettably, it will not make clear and comprehensible the structure and dynamics of an effective T-Group experience.

DEALING WITH RESISTANCE

We have yet to launch a T-Group process that did not meet with initial and sometimes protracted resistance. Sitting in a circle with a half dozen fellow participants, with a "coach" observing your words, gestures, facial expressions, and vocal inflection, is uncomfortable for all but the most attention-loving improvisational actors. Add to this awkward structure the entreaty to stay in the here and now, the absence of a conversational agenda, and the presence of a trainer ready to intervene (participants will use the word "interfere!") if you stray from the rules – and you have the perfect formula for producing participant frustration, anger, and "push back."

> "What is the point of this?"
> "Why would we meet without an agenda?"
> "I am not allowed to explain myself!"
> "What am I supposed to say? I am not feeling anything and I do not want anything!"
> "So – where are you going with this?"
> "What are we supposed to be learning? Why are we doing this?"

Some of this "push back" comes from performance anxiety. Most of our participants are accomplished professionals and MBA students and they are accustomed to mastering the skills they need for success on the job and in the classroom. One of the skills they are least likely to have mastered is the ability to engage spontaneously and authentically, in the here and now, in the absence of a group agenda. They want to do it "right" and they do not find the format adaptable to the skills that have heretofore served them well on the job and in their studies.

So they become angry and frustrated with the trainer (despite barking "I'm not feeling anything" when asked by the leaders "what are you feeling right now?"). They have paid their course fees and budgeted their time and now expect the program leaders to teach something – not just create a structure and a set of group norms and expect the participants to create learning for themselves.

This is a tough spot for the trainer. It is hard to explain, with any modicum of precision or clarity, what the participants will learn from an extended T-Group experience. Telling an angry group member that he is likely to become more "self aware," and more cognizant of the impact of his behaviors on others, will not likely win over his enthusiastic embrace of the T-Group. Yet those very words may ultimately be the ones he uses when looking back upon his T-Group work and trying to describe what he gained from the experience.

Knowing that we never can give very satisfying answers to these angry and frustrating inquiries (although we keep trying), we rely more on a plea to "willingly suspend disbelief" and trust us that something good will ultimately come chucking out of the T-Group meat grinder. Of course, we can never promise that the T-Group experience will work for a specific individual, but we can attest to its effectiveness over 60 years of iterations over tens of thousands of participants. We also sometimes drop names. For example, Carl Rogers, one of the most-respected psychologists of this era, reportedly described the T-Group as "the most significant social invention of the (20th) century" (Elliot, 1984).

The frustrations that group participants experience in the early T-Group iterations often mirror frustrations that are "on the surface" in other group venues in their lives. In general, people want a dependable structure in their lives, along with emotional safety, predictability, and shared mission with their group colleagues. The T-Group inherently does not satisfy these insipient needs and wants, and hence participants experience anxiety about authority, about where power resides, about being included and accepted by the group, and about intimacy (Gallagher, 2001).

MOVING BEYOND RESISTANCE

As group members become more comfortable with their T-Group sessions, and replace resistance to the group encounters with buy-in, they begin to notice patterns of behaviors – their own and those of their fellow participants – that contain important information. For example:

- A participant may notice her instinctive need to "rescue" members of her group from perceived attacks or misunderstandings – and respond by consciously adopting a new response that short-circuits her typical rescuing response.

- A participant may notice his anxiety when other group members are in conflict, and his tendency to assuage his anxiety by making a joke or otherwise bringing levity to the group. He responds by trying a new reaction – to let his fellow participants take their interaction to a serious place.

- A participant may notice (with the help of the trainer or fellow participants) that he triangulates out of discomfort with addressing a member directly ("I think what Jill is trying to tell you, John, is that ..."), and is coaxed to address Jill directly ("Jill, are you angry with John for …").

- A participant may be surprised at feedback he is receiving about the impact of his words and gestures on his fellow participants – and respond by requesting more feedback to learn about his impact on others.

RELATIONSHIP TO TEACHING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Since every group member, as well as every group, is unique, it is impossible to be specific about what any particular individual will learn from a T-Group experience. However, we can generalize about what T-Groups produce and by doing so we see how appropriate the T-Group is for teaching emotional intelligence. In general, T-Groups contribute to the following EQ-associated learning:

SELF-AWARENESS

T-Group participants consciously observe their own feelings, wants, intentions, and values – and that mindfulness enhances self-awareness, the foundation for EQ. In addition, feedback from fellow participants and from the T-Group leader adds to and validates self-discovery and self-awareness. By adhering to ground rules that demand staying in the present, and differentiating thoughts and feelings, participants begin to recognize constructs they may use to justify, blame, or otherwise disconnect from what they feel (see examples in Appendix 3).

SELF-MANAGEMENT

As we have discussed in the previous section, T-Group members respond to their feedback and to their self-discovery by adopting new behaviors that more effectively serve their authentic needs and wants. The T-Group provides a laboratory for trying and practicing new skills and behaviors. Within the T-Group rules,

participants have to stop and think to identify a feeling and convey it to the group in the present. This practice sets precedence for identifying and accepting a feeling, then deciding on an action, rather than failing to engage fully in a process by relying on patterned responses.

SOCIAL AWARENESS

The T-Group provides a continuous flow of authentic "data" (feelings, wants, and sensory awareness) among group participants, compelling the members to be conscious and mindful of the thoughts, feelings and wants of their fellow participants. Feedback shared among T-Group members inherently raises each member's social awareness, even without a mindful focus on that awareness.

RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT

Hearing honest feedback about how your words and actions land on your fellow participants gives you important information from which to adopt and hone more effective relationship management skills. Receiving the feedback that your actions are producing unintended and undesirable impact provides you with motivation and commitment to change those behaviors – and, by doing so, manage your relationships more effectively.

Finally, the best visualization for appreciating the application of T-Group work to EQ training is the Conviction/Connection Model (Diagram 1). As we discussed earlier in this article, becoming more emotionally intelligent is about moving toward and being at the intersection of conviction and connection, and being there in sustained relationship as your true, differentiated self.

In essence, that is what you are tasked to do as a participant in T-Group training – to stay in that circle as your authentic self, in the present moment, telling your truth. It is not easy. Playing yourself on stage is not easy – and that is precisely what you are doing as a T-Group member. The stage is a small circle of T-Group colleagues. Each member is on that stage, challenged to portray him or herself as accurately and convincingly as possible. The "here and now" is when the curtain rises and the stage lights come up – when the trainer says, "go" and you have ten minutes to just be yourself, in this moment, in this circle, with these colleagues.

