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Connie Rae Bateman

Editor

University of North Dakota

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LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

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Connie Rae Bateman
Editor
University of North Dakota

THE DIFFERENTIAL EFFECT OF GENDER ON THE WAY CONFLICT BETWEEN WORK AND FAMILY ROLES AFFECTS MANAGERS' RELIANCE ON INFORMATION SOURCES IN DEALING WITH SIGNIFICANT WORKPLACE EVENTS

John Leaptrott, Georgia Southern University
J. Michael McDonald, Georgia Southern University

ABSTRACT

Prior studies have assessed the effects of work-family conflict on the individual. These studies have investigated how items such as emotions, job satisfaction and turnover are affected by this conflict. Few studies have investigated how this conflict may affect managerial behavior. This study investigates how this conflict may affect male and female managers differently in the way they utilize information in resolving significant workplace events. Hypotheses that predicted female managers would exhibit less information seeking behavior in resolving these events were tested. These hypotheses were based on the premise that female managers would likely have a more demanding family role that would create more cognitive busyness and impede information search behavior. The study found that, contrary to expectations, most relationships between conflict and information search for both genders, measured by the perceived usefulness of various information sources, were positive and not negative. However, the perceived usefulness of these information sources was very different for males and females. Females had many more significant positive relationships between conflict and perceived usefulness of various information sources in resolving workplace events. These findings have implications for many organizations. The normal duties of many management personnel involve substantial commitments of time and effort. Upper level management may be more reluctant to assign more effortful and time consuming tasks to managers with higher levels of family-related responsibilities than those with lower levels. This reluctance may be based in part on an intuitive belief that a higher level of family responsibility may result in a higher level of conflict between the work role and the family role and this high level of role conflict would impair performance of their job responsibilities. The data in this study suggests a positive relationship between this conflict and the perceived usefulness of information gained from collaboration with others in the organization and use of non-personal sources of information. The finding that this role conflict is positively related to the perceived usefulness of a variety of information sources in typical decision making situations should help alleviate concerns about

assigning demanding managerial tasks to individuals with higher degrees of family role responsibilities.

INTRODUCTION

Many managers strive to simultaneously perform two demanding roles. One role frequently involves a sole or shared responsibility for managing a family. The other role involves successfully performing managerial tasks on the job. Both roles usually require substantial time and the use of the manager's physical and mental resources. These roles can frequently result in conflicting demands for these limited personal resources. When these resources available for one role are limited by an increase in the use of these resources to perform the other role, the performance of the role not receiving adequate resources may be impaired. For example, dealing with health or behavioral issues within the family could require extra time and attention of a manager that would not be available to deal with workplace issues. If this impairment extends to decision-making processes, important decisions such as those related to important workplace events may be made quickly and intuitively rather than made after seeking an appropriate amount of input from other information sources and properly analyzing that input. As a result, decisions that are made more intuitively may have a negative impact on organizational performance compared with decisions that are the result of a more thorough and more logic-based decision process.

A manager typically makes numerous workplace decisions dealing with events in his or her area of responsibility. These can include dealing with personnel issues, resources issues and procedural issues. For example, a manager may encounter subordinate performance that either fails to meet expectations or far exceeds them, experience a lack of support from other areas of the organization, or face implementation issues when the organization changes established operational procedures. In dealing with many of these events, it would be appropriate for a manager to consult many sources of guidance within the organization for assistance in interpreting them and evaluating alternative approaches in responding to them. A manager simultaneously dealing with significant issues related to the family would likely experience difficulty in taking the time necessary to properly consult alternative sources of information and consider alternatives approaches in dealing with these workplace events. As a result, such an individual might adopt a decision-making process based on the amount of time and effort available rather than amount that the decision requires.