Through repetitions of T-Group experiences, we change. We learn to disengage the autopilot in our brain that directs us to do B when we are confronted with A. We learn to pause. We learn to make conscious choices where we once took actions impulsively, and over time, our brains change. In the past few years, we have come to better understand and appreciate the viability of mindfulness training, whether it is individual mindfulness training through meditation, or interactive mindfulness

training through T-Group practice. Our acceptance of the brain's plasticity in response to mindfulness training is a relatively recent development, yet a development that is unarguably irreversible (Schwartz and Begley, 2002). That knowledge makes the T-Group even more important, and potentially more potent, than we ever realized during its first half century of application. After all, changes in emotional intelligence are rooted in changes in the neurotransmitters of the brain's limbic system, responsible for our feelings, impulses and drives (Goleman, 1998). The plasticity of the limbic system responds to extended practice, focused repetition, timely and accurate feedback, and commitment to replacing old habits with new and more effective behaviors. The T-Group is tailor-made for training the limbic system.

We can think of no more appropriate laboratory for training in emotional intelligence than the 60-year-old "innovation" known as the T-Group. In its essence, the T-Group tasks its members to be more emotionally intelligent – and through protracted practice and feedback, leads to the changes that need to be made. For us, this adds an indispensable tool to our already substantial methodology for enhancing emotional intelligence (Weis and Arnesen, 2007).

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Appendix 1
Basic T-Group Structure

A's = Group members in T-Group Session
B's = Observing coaches (seated across from the A's they are observing)
L = Group leader
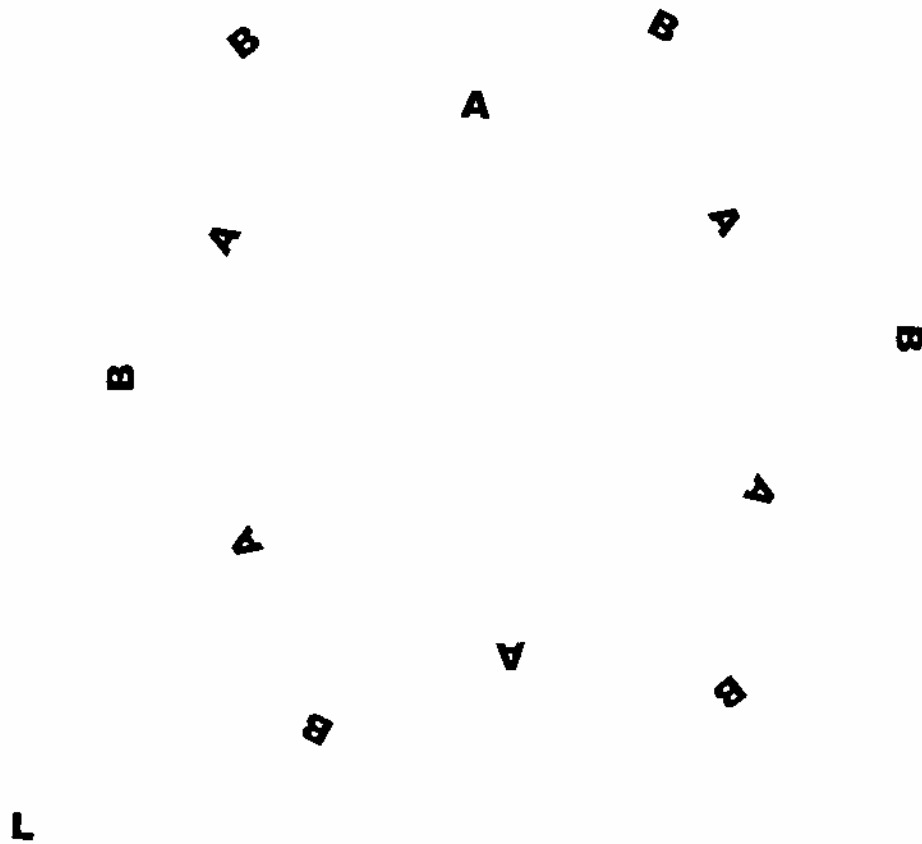
A's sit in a close circle facing each other. In this schema, we assume a T-Group comprised of six participants, with a second group (the B's) seated as observers in the outer circle. The B's are positioned so they can see the faces and front gestures of their counterpart A's (as depicted in Appendix 2). The leader (L) moves about the circle, and can move up to the inner T-Group circle (A's) to intervene with immediate observations, questions, suggestions, or other input as he or she deems

appropriate. While the times and iteration orders can vary widely, the standard duration of our T-Group sessions is 10 minutes, and one group (e.g., the A's) generally goes into two 10-minute sessions consecutively, with each session followed by a 5-minute coaching interlude with the observers (the B's in this diagram). After those two sessions, the roles are reversed. A couple minutes is usually designated for sharing goals with observers before the T-Group participants begin a session.
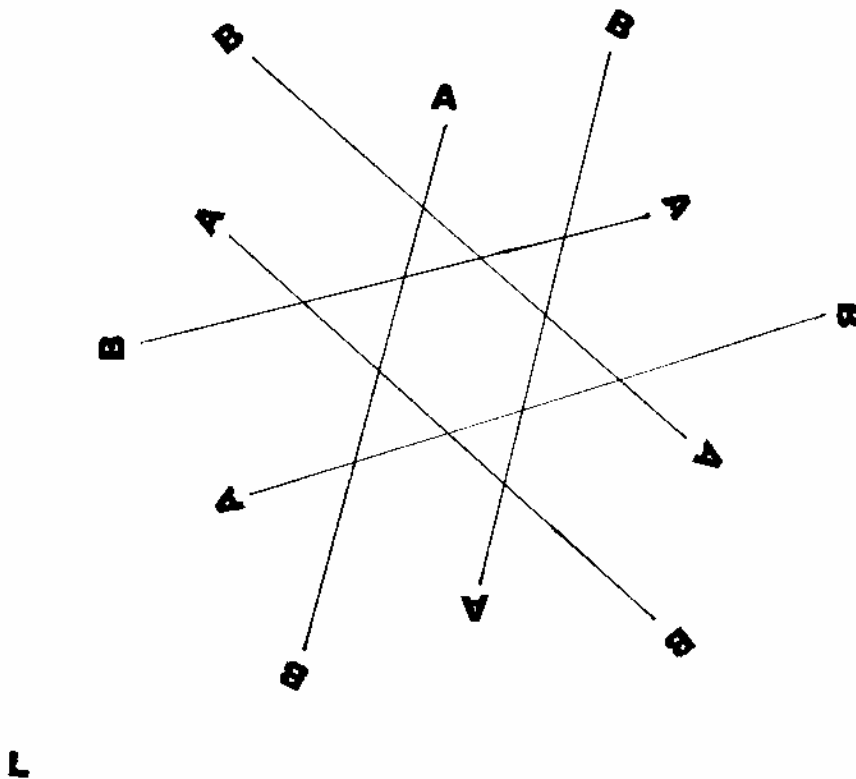
Appendix 2
T-Group members with coaching lines

A's = Group members in T-Group Session
B's = Observing coaches (seated across from the A's they are observing)
L = Group leader

In this schema, lines depict the coaching/observer relationships between the two T-Groups. As in Appendix 1, the B's are serving in the roles of observers in this diagram.

Appendix 3
T-Group Simulation
Examples of Leader Interventions

T-Group participants (the inner circle) are told that they have 10 minutes to interact with each other. They have been coached and cautioned, through pre-T-Group training sessions, to share their in-the-moment feelings (emotions), thoughts (opinions) and sensory awareness (fatigue, physical comfort or discomfort, etc.). In addition, they have been told to stay in the "here and now" -- that is, within this circle of participants in this moment in time. Finally, they are reminded of their own personal responsibility, and authority, for what transpires in the 10-minute T-Group drills.

The observing coaches (the outer circle) are instructed to observe every aspect of their assigned participant's actions while in the T-Group circle. They are to make note of the participant's words, reactions to the other participants' contributions, body language, vocal inflection, facial expression, and anything else that can be shared with the participant in the 5-minute feedback period immediately following the T-Group interval.

While it is entirely possible for a T-Group to run for 10 minutes without a leader interruption and intervention, it is rare that 10 minutes will pass without one or more opportunities for the leader to intervene with helpful, in-the-moment observations, suggestions and questions. What follows are some typical leader interventions prompted by the words and actions of participants.

SCENARIO 1

Fred:	I feel like we're lost without an agenda …
Leader:	"Like we're lost" is not a feeling – it's an opinion. Do you have a feeling related to that opinion?
Fred:	No, I don't think so.
Leader:	How about frustration – which is a variation on both anger and, sometimes, sadness. Do you feel frustrated?
Fred:	Yes, I guess so. And I feel some anger about doing what seems like a pointless exercise.
Discussion:	This intervention encourages the participant to express his thoughts (opinions) as thoughts and his feelings as feelings. It reminds him of his personal responsibility for expressing his personal truth – for putting his self "out there." It brings to his attention that he does have a feeling – even when he disclaims having one. He may not

instinctively be aware of or in touch with his feelings – the leader's intervention helps him become more aware.

SCENARIO 2

Ben:	It feels really weird to be in this …
Leader:	"It" can't feel anything. You can feel something, Joe can feel, Anne can feel – but there is no "it" in your circle feeling something.
Ben:	OK – I feel weird about …
Leader:	Is "Weird" a feeling? Is it a feeling associated with mad, sad, glad or afraid? So – tell me what "weird" feels like.
Ben:	It feels …
Leader:	"I" feel …
Ben:	I feel --- I don't feel anything.
Leader:	Would you be willing to say, "I'm not presently aware of a feeling" instead of "I don't feel anything?"
Ben:	No, I'm not. I just don't feel anything.
Leader:	How do you feel about my interrupting you like this?
Ben:	Pissed. Irritated.
Leader:	So – angry, mad? That sounds like a feeling.

Discussion:	The participant is struggling with both acknowledging (even to himself) and expressing his feelings in the moment. The intervention helps him become aware of what he is feeling in the moment, and helps him name and express that feeling.

SCENARIO 3

Anne:	I think Joe has checked out and that frustrates me.
Bill:	I disagree, Anne. I think Joe is just not talking …
Leader:	Wait! Wait! Joe is sitting right there. Joe, what are you thinking and feeling right now?
Joe:	I'm feeling invisible – everyone is talking about me, and not to me.
Leader:	Anne, why don't you check out your assumption about Joe directly? Would you do that?
Anne:	Joe, I think you've checked out. Is that accurate?
Joe:	No, it's not. I'm just quiet –but I'm paying attention and fully engaged. And I'm sorry that this frustrates you …

Leader:	Are you really "sorry" that your reticence frustrates Anne or is there another feeling attached to this?
Joe:	I suppose I'm a bit irritated that my being quiet is misinterpreted by Anne, and that she gets frustrated by it.
Leader:	Would you be willing to tell her that?
Joe:	Anne, I'm a little miffed that you are frustrated with me for being quiet.
Anne:	I can understand that. And I regret that I jumped to my assumption about your checking out.
Leader:	Joe, how did you feel when Bill came to your defense after Anne expressed frustration with your quietness?
Joe:	I appreciate his defending me, but … I feel good about it.
Leader:	What do you feel right now?
Joe:	I feel – what's the word – a bit emasculated. I can defend myself.
Leader:	So – you didn't really need to be rescued by Bill?
Joe:	No – I can speak for myself. I appreciate Bill's support – but it made me feel helpless.
Leader:	Bill, how is that comment landing on you?
Bill:	A little hard. I didn't think of my words as disempowering, or rescuing, Joe. But I can see how maybe they were.
Discussion:	A lot is going on in this leader-interrupted discussion. First, Anne addresses the group, instead of Joe, regarding his "checking out" and its impact on her – despite his being right there in the circle. The leader encourages her to address Joe directly and personally – and to check out her assumption. Triangulation in T-Group conversations is common – talking about rather than to the person who is affecting you. To compound the triangulation, Bill jumps in to rescue Joe, hence creating an extension of the conversation that is about, but does not include, Joe himself. The leader intervenes to re-direct and re-connect the lines of communication – getting Anne to address Joe directly, and finally bringing into Bill's awareness the impact that his rescuing behavior had on Joe. In short – this brief scenario highlights how the T-Group can create learning around the unintended impact that our words and actions may be having on others.

SCENARIO 4

Jean:	You know what it's like when someone says …
Leader:	What's it like for you right now? In this moment and place?
Jean:	I feel alienated – I guess that's a form or anger, or sadness.
Leader:	So – say more about this.

Jean:	Well, when Bill cut me off …
Leader:	Right now. What are you feeling and why?
Jean:	I'm angry right now. I'm angry because Bill cut me off.
Discussion:	Jean is challenged to stay in the "here and now" when she begins with a very indirect (and very much NOT here and now) "you know what it's like" instead of speaking her own truth in the moment. The leader interrupts Jean twice to bring her back to the present – and to the concrete and direct from the mushy and indirect. She has some important feedback for Bill that could have easily been lost in the abstract and hypothetical.