This study investigates how a manager's gender affects the way that conflict between work and family roles impacts the way managers utilize informational sources in obtaining guidance in interpreting and acting upon these commonly encountered workplace events. This study supplements recent exploratory research that assessed the effect of these conflicts on information seeking behavior, but did not specifically explore gender differences in that behavior. Achieving a better understanding of these gender-based differences potentially provides a basis for assessing employer personnel policies that seek to minimize any potential adverse effects that occasional high levels of family-related demands on a manager's time and attention may have on the organization. The

criterion variable in this study was the extent managers found information sources useful in resolving a wide range of common workplace events. This variable should serve as a suitable proxy for assessing how managers use information sources in performing other important work-related managerial tasks.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Many recent descriptive decision-making models are based on two distinct systems of reasoning (Sloman, 1996). Although the terminology used to describe these two systems varies, the characteristics of the two systems are described in a similar manner. Epstein (1994) described the two systems as experiential and rational. Sloman (2002) characterized them as associative and rule-based. Stanovich and West (2000) and Kahneman (2003) have labeled them as System 1 and System 2. The System 1 or the experiential system describes a fast, effortless, intuitive process that is subject to emotional influences and is utilized to make many decisions in a near simultaneous manner. The System 2 or the rational system describes a slow, effortful, rational process that results in decisions that are made sequentially rather than simultaneously. The underlying assumptions regarding System 2 reasoning is that it requires the use of appropriate information and analysis (Kahneman, 2003) and that a greater use of System 2 or logic-based reasoning by the decision maker will result in better solutions to more complex problems than a greater use of intuitive reasoning (Stanovich & West, 2002).

The decision-making research related to the dual processes of reasoning suggests that time pressure and concurrent involvement in multiple cognitive tasks inhibits the use of System 2 reasoning (Kahneman, 2003). These two factors can inhibit the process of information search and other aspects of System 2 reasoning in a number of ways. Ordonez and Benson (1997) note decision makers often expedite the decision process under time pressures. Consequently, expediting the decision-making process can result in behavior that includes switching to simpler decision strategies, relying more heavily on negative information and reducing the input of information.

Gilbert (2002) provides evidence of the negative effects of concurrent cognitive involvement of decision-making behavior. He based his research on the premise that “conscious attention is a scant resource” (p. 169). As a result, concurrent involvement in multiple cognitive tasks reduces the ability of an individual to use information in simultaneous logic-based decision-making. In addition to demonstrating the effect of concurrent cognitive activity on initial decision-making, he also offers evidence it may be even more significant on subsequent decisions necessary to correct prior erroneous ones. His research has shown information relevant to the correction of an initial categorization is often noticed but not used. He has found evidence that self-regulation by the individual involved in routine everyday tasks can create enough cognitive busyness to severely limit the amount of information used to correct initial categorizations. Thus, the manager that experiences cognitive busyness from sources such as significant role conflict not only has more difficulty making

initial logic-based initial decisions, but will also likely face greater impediments to correcting prior incorrect decisions.

The premise of the current study is that while conflict between work and family roles induces an increased state of cognitive busyness and higher level of time pressure that may persist over time and may likely affect managerial decision-making performance, the effect of decision-making behavior may not be identical for men and women. The focus of the study is an investigation of the differential effect gender has on the way this conflict affects decision-making behavior. The differences in this behavior are assessed by investigating the degree conflicts between the work and family roles affect managers of each gender in the way they utilize information sources in their decision-making process related to dealing with common and important workplace events.

Work-Family Conflict

The performance of an individual's family role can create a state of cognitive busyness and consume time both on and off the job. Activities such as providing care to elderly parents, infant children, or family members with special needs, dealing with domestic relations issues with spouses or domestic partners, maintenance of social relationships outside the family or even routine household maintenance activities frequently require the manager's time and attention while on the job. Often seasonal fluctuations in job requirements, *ad hoc* projects and countless other requirements of the employer can require the time and attention of managers during off duty hours. As a result, the manager's family and work roles overlap during both work and non-work periods.

One can envision the limitations on elements of logic-based reasoning, such as information search, that might result when the manager is subject to job-related time pressures and is immersed in a multitude of activities related to managing his or her area of responsibility within the organization. Additional involvement in matters other than those pertaining to the business, such as those pertaining to the family, could also enhance a state of cognitive busyness or sense of time pressure that further limits the ability of the manager to engage in logic-based reasoning when making important business decisions.