SCENARIO 5

Lisa:	I feel like we're losing the camaraderie that we had yesterday when …
Leader:	Lisa, that's not a feeling.
Lisa:	I think we're losing our camaraderie.
Leader:	Good – and – is there a feeling associated with that?
Lisa:	It feels like a loss …
Leader:	Lisa, "it" doesn't feel. But you might feel. And – "like a loss" is not an emotion.
Lisa:	I feel sad because I think we're losing our closeness.
Leader:	What do you want?
Lisa:	I want to be connected to this circle. I don't want to lose that.
Leader:	Maybe this would be a good time to check out what the others are feeling and thinking.
Lisa:	How are the rest of you feeling?
Anne:	I feel similar – sad that we're getting distant.
Joe:	Me, too.
Leader:	So – how are you creating this distance for yourselves? And why?
Lisa:	I think it started when we were forced to sit in this dumb circle and talk about nothing …
Leader:	So – I'm responsible for the disintegration of your group camaraderie?
Ben:	(Laughing) Yes – you are breaking us apart.
Leader:	So – how can you stay together despite my best efforts to break you apart?
Discussion:	T-Groups are frustrating encounters and they often get the blame (along with the T-Group leader) for unresolved conflict that arises from the T-Group interactions. Lisa began by expressing her disappointment – albeit indirectly – about the loss of group cohesion. When she was coaxed by the leader to express her feelings (sadness) at this development, the conversation gradually moved to scapegoating – in other words, to

abrogating responsibility and authority for what happens in T-Group exchanges. The leader gently reminds the participants of their personal responsibility for what happens among them in T-Group work.

There are endless variations on common themes of dialog emanating from T-Group training. These few brief scenarios are presented simply to illustrate how and why a leader may intervene and interrupt a T-Group session. In the early iterations of a T-Group, as the members struggle with the structure, format, norms and expectations, leader interventions tend to be frequent and pointed. As the group members become more familiar with and more accepting of T-Group dynamics, the need for leader interventions wanes. With practice, T-Group members sanction their own behaviors ("we're getting away from the here and now – let's get back") and learn to self-manage their adherence to the norms of the group, and to the accepted strictures of the T-Group training model.

EMOTIONAL CONTAGION IN THE ELECTRONIC COMMUNICATION CONTEXT: CONCEPTUALIZING THE DYNAMICS AND IMPLICATIONS OF ELECTRONIC EMOTIONAL ENCOUNTERS IN ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Advancements in communication technology constantly change organizational functioning in many ways. One of the aspects these changes bring about is an emergence of individual and reciprocal emotional encounters online in ways that differ from those typically observed in face-to-face settings. In this paper I analyze the existing research on this topic and build a theoretical model of emotion transfer in the electronic communication context in organizations. In particular, drawing on a social contagion theory (Levy & Nail, 1993; adapted for electronic communication exchange by Thompson & Nadler, 2002), I propose a conceptual model of dyadic emotional contagion in the online context and address several key factors that may influence this process and its outcomes. The paper concludes with some guidelines for operationalization and empirical testing, as well as a brief discussion of limitations and theoretical and practical implications of the proposed model.

INTRODUCTION

Electronic communication at work is a relatively new social phenomenon that contributes importantly to organizational behavior. Research has confirmed that in the last decade alone, electronic communication has changed organizational practices in all areas of business from medicine to manufacturing to education to management practices (e.g., Keil & Johnson, 2002; Kraut, Brynin, & Kiesler, 2006; Martins & Kellermanns, 2004; Spielberg, 1998). However, what is less known in the literature is how the new work environment changed both emotional and relational aspects of individual interaction in the modern workplace. As recent research has emphasized (Carley, 2002: 226), "emotions may become critical for organizations of the future, where personnel are more distributed and more work is outsourced." In this paper, I make an attempt to draw scholars' attention to the importance of individual emotional processes and outcomes in organizations with regards to electronic communication realm by building a conceptual model that explores the dynamics and the outcomes of emotion transfer in the electronic context. By doing so, I am not only acknowledging that organizations are emotional entities and that emotions play a critical role in multiple organizational processes and outcomes, but also

that new technology at work (namely, electronic mail) stimulates individual emotional encounters and behavioral responses in a different way from those typically observed in face-to-face settings. Specifically, drawing on a social contagion theory (Levy & Nail, 1993; adapted by Thompson and Nadler (2002) for emotional interactions in the electronic communication context), I aim to shed some light on the topic of emotional contagion by reviewing an existing research in this area and proposing a new theoretical model that will hopefully help scholars and practitioners alike to better understand the specifics individual emotional transfer in electronic communication settings.

EMOTIONS AND EMOTIONAL CONTAGION

In this paper I define emotions as specific occurrences that are identified with or directed towards particular stimuli. They are relatively high in intensity and short in duration and can disrupt ongoing thought processes (Barry, 1999; Frijda, 1993; Forgas, 1992). Research in psychology has mostly studied mood states and emotions along two dimensions: valence (positive-negative direction of affect) and arousal (high-low intensity of affect – see Russell, 1979; Watson & Tellegen, 1985). I call the process of emotion transfer from one individual to another an "emotional contagion process" and employ the definition of social contagion proposed by Levy & Nail (1993). In particular, "in its broadest sense, social contagion is defined as the spread of affect, attitude, or behavior from Person A (the "initiator") to Person B (the "recipient"), where the recipient does not perceive an intentional influence attempt on the part of the initiator" (Levy & Nail, 1993: 226). I believe this definition of social contagion refers to the same process as emotional contagion especially with respect to affect and I adopt it for the purposes of this paper.

RESEARCH ON EMOTIONS AND EMOTIONAL CONTAGION
IN FACE-TO-FACE SETTINGS

Though the topic of emotional contagion has its origins at the beginning of the 20th century, it did not receive much attention in the field until recently. Early works on the topic primarily considered the intra-individual components of emotions (see, Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991, LeDoux, 1995; Staw & Barsade, 1993; Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988), addressing what happens to individuals themselves when they experience different emotions, while the effects of such emotions on the environment and on other people had been mainly unnoticed (Keltner & Haidt, 1999). Furthermore, since earlier works looked at emotions from a dispositional perspective (see Snyder & Ickes, 1995 for a critique of the dispositional approach), they generally overlooked the dynamics of the emotional contagion process on the dyadic or group levels of analysis. Recently, however, some empirical works have investigated emotional contagion in the face-to-face environment and found that contagion can occur among both initiators and receivers of emotions (e.g., Howard & Gendel, 2001; Neuman & Strack, 2000). In addition, research in negotiations has shown that the positive affect of more powerful individuals is the

best predictor of (1) trust formation among negotiators and (2) whether they were able to reach integrative outcomes (Anderson & Thomson, 2004; Kopelman, Rosette, & Thompson, 2006). Also, studies on group emotional contagion have appeared recently in the literature, documenting the existence of this phenomenon in work teams in face-to-face settings, and establishing that positive emotional contagion improves group cooperation, decreases conflict, and increases perceived task performance (Barsade, 2002; Barsade, Ward, Turner & Sonnenfeld, 2000). However, it should be emphasized that the empirical work mentioned above explored the emotional contagion process exclusively in the face-to-face settings, while the aim of this paper is to look at how this process occurs in the electronic realm.

From a theoretical perspective, an important step in the direction of emotional contagion research in the face-to-face setting was done by Hatfield, Cacioppo and Rapson (1994) who focused on "primitive emotional contagion" which they defined as "the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize facial expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person and, consequently, to converge emotionally" (pp.153-154). According to this definition, emotional contagion *has* to happen in personal interactions in which individuals have an opportunity to see, or at least hear, each other; which means that Hatfield and colleagues (1994) did not consider that emotional contagion can happen in contexts other than face-to-face encounters. On the other hand, in spite of the fact that Hatfield and colleagues (1994), made a case in their book that individual emotional contagion primarily depends on one's dispositional characteristics, they nevertheless accepted the possibility of some situational causes to influence the emotional contagion process. In this paper I attempt to expand on this idea and look at the dyadic emotional contagion process that happens in the electronic communication context, as well as to explore some of the possible factors that influence its dynamics.

EMOTIONAL CONTAGION IN THE ELECTRONIC COMMUNICATION CONTEXT

Existing empirical research has established that individual affect has its role in the online communication context. Specifically, activities ranging from individual relationship building and cooperation to teamwork and negotiations have been shown to be more difficult to accomplish through e-mail than through other forms of communication media (e.g., face-to-face, telephone conversations or paper documents), due to media-specific constraints on human interactions, such as higher medium ambiguity and equivocality (e.g., Friedman, Anderson, Brett, Olekans, Goates & Lisco, 2004; Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999; Kurtzberg, Belkin & Naquin, 2006; Kurtzberg, Naquin & Belkin, 2005; McGinn & Keros, 2002; Morris, Nadler, Kurtzberg & Thompson, 2002; Naquin, Kurtzberg & Belkin, 2008; Thompson & Nadler, 2002; Van Dijk, Van Kleef, Steinel, & van Beest, 2008; Van Kleef, De Dreu, Pietroni & Manstead, 2006).

Recently, however, researchers have attempted to move away from fairly static studies of individual emotions and towards more reciprocal emotion contagion studies. The pioneering step in this direction was made by Thompson and Nadler (2002), which was among the first to argue that besides

face-to-face settings, social contagion can also occur in the electronic communication environment, through online negotiations, to be specific. Further, developing on the existing empirical evidence on handwriting (e.g., Starch, 1911), group research (e.g., McGrath & Kelly, 1986), and human-computer interactions (e.g., Kiesler & Sproull, 1992; McKenna, Green & Gleason, 2002, among others), as well as their own longitudinal analysis of negotiations conducted via e-mail, Thompson and Nadler argued that electronic actors "nonconsciously imitate not only the linguistic structure of each other's messages (e.g., message length, informational context, grammar), but also the social-emotional connotations of the other's message (e.g., tone, directness) and perhaps even the rate at which the message is attended to (in terms of e-reply lag time)" (Thompson & Nadler, 2002: 113). Also, some other recent empirical studies (mainly in the domain of negotiations) have also been able to prove that the emotional contagion phenomenon can occur without face-to-face interaction (e.g., Belkin, Kurtzberg, & Naquin, 2009; Friedman et al., 2004; McGinn & Keros, 2002; Moore, Kurtzberg, Thompson & Morris, 1999; Van Kleef, et al., 2004a; 2004b, 2006, among others).

Despite the fact that researchers have some general understanding that the emotional contagion phenomenon exists (as presented in the above studies), the field does not have yet a coherent understanding of how exactly emotions transfer from one individual to another in the online context, what are the outcomes of this process and, more so, what are the key factors that moderate its dynamics. Building on previous work, in this research I propose a theoretical model of dyadic emotional contagion in the electronic communication context and address several key variables that may affect this process and its outcomes. To my knowledge, this is one of the first theoretical attempts to systematically analyze and explore the dynamics of this process in the electronic context.

In particular, I propose that individual emotional displays in a dyadic electronic communication will cause a different degree of interpersonal emotional contagion depending on the direction (valence) of expressed emotions. Resulting emotional contagion in the electronic communication context is expected to mediate individual emotional, attitudinal, behavioral and performance outcomes. The following two moderators of this online process are proposed: (1) stage of interpersonal relationship (the newer the relationship of virtual communicators, the greater the expected impact of emotional contagion on interpersonal attitudes), and (2) individual positional power (the magnitude of emotional contagion will depend on individual positional power and direction of emotions). Please refer to Figure 1 for graphical depiction of the model[1].

THEORY BUILDING AND HYPOTHESES

Main Effect - Valence

General findings on emotional valence in the face-to-face context indicate that negative emotions lead to greater emotional contagion than positive emotions do (Bartel & Saavedra, 2000; Cacioppo, Gardner & Berntson, 1997; Rozin & Royzman, 2001). In addition, research in psychology

has illustrated that due to a selective memory bias, people tend to pay more attention to negative than to positive information (Kanouse & Hanson, 1972). Such influence of negative affect on individuals may possibly be magnified in the electronic communication context due to the overall structure of e-communication (Friedman & Currall, 2003; Morris et al, 1999) as described below.

I argue that the features of electronic communication, such as ambiguity and the absence of non-verbal cues (e.g., Daft & Lengel, 1986) may make it harder for a recipient to converge towards positive emotions of a sender. In particular, in Western culture the words that generally intend to carry a positive meaning (such as, "dear", "happy", "sincerely", "best", etc.) are in fact a part of the routine etiquette and everyday communication in organizations, and do not necessarily represent any particular association with the real mood of an individual. Therefore, it may be more difficult for an actor to reflect and transfer positive emotions through the electronic communication medium than it is through face-to-face interactions, where actors are able to "catch" each others' emotions through the tone of voice, facial mimics or gestures. Consequently, as negative expressions (especially towards strangers or distant partners) are against the norms of communication in Western society, such expressions by a sender should be more noticeable and contagious to a receiver in the electronic communication environment than would be expressions of positive affect. Though positive emotions may have a contagion effect on a recipient as well, due to the striking contrast of negative expressions to societal norms of interaction, I expect negative emotions to produce a greater degree of emotional contagion in recipients.