Numerous researchers have developed work-family and family-work conflict scales to measure this conflict. While work-family construct was initially conceptualized as bidirectional, later research proved evidence to support the conceptualization that work-family and family-work conflict were separate constructs (Ford, Heinen & Langkamer, 2007). Work-family conflict (WFC) addresses the impact of work on the family. Family-work conflict (FWC) addresses the impact of the family on the work activities of the family member.

Gender orientation has been offered as a useful construct in considering the effects of gender on family and work roles and conflicts that result between them (Livingston & Judge, 2008). This construct describes a continuum of orientations to the work and family roles. At one end of the continuum, the traditional gender role orientation would describe primarily a family role orientation for the woman and a work role orientation for the man. At the other end of the continuum would be

an egalitarian role orientation that would describe equal role responsibilities for both genders. Prior studies support the prevalence of a traditional gender orientation in which women assume a greater role with respect to the family (Coltrane, 2000) and are more likely to consider their family role as important (Cinamon & Rich, 2002).

Event Management

The criterion variable in this study is the extent to which various information sources are utilized to interpret and sometimes act upon important events commonly encountered by managers in the workplace (Peterson & Smith, 2000). Prior research (Smith, Peterson & Schwartz, 2002) has identified the individual, organizational and cultural sources of guidance commonly accessed in dealing with these events. At the individual level, expertise is developed through experience and training. At the organizational level, persons providing guidance include superiors, subordinates, specialists and coworkers. Impersonal sources at the organizational level include formal rules or informal organizational norms. In addition, beliefs that are grounded in aspects of culture such as ideology or religion provide additional interpretive guidance.

The effect of culture on which sources of guidance are used in event management has been a common focus of this research stream. For example, Smith, Peterson and Wang (1996) compared the sources of guidance British and Chinese managers used in interpreting managerial events. Their data supported the finding that British managers relied heavily on their experience and training, while the Chinese managers relied more heavily on written rules and procedures. In a comparative study of work teams from Japan, Britain and the United States, Smith, Peterson and Misumi (1994) found evidence that the most frequently used source by Japanese teams in dealing with work events were coworkers, while in Britain and the United States team members relied on their own experience and prior training. These studies support the notion that cultural-level values, "... can predict substantial variance in use of some of the most widespread sources of guidance" (Smith, Peterson & Schwartz, 2002, p. 205).

Therefore, the utility of this methodology in assessing managerial information seeking behavior in the context of realistic workplace situations has been demonstrated in several published studies that focused on identifying how cultural affiliation results in differences in that behavior. This methodology should similarly be useful in assessing what effect cognitive influences such time pressure or cognitive busyness resulting from a conflict between the family and work roles have on informational source usage. Information source usage is important in many aspects of managerial activity, where information asymmetry (Hayek, 1948) gained from collaborative activity provides a competitive advantage.

Anticipating the negative effects that the conflict between family and work roles have on the levels of cognitive busyness and time pressure and the effect of these factors have on the information-seeking portion of the decision-making process, and considering the predominance of

traditional gender orientation in which women shoulder a greater share of responsibility for the family management role, we offer the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Women will exhibit more significant negative relationships between work-family conflict and the effect information sources have on a manager's actions taken in dealing with workplace events.

Hypothesis 2: Women will exhibit more significant negative relationships between family-work conflict and the effect information sources have on a manager's actions taken in dealing with workplace events.

METHODS

This study sampled participants in multiple sessions of a Credit Union executive training program conducted in the Southeastern United States. The attendees were asked to complete the written instrument in advance of attending the training sessions. Attendees that had not completed the instrument by the completion of the sessions were contacted and reminded to return the completed surveys. Participants that returned a completed survey were paid \$5. A total of 143 instruments were provided to attendees and 109 usable surveys were returned. A 76% response rate was achieved using this protocol.

The majority of the respondents were early to mid career women. Specifically, 61% of the respondents were women and 73% were between the ages of 26 and 46. Over 70% of the respondents had been with their employer greater than 7 years. The respondents were well educated with 67% having achieved a bachelors or masters degree.