In addition, the reduction of social cues that occurs in the electronic communication context may enhance negative perceptual biases against the other party making it more likely that negative attitudinal changes, which contribute to conflict escalation, will occur (Friedman & Currall, 2003). In particular, when a person receives e-mail, it is possible to review it over and over, and spend time crafting a response. For e-mails with perceived negative propensity, such asynchrony provides an opportunity for receivers' rumination that is less available in interactions that occur simultaneously (as in face-to-face settings), potentially escalating problems and making them more difficult to resolve. Also, many ambiguous electronic messages (caused perhaps either by individuals' lack of experience with e-communication, or poor individual writing skills) can be interpreted as having direct negative intentions towards the recipient. Moreover, according to the causal attributions literature, negative actions that are perceived intentional are more likely to generate aggressive reactions (e.g., Blount, 1995; Brickman, Ryan & Wortman, 1975). Hence, the perceived intentionality of a sender may also add to conflict escalation among communicators.

Summarizing the above, I expect that positive emotions communicated through electronic mail will not have as much emotional impact on a recipient as will negative emotions. Specifically, the following hypothesis is proposed:

> *H1:* *Emotional contagion online will be influenced by emotional valence, such that*
> *for negative affect the amplitude of contagion on the recipient will be greater*
> *than for positive affect.*

Proposed Moderators - Stage of Relationship

In addition to emotional valence, I also argue that the duration of work or personal relationships among communicators can have an impact on how emotional contagion occurs. Borrowing from normative social influence theory (Asch, 1966), I argue that when virtual partners are new to working together and did not have any prior communication or interaction, the social norms of behavior are not yet established among them. Such actors, starting a formal relationship in the electronic realm without having an opportunity to build rapport and create communication norms (i.e., communicate informally prior to that), may perceive each other as members of different social groups. These perceptions may result because there are fewer social and identity cues in the electronic communication context (as compared to face-to-face interactions) through which people are able to relate to each other. Meanwhile, as some research points out, attributing sinister motives to outgroup members is especially prevalent in electronic communication, where the absence of social cues may lead to feelings of social distance (Thompson & Nadler, 2002). On the other hand, pleasant experiences and rapport building can also play an important role in the first stage of a virtual relationship in helping actors to build positive experience with each other (see Moore et al., 1999; Morris et al, 2002).

Elaborating further, it can be hypothesized that in newer relationships the actors will be more susceptible to emotional contagion than in established relationships. Specifically, in an online context any mixed or negative tone messages may be interpreted by virtual communicators in a more negative way than in face-to-face interactions, especially if communicators do not already have an established relationship with each other (e.g., have successfully worked together before, occasionally met, or know each other by some other means). Also, due to the "lean" features of electronic media like the lack of non-verbal cues and temporal asynchrony (Daft & Lengel, 1986), individuals may have more difficulty imagining the situational constraints that their virtual partners might experience and this may also contribute to the attribution of more sinister motives towards them (Cramton, 2001).

On the other hand, positive emotions might help actors to build trust and ensure future long-term relationship (Thompson & Nadler, 2002). As Morris and colleagues (2002) found, those actors who are able to share some personal information with each other through a telephone conversation, thereby establishing some rapport prior to a negotiation, experienced more positive emotions towards their opponents. However, I argue that positive emotional contagion will probably be not as strong in an online context if coworkers have never met face-to-face (or at least talked on the phone) prior to e-interaction, since it could be harder for actors to understand someone's tone or whether one is joking, thereby potentially limiting the positive emotional contagion effect.

Thus, it can be assumed that, everything else held constant, any new information about the other party in the electronic communication context will have a greater impact in newer relationships than in established ones, since there is not much substantive information upon which to base one's opinions about the other party. In other words, when a relationship among coworkers is well established (e.g., they have successfully worked previously) and norms of social interactions are known, both emotions

(assuming that valence and intensity are held constant) will have less impact on individuals than when the relationship is in its insipient phase.

Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

H2:   *The stage of a relationship of virtual coworkers will affect the dynamics of emotional contagion online, such that the newer the relationship of virtual communicators, the greater will be the impact of their emotional tone(s) on the perceptions of each other.*

Individual Positional Power

Consistent with the existing literature, I herein define individual positional power as the ability of actors to influence others. In the relevant literature such individual power is sometimes referred as structural power (see Brass, 2002 for a review; see also, Anderson & Thompson, 2004; French & Raven, 1968; Keltner, Gruenfeld & Anderson, 2003).

As Lord, Brown and Freiberg (1999) proposed, supervisors may unconsciously influence employees by their affective states. In this model I hypothesize that the positional power that individuals possess in organizations should have a moderating effect on the process of emotional contagion in the electronic context. For example, if virtual partners have different power status, it is expected that those in an inferior power position will adapt to the way the powerful individuals communicate. For instance, it has been shown that electronic actors have a propensity to imitate each other in message tone or directness (Thompson & Nadler, 2002). It seems that positional power may asymmetrically influence the manner in which this imitation will go. As was observed by Van Kleef and colleagues (2006) in face-to-face settings, negotiators with less power are more responsive to their counterparts' positive affect during negotiations than those with more power (see also, Andreson & Thompson, 2004; Anderson, Keltner & John, 2003; Belkin, et al., 2009).

In addition, besides the genuine desire to communicate with a positively attuned partner, in actual organizations people may be eager to respond in kind to the positive affect of more powerful individuals due to rational (i.e., self-interest) or political reasons, such as career building (see Higgins & McCann, 1984). Even more intense dynamics can be observed in the electronic context, where the magnitude of visibility, reproducibility and reach of a positive electronic message may encourage such behavior in individuals towards those with more positional power. For instance, people with less positional power in organizations may use electronic communication media for increasing their visibility to those with more power, by interacting with them as frequently as possible in a positive manner, initiating or supporting various work-related and non-related discussions. As argued by Johnson (1997), the high reproducibility and extensive reach of electronic mail can also be used for political and power games in organizations. Therefore, positive emotional contagion of powerful individuals in the online environment may have more pronounced effects on less powerful individuals than on those that are in

the same power position; and thus, more positive emotions will be displayed in return through electronic messages by those with less power.

However, this does not necessarily imply the reverse: that such positive attempts of those with less power will be easily "caught" by more powerful individuals, especially according to the argument above that likelihood of positive emotions being transmitted in the electronic medium will be lower as compared to negative emotions. Instead, the logic here suggests that less powerful individuals are motivated to "catch" positive emotions of powerful individuals and express their positive emotions in return, while the specifics of the electronic communication medium will still play its role in this process. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed:

> *H3a:* *Emotional contagion online will be moderated by one's positional power, such that the more positional power the individual has, the more his/her positive emotions will become contagious.*

> *H3b:* *Emotional contagion online will be moderated by one's positional power, such that the more positional power the individual has, the more positive emotions will be displayed to him/her in return.*

Alternatively, negative emotions from powerful actors may also initiate emotional contagion. For example, empirical work on leadership has demonstrated that followers watching a leader expressing anger felt more nervous and less relaxed than followers observing a leader expressing sadness or no emotion (Lewis, 2000). Also, Taylor and Fieldman (2005) found some empirical evidence that individual positional status and the electronic communication medium interact, such that they have an impact on individual's physiological condition. Specifically, study participants who read threatening electronic messages from people with higher positional power had significantly higher diastolic blood pressure than those who read non-threatening messages or messages from those with the same or lower positional power within their department (Taylor & Fieldman, 2005). Consequently, if power position can heighten the negative emotional contagion process and have an impact on individual physiological condition in the electronic communication environment, it may further translate to one's attitudinal and behavioral responses towards the initiator of the electronic message. The less control the person feels that he/she has over the environment, the more likely he/she will see ambiguous issues as a threat (Milliken, 1990); thus, individual perceptions will be negatively tilted towards ambiguous messages and may elicit negative behavioral responses from the recipients.

On the other hand, less powerful individuals might try to hide their negative emotional contagion towards more powerful individuals. Apparently, in face-to-face interactions people have a much harder time concealing their emotions than in online interactions, because it is more difficult to control the attributes of emotional expression (such as tone of voice, facial expressions and gestures) in synchronous communication, than in the electronic communication context, where, besides the absence

of non-verbal cues, an individual can take the time to think and reflect on a received message before responding. Consequently, it can be argued that negative emotional contagion towards those with more power will have a significant impact on less powerful individuals, but the display of such emotions will not be as visible online.

Building on the above arguments, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3c: Emotional contagion online will be moderated by one's positional power, such that the more positional power the individual has, the more his/her negative emotions will become contagious.

H3d: Emotional contagion online will be moderated by one's positional power, such that the more positional power the individual has, the less negativity will be displayed to him/her in return.

Emotional Contagion's Impact on Performance

Besides influencing individual attitudes and affective states, emotional contagion may generate substantial influence on individual and dyadic performance. Regarding individual performance, it has been already demonstrated in the literature that negative emotions inhibit individual decision-making abilities, increase work-related stress and negatively impact job satisfaction in the face-to-face context (Hertel & Kerr, 2000; Lord, Klimoski & Kanfer, 2002; Sarbaugh-Thompson & Feldman, 1998). There is limited evidence of the potential benefits of bad mood (with the exception of George and Zhou (2002) study, where they demonstrated that bad mood can enhance individual creativity) and most of the empirical evidence supports the idea that positive affect results in positive outcomes such as increased creative thinking, improved job performance especially on complex tasks (Isen, Daubman & Nowicki, 1987; Staw & Barsade, 1993), and decreased absenteeism (George, 1995).

Empirical evidence of the effects of positive emotions and emotional contagion on dyadic or group performance in face-to-face context in organizational environment is, however, somewhat mixed. Studies by Mackie and Worth (1991) and Schwarz, Bless and Bohner (1991) show that positive mood actually inhibits rational decision-making by forcing people to rely more on source-credibility variables (e.g., by relying more on opinions of others than on their own rationale in appraising given information), as compared to those in neutral or negative moods. However, Barsade (2002) found that positive emotional contagion improves team cooperation, and increases perceived task performance. Also, Staw and Barsade (1993) observed that positive affect among team members is conducive to a successful performance on complex tasks.

Conversely, findings regarding the impact of negative affect and emotional contagion on dyadic or group performance are more or less consistent in the literature. For example, Allred, Mallozzi, Matsui and Raia (1997) found that negative emotions significantly negatively influence negotiators' willingness

to work with each other in the future and inhibit negotiators' ability to achieve joint gains. Also, a substantial body of literature exists that demonstrates how negative affect decreases trust among partners (e.g., Kopelman et al., 2006; Morris et al, 1999, Thompson & Nadler, 2002), stimulates conflict and negatively influences group performance (Anderson & Thompson, 2004). Such damaging consequences of negative emotions on individual and interpersonal performance may be enhanced in the electronic communication context, where high ambiguity of the electronic medium is coupled with a lack of non-verbal cues to reduce trust and cooperation among partners as compared to face-to-face interactions (Moore et al., 1999; Morris et al., 2002; Naquin & Paulson, 2003). Therefore, in this work I argue that negative emotional contagion online will not only influence individual attitudes, but will also negatively impact individual and dyadic performance of virtual communicators.

Based on the evidence presented in this section, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H4a: *Effects of emotional contagion on individual behavior in an electronic context will differ based on the sign of expressed affect, such that virtual coworkers converging on a negative emotions will realize poorer <u>dyadic level</u> outcomes than will either neutral, positive or mixed mood pairs.*

H4b: *Effects of emotional contagion on individual behavior in an electronic context will differ based on the sign of expressed affect, such that virtual coworkers converging on a negative emotions will realize poorer <u>individual level</u> outcomes than will either neutral, positive or mixed mood pairs.*

GUIDELINES FOR OPERATIONALIZATION AND EMPIRICAL TESTING

In this paper I attempted to build a comprehensive theoretical model that addresses the specifics of emotional contagion processes in the electronic communication context in organizational settings. In particular, drawing on a recent conceptual and empirical research in emotions, communication media, and organizational behavior fields, I explored the ways in that both positive and negative emotions expressed through e-mail can influence one's perceptions, behaviors and performance. Further, I argued that several key variables, such as the stage of individual relationship and individual positional power in organizations, moderate the dynamics of emotional transfer and affect individual and dyadic-level performance. In the section below I offer several guidelines for operationalization and empirical testing of this model.