Measures

The predictor variables in this study were work-family and family-work conflict. Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian (1996) have developed scales to measure these conflicts. These two five item scales have demonstrated Cronbach alphas that range from .82 to .90. The scales in the present study achieved alphas of .93 for work-family conflict and .88 for family-work conflict. They utilized five-point Likert scale items with "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree" as anchor points. The scales seeks the respondent's degree of agreement with statements such as "the demands of my work interfere with my home and family life" illustrating work-family conflict, and "the demands of my family interfere with work-related activity" illustrating family-work conflict.

The criterion variable in this study was measured using a portion of the Event Management Questionnaire (Smith, Peterson & Schwartz, 2002). This questionnaire measures the extent that an executive's actions related to specific events are affected by the use of specific sources of guidance. The eight workplace events in the scale are:

- When a vacancy arises that requires the appointment of a subordinate in your department.
- When one of your subordinates does consistently good work.
- When one of your subordinates does consistently poor work.
- When some of the equipment or machinery in your department seems to need replacement.
- When another department does not provide the resources or support you require.
- When there are differing opinions within your department.
- When you see the need to introduce new work procedures into your department.
- When the time comes to evaluate the success of new work procedures.

The guidance source alternatives that were assessed included formal rules and procedures, unwritten rules as to “how things are usually done around here”, my subordinates, specialists outside my department, other people at my level, my superior(s), opinions based on my experience and beliefs in my country as to what is right. The extent to which the respondent’s actions were affected by each source of guidance was measured with a five item Likert-type scale with “to a very small extent” and “to a very large extent” as anchor points. The Cronbach’s alpha for Event Management Questionnaire was .96 in the multinational Smith, Peterson and Schwartz (2002) study. The scale achieved a Cronbach’s alpha of .88 in the present study. This level of reliability is considered acceptable, particularly for early stage research (Nunnally, 1978; Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics for the predictor and criterion variables and *t*-tests assessing the significance, if any, of gender difference in the measurement of these variables are shown in Table 1 and Table 2. No significant differences between men and women were noted on either the predictor or criterion variables.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics & <i>t</i>-tests for Predictor Variables (Type of Conflict & Gender)					
	Gender Difference				
	N	Mean	S.D.	<i>t</i>	Significance (2-tailed)
Work -Family Conflict Women	64	2.85	1.17	1.54	.13
Work -Family Conflict Men	42	2.50	1.15		
Family-Work Conflict Women	65	1.77	.82	.75	.46
Family-Work Conflict Men	42	1.66	.81		

The focus of this study was to assess the differential effects of gender on the relationships between work-family conflict and family-work conflict and the extent the usage of each source of guidance was affected by these conflicts. This assessment tested hypotheses that predicted cognitive busyness and time pressure caused by role conflict between the family and the workplace would result in more negative relationships between work-family and family-work conflict and the effect information sources have on a manager's actions taken in dealing with workplace events for women than for men. The results of this assessment are shown in Figures 1 through 6.

	Gender Difference				
	N	Mean	S.D.	t	Significance (2-tailed)
Formal Rules & Procedures-Women	63	3.07	1.02	1.19	.24
Formal Rules & Procedures-Men	40	2.85	.87		
Unwritten Rules-Women	63	2.83	1.06	-.07	.94
Unwritten Rules-Men	39	2.85	.93		
My Subordinates-Women	61	2.82	1.04	1.71	.09
My Subordinates-Men	39	2.46	.97		
Specialists Outside My Department-Women	61	2.52	1.16	-.58	.56
Specialists Outside My Department-Men	39	2.62	.63		
Other People at My Level- Women	60	2.80	1.08	.59	.56
Other People at My Level- Men	39	2.69	.80		
My Superiors-Women	61	3.50	.94	.05	.96
My Superiors-Men	39	3.49	.83		
My Experience-Women	61	3.50	1.14	-1.51	.13
My Experience-Men	39	3.83	.99		
Cultural Values-Women	61	2.05	1.24	.65	.52
Cultural Values-Men	38	1.89	1.11		

Figure 1: Patterns of Significant Relationships Work-Family Conflict								
Both Genders	Formal Rules and Procedures	Unwritten rules as to "how things are usually done around here"	My subordinates	Specialists outside my department	Other people at my level	My superior(s)	Opinions based on my own experience	Beliefs that are widely accepted in my country as to what is right
When a vacancy arises that requires the appointment of a subordinate in your department.	.34**				.25*			
When one of your subordinates does consistently good work.	.25*	.22*						
When one of your subordinates does consistently poor work.	.26**							
When some of the equipment or machinery in your department seems to need replacement.	.20*		.20*					
When another department does not provide the resources or support you require.	.20*		.27**	.20*				
When there are differing opinions within your department.	.25*		.21*			.24*		
When you see the need to introduce new work procedures into your department.	.28**			.20*	.30**	.20*		
When the time comes to evaluate the success of new work procedures.	.20*			.22*	.23*			
Pair-wise correlations N = 99-103 * < .05 ** < .01 Only significant correlations are shown.								

Neither hypothesis was supported. Contrary to expectations, most correlations between conflict and information source usefulness were positive and not negative. These results provide evidence of several significant patterns. The number of significant relationships between FWC and information source importance in affecting a manager's actions were much less than WFC. This supported the notion that work-family conflict has a greater effect on behavior than family-work conflict. In addition, the pattern of correlations between WFC and FWC and information source importance were very different for each gender.

Figure 2. Patterns of Significant Relationships Work-Family Conflict								
Female Respondents	Formal Rules and Procedures	Unwritten rules as to "how things are usually done around here"	My subordinates	Specialists outside my department	Other people at my level	My superior(s)	Opinions based on my own experience	Beliefs that are widely accepted in my country as to what is right
When a vacancy arises that requires the appointment of a subordinate in your department.	.32**							
When one of your subordinates does consistently good work.	.29*							
When one of your subordinates does consistently poor work.	.26*			.26*				
When some of the equipment or machinery in your department seems to need replacement.			.30*					
When another department does not provide the resources or support you require.				.27*				
When there are differing opinions within your department.	.30*			.30*		.33**		
When you see the need to introduce new work procedures into your department.	.36**				.31**	.39**		
When the time comes to evaluate the success of new work procedures.	.30*			.31*	.29*			
Pair-wise correlations N = 60-63 * < .05 ** < .01 Only significant correlations are shown.								

Analysis of responses for males when FWC was used as a predictor variable resulted in only one significant relationship. Males reported that when some of the equipment or machinery in their department seemed to need replacement, opinions based on their experience would affect their decision. This relationship was not significant when WFC was used as a predictor variable.

Analysis of responses for females when FWC was used as a predictor variable resulted in three significant relationships. Females reported that when some of the equipment or machinery in their department seemed to need replacement, opinions based on their experience would affect their decision. This relationship was not significant when WFC was used as a predictor variable. Both these results were similar to their men colleagues. In addition, the FWC predictor yielded a negative relationship between the effect of peers as an information source in the case of dealing with subordinates that do consistently good work and a positive relationship between the effect of

subordinates as an information source in the case of another department not providing the required resources or support. None of the relationships were significant when WFC was used as a predictor variable.

Figure 3. Patterns of Significant Relationships Work-Family Conflict

Male Respondents	Formal Rules and Procedures	Unwritten rules as to "how things are usually done around here"	My subordinates	Specialists outside my department	Other people at my level	My superior(s)	Opinions based on my own experience	Beliefs that are widely accepted in my country as to what is right
When a vacancy arises that requires the appointment of a subordinate in your department.	.36*							
When one of your subordinates does consistently good work.		.38*						
When one of your subordinates does consistently poor work.								
When some of the equipment or machinery in your department seems to need replacement.								
When another department does not provide the resources or support you require.								
When there are differing opinions within your department.								
When you see the need to introduce new work procedures into your department.								
When the time comes to evaluate the success of new work procedures.								
Pair-wise correlations N = 38-40 * < .05 ** < .01 Only significant correlations are shown.								

Analysis of responses for males when WFC was used as a predictor variable resulted in only two significant relationships. Males reported that when a vacancy occurred that required the appointment of a subordinate, formal rules would affect their decision. In addition, when subordinates do consistently good work, males respondents would be affected by unwritten rules and customs in obtaining guidance as to the appropriate course of action.