Figure 1
Conceptual Model of Emotional Contagion in the Electronic Communication
Context in Organizations
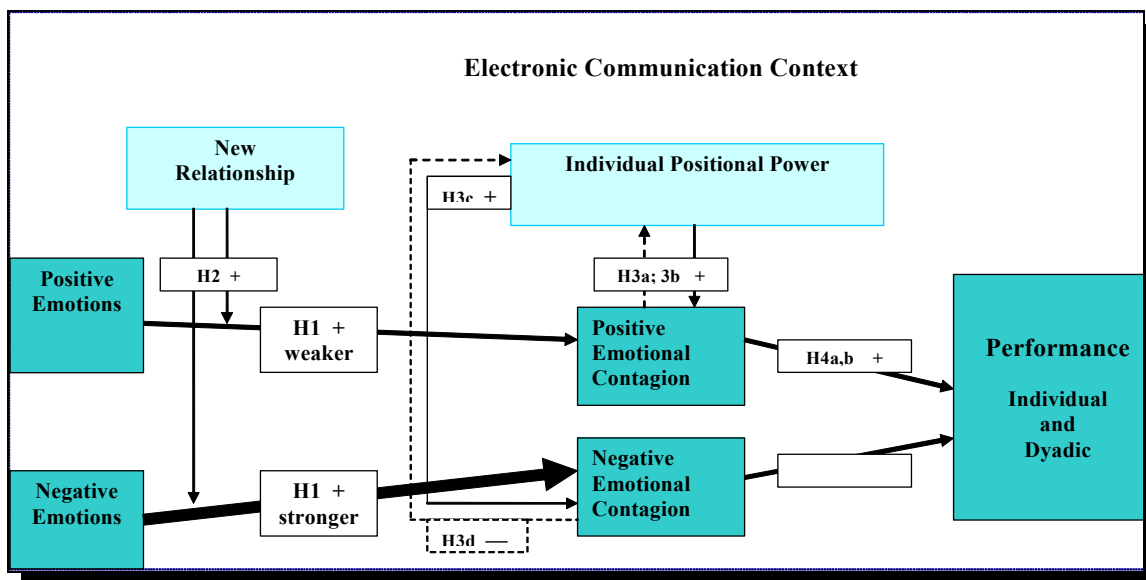
One of the ways to approach an empirical investigation of an emotional contagion process and to test this model can be a comparison of the reported emotional states of interacting participants for convergence as a proxy for emotional contagion after engaging in a dialogue. Some studies have already used self-reported measures of emotional convergence as an indicator of contagion effect (e.g., Barsade, 2002; Belkin et al., 2009; Kopelman, et al., 2006). However, as self-reported emotional recall can be inherently biased, I highly encourage researchers to use this method in conjunction with other approaches, such as videotaping participants during experiments, or using qualitative methods, such as coding actual e-mail transcripts or conducting interviews with organizational employees.

Another option for testing emotional encounters in experimental settings is the use of trained confederates to enact one side of the conversation (e.g., Barsade, 2002; Kopelman et al., 2006). This can allow for a more reliable interpretation of a participant's subsequent emotional reaction, as the emotion that has been "input" would be relatively constant. In this case, it is not the dyadic convergence, but the recipient's emotional movement towards the confederate's emotion that would signal that contagion had occurred. Also, additional approach would be to try to systematically manipulate the participants' emotional state before the actual conversation. Through this method, it would be possible to look at various pairings of emotions, such as having one participant in a positive and one in a negative emotional state before interacting.

In terms of task, it is imperative to create a context in which it is possible to understand and interpret the outcome in a meaningful way. Many negotiation simulations exist which allow for quantifiable outcomes on each, an individual and a group, level. Finally, a field study using real organizational data would lend even more support and generalizability to the model, over and above the findings from the experimental work. Coding of real e-mail exchanges could provide information on how often and in what way emotions are expressed online in professional settings, and under which conditions emotional contagion is likely to occur.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The main purpose of this work is to shed some light on the process of emotional contagion in the electronic communication context by building a conceptual model that explores the dynamics and the outcomes of emotion transfer between individuals in organizations. Theoretically, this research contributes to the literature in several important ways that has not been previously addressed by scholars. First, researchers fairly recently started to study electronic communication media in work settings and existing studies on this topic have not yet offered a comprehensive model of the emotional contagion process. This paper aims to fill in some of the existing gaps in this area by examining the process and identifying possible moderators that can affect emotional contagion online differently than in face-to-face environment.

Second, in this model I propose to conduct research across different levels of analysis (both individual and dyadic), as opposed to the majority of research that typically is concentrated solely on one level, whether individual or group. Third, this model follows the call in the literature to go beyond the confounded simplicity of static models, as it takes into account reciprocal emotional exchanges among individuals. Fourth, in this work I call for a combination of field and experimental research as a critical condition for this model's validation. As outlined in my guide for empirical testing, the combination of both the qualitative and quantitative methods can also provide more thoroughly validated and potentially more reliable knowledge to the field. Finally, if empirically supported, this model can extend the existing knowledge in various areas of organizational behavior field, such as research on emotions, organizational communication and information systems research, as well as literature on conflict management and decision-making.

However, several limitations to the proposed model need to be acknowledged. First, this model does not take into account individual differences that might influence individual and dyadic emotional contagion. Specifically, depending on individual characteristics such as extroversion/introversion, or the degree of susceptibility to emotional influence, individual emotional contagion, as well as reciprocal emotional encounters, may vary. I believe that future research needs to find ways to incorporate individual differences into the model along with situational variables. Second, although in this model I take into account dyadic exchanges when looking at the emotional contagion processes, this model does not account for group processes, where the involvement of several people in emotional interactions

can change the dynamics of emotional contagion process outlined in this work. Thus, caution must be exercised when this model is applied to study emotional contagion processes in a group setting. Finally, this model does not take into account potential longitudinal effects of emotional contagion on individual attitudes and behaviors. Conceptualizing and measuring emotional contagion over time can prove to be a useful addition to the proposed model, as it can help identify the longevity of positive versus negative emotional contagion, as well as add some insights on how emotional contagion can influence relationships and individual behaviors over time.

From a practical standpoint, academic research on organizations needs to be up to date with changes that companies and businesses worldwide are going through (Mowday & Sutton, 1993; Rousseau, 1997). Empirical evidence indicates that today managers often regard e-mail as the primary communication medium for intra-organizational communication, as well as for communication with distant or overseas partners (Nadler & Shestowshy, 2004). Thus, studying the processes and outcomes of individual emotional contagion in the electronic communication context represents an important topic of interest to the academic community and practitioners, as it can illustrate how changes in modern organizations (specifically, changes in interpersonal communication, such as communication in the electronic environment) influence the attitudes and behaviors of employees. Further, as was noted by Carley (2002), there is a lot of potential in future research that is directed towards determining the value of emotions as a coordination mechanism in organizational processes and understanding factors that increase or diminish the importance of emotions in an organizational context. I believe this model carries some important implications for organizations as it can help scholars to empirically demonstrate how emotional encounters expressed in the individual electronic interactions influence attitudes and behaviors of coworkers, and ultimately can change not only their individual performance, but also organizational functioning.

ENDNOTES

[1]   As a minor point, it should be noted that many researchers examine emotions from a dispositional perspective, treating negative and positive affect as stable facets of individual personality (e.g., Watson & Clark, 1984; Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). However, a growing number of scholars support the situational perspective and concur that many effects of emotions are likely to be context dependent (e.g., Barry & Oliver, 1996; George & Zhou, 2002; Martin et al., 1997). Following this trend, the present research treats emotions primarily as a situational variable).

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