Figure 4. Patterns of Significant Relationships Family Work Conflict

Both Genders	Formal Rules and Procedures	Unwritten rules as to "how things are usually done around here"	My subordinates	Specialists outside my department	Other people at my level	My superior(s)	Opinions based on my own experience	Beliefs that are widely accepted in my country as to what is right
When a vacancy arises that requires the appointment of a subordinate in your department.								
When one of your subordinates does consistently good work.					-.23*	-.23*		
When one of your subordinates does consistently poor work.								
When some of the equipment or machinery in your department seems to need replacement.	.22*		.23*				.25*	
When another department does not provide the resources or support you require.			.25*					
When there are differing opinions within your department.								
When you see the need to introduce new work procedures into your department.								
When the time comes to evaluate the success of new work procedures.								
Pair-wise correlations N = 99-103 * < .05 ** < .01 Only significant correlations are shown.								

Analysis of responses for females when WFC was used as a predictor variable resulted in fifteen significant relationships, substantially more than exhibited by their male colleagues. There were several patterns within the females' responses that were not shared by males. Females were heavily influenced by formal rules and procedures. As shown in the first column of Figure 2, females' actions were affected by formal rules and procedures in dealing with six of the eight workplace events. Another commonly used source not utilized by males was specialists outside the department. Females' actions were affected by this source in four of the eight events. Another pattern unique to female respondents was the use of multiple sources in dealing with these workplace events. Females reported being affected by multiple information sources when a subordinate consistently does poor work, when there are differing opinions within the department,

when it is necessary to introduce new work procedures into the department and when it comes time to evaluate the success of new work procedures.

Figure 5. Patterns of Significant Relationships Family Work Conflic

Female Respondents	Formal Rules and Procedures	Unwritten rules as to "how things are usually done around here"	My subordinates	Specialists outside my department	Other people at my level	My superior(s)	Opinions based on my own experience	Beliefs that are widely accepted in my country as to what is right
When a vacancy arises that requires the appointment of a subordinate in your department.								
When one of your subordinates does consistently good work.					-.26*			
When one of your subordinates does consistently poor work.								
When some of the equipment or machinery in your department seems to need replacement.							.25*	
When another department does not provide the resources or support you require.			.26*					
When there are differing opinions within your department.								
When you see the need to introduce new work procedures into your department.								
When the time comes to evaluate the success of new work procedures.								
Pair-wise correlations N = 60-63 * < .05 ** < .01 Only significant correlations are shown.								

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to assess the effect gender has on significance of the relationships between the conflict of the work-family roles and the utilization of various sources decision-making process related to addressing common workplace events. The related hypotheses were based on two theoretic frameworks. One framework relates to decision-making that describes reasoning as the result of one of two possible distinct processes. One process is intuitive and the

other process is logic-based (Epstein, 1994; Sloman, 2002; Stanovich & West, 2000; Kahneman, 2003). This framework suggests that time pressure and concurrent cognitive activity are two of several predictors of a predominant use of intuitive reasoning processes rather than reasoning processes that are more logic-based. Since these two predictors are likely results of WFC & FWC, these conflicts could reasonably be expected to impair logic-based reasoning related to making important decisions in dealing with workplace events. A second framework suggests that because females often devote more time to managing family responsibilities they tend to experience more WFC & FWC than males. Therefore, taken together these frameworks would predict that logic-based reasoning by females would be more adversely affected by these conflicts than males and would likely result in less use of informational sources.

Figure 6. Patterns of Significant Relationships Family Work Conflict								
Male Respondents	Formal Rules and Procedures	Unwritten rules as to "how things are usually done around here"	My subordinates	Specialists outside my department	Other people at my level	My superior(s)	Opinions based on my own experience	Beliefs that are widely accepted in my country as to what is right
When a vacancy arises that requires the appointment of a subordinate in your department.								
When one of your subordinates does consistently good work.								
When one of your subordinates does consistently poor work.								
When some of the equipment or machinery in your department seems to need replacement.							.33*	
When another department does not provide the resources or support you require.								
When there are differing opinions within your department.								
When you see the need to introduce new work procedures into your department.								
When the time comes to evaluate the success of new work procedures.								
Pair-wise correlations N = 38-40 * < .05 ** < .01 Only significant correlations are shown.								

Leaptrott and McDonald (in press) found evidence to suggest that WFC differed substantially from the effect of FWC in the degree that various information sources affected decision-making. Several previous studies have found similar evidence to suggest that there are differences between these two types of conflicts in their effect on individuals. Gutek, Searle & Klepa (1991) found WFC scores were higher than FWC scores in two different samples, one sample consisted of psychologists and another of senior executives. Judge, Boudreau & Bretz (1994) also found evidence to support the higher relative effect of WFC compared to FWC in a sample of male business executives. Therefore, for many individuals, the effects of these two types of conflict differ and for most individuals the importance of the family role exceeds that of the work role (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Leaptrott and McDonald (in press) found evidence to support a finding that differences between these two types of conflict extends to differences in decision-making behaviors such as information source utilization.

They also found that most of the relationships between conflict and source usage were positive and not negative as expected. In addition, there was lack of uniformity in the degree the decisions relating to workplace events were affected by the use of the various alternative sources, except for a uniformly significant positive relationship between WFC and the use of formal rules and procedures by females. While these results were not expected, their post hoc review of the literature provided at least partial explanations for these findings.

These explanations stem from two different objectives of individuals coping with this role conflict. One objective is to protect positive relationships with the family and at work in order to preserve a sense of belonging in both domains (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). Ilies et al. (2007) found evidence of increased negative affect and role conflict during periods of increased workload activity such as the workplace events utilized as the information seeking criterion variables in the present study. The desire to preserve positive relationships at work could also manifest itself as a desire to reduce contact with superiors, peers and subordinates during high periods of role conflict and resulting increased levels of negative affect. For example, an individual may be reluctant to share family related problems with individuals in the workplace because sharing these problems may put the work relationships at risk because of the strain high levels of negative affect might put on these relationships. These individuals may instead adopt a strategy of reducing contact with those individuals when levels of family related stress are increased and instead opt for obtaining guidance from formal rules and procedures, a source that is impersonal and substantially less likely to put positive workplace relationships at risk. In the present study, the consistent pattern of positive correlations between work-family conflict and the importance of formal rules and procedures that resulted for women and not men suggests that maintaining these relationships may be a higher priority for women than it is for men.

Another objective is to reduce to the number of stressors, particularly at work (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003). These stressors have been conceptualized as being either time-based, strain-based or behavior based (Dierdorff & Ellington, 2008; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Time-based sources of stress relate to instances when the time requirements of one role interfere with the proper

performance of the other role. Strain-based sources of stress describe instances where mental or physical stemming from one role impedes the performance of the other role. Behavior-based sources of stress result from certain characteristics of a particular occupation such as the degrees of interdependence, interpersonal conflict and responsibility for others that the occupation requires. The uniform positive relationship between work-family conflict and the importance of formal rules and procedures support the notion that the use of that particular information source has tremendous utility in reducing the stress experienced by respondents in one or more of these three stress generating areas. The use of this impersonal source may offer the necessary guidance to successfully deal resolve workplace events quickly thereby reducing time-based stress and without creating additional strain-based stress resulting from interacting with other individuals at the workplace who may have differing views.

The results in this study found that a greater number of women experience positive relationships between work-family conflict and the use of individuals at the various hierarchical levels of the organization as sources of guidance when dealing with many of the workplace events assessed in the present study. This finding suggests the possibility that women seek increased interactions with empathetic and supportive persons of varying hierarchical rank at the workplace. In turn, these interactions may serve to reduce stress experienced in their family role.

Increased workloads have been shown to increase WFC (Illies et al., 2007). Management may be reluctant to assign men and women with greater family responsibilities to the more demanding positions in the organization. While all the reasons for the nature of the relationship may not be fully understood at this point, the findings of a positive relationship between family-related conflict and information source usefulness in the present study suggest this reluctance is not justified.

Work and family role conflicts may be an unavoidable consequence for many managers.

However, from the viewpoint of the organization, creating a culture that stresses the importance of seeking advice from multiple sources and involving more than one individual in important decision-making processes whenever possible would tend to reduce the effects of this role conflict on the decision-making process. Involving multiple individuals in major decision-making processes would tend to reduce the effect of this role conflict since not all individuals are likely to be under the influence of that conflict to the same degree. Organizational cultures that promote team building and group management processes allow individual managers to have increased flexibility to spend more time addressing occasional increased demands related to the family role. This flexibility should reduce to the adverse effects of role conflict for all managers in the organization that participate in group decision-making (Shelton, 2006; Miller, Fitzgerald, Winter & Paul, 1999). Making better decisions should result in increased performance by both the manager and their area of organizational responsibility.

LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Busy individuals are often reluctant to participate in survey-based data collection efforts (Newby, Watson, & Woodliff 2003; Markman, Balkin, & Baron 2002). Consequently, the length and scope of survey instruments are limited as is the ability to assess the relationship of large numbers of variables. Collecting cognitively based data from managers related to decision-making behavior often requires the use of self-report measures and reliance on the recollection of past behaviors or attitudes. These limitations often preclude the desirable use of multiple measures of a single construct.

The lack of field research relating to dual systems of reasoning theories of decision-making raises the issue of content validity for measures that purport to be reflective of the extent individuals used System 1 or System 2 reasoning in decision-making. The role conflict measure (Netemeyer et al. 1996) was intended to encompass time pressure and involvement in concurrent cognitive activity both of which were identified by Kahneman (2003) as predicting intuitive reasoning. The reliabilities of these established measures were satisfactory. However, further refinement of assessment methodology is likely as additional field studies examine the dual processes of reasoning theory. While limiting this study to participants in a single industry reduces industry effects, it also reduces the generalizability of the results. Similar studies of participants in other industries will increase this generalizability.

Measures such as the Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian (1996) WFC instrument measures an individual's perception of conflict. Certain contextual factors such as marital status, number and ages of children and type of family system (Olson, 2000; Olson et al., 2002) may also be predictive of WFC. Although these contextual factors may be somewhat correlated with measures of self perceived WFC, future studies should consider incorporating these factors as control variables when assessing the effect of WFC on decision-making behavior.

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WHAT OR WHO REGULATES EUROPEAN ELECTRONIC MEDIA?

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ABSTRACT

What keeps European media in line? America has the FCC to keep the electronic media in line, but what about Europe? We will discuss the individual media related efforts of thirteen European nations. By doing this we can better understand the differences between America's and Europe's approach to media setup and policing.

Do other countries have the same problems or are their problems different? Because Europe is a collection of cultures and languages in close proximity, we assume, they will have shared problems. Wealthy nations are next to poorer ones which cause conflict with media setup. Some nations may not have the funds to appropriately setup the media they want other than a single public station. If that is the case, then they, more than likely, will have to hope the neighboring countries will supply them with programming.

The countries selected for this study will include the following: Switzerland, Germany, France, Italy, United Kingdom, The Netherlands, Belgium, Sweden, Finland, Norway, Denmark, Spain, and Greece.

The information on each country will be:

- 1. A quick history of the country*
- 2. Information on each country's government and media*
- 3. Cultural boundaries that may have to be crossed to successfully communicate with each nation*

INTRODUCTION

Obviously cultural barriers differ once borders are crossed. America has the FCC to keep the electronic media inline, but what about Europe? We'll discuss the individual media related efforts of thirteen European nations. By doing this we'll better understand the differences between America's and Europe's approach to media setup and policing. The countries selected for this study will include the following: Switzerland, Germany, France, Italy, United Kingdom, The Netherlands, Belgium, Sweden, Finland, Norway, Denmark, Spain, and Greece.

The information included on each country will be:

1. A quick history of the country
2. Information on each country's government and media
3. Cultural boundaries that may have to be crossed to successfully communicate with each nation

SWITZERLAND

Switzerland's origins date back to the 1200's when some cantons of the Holy Roman Empire joined together to form a federation. This federation, known as the Swiss Confederation, was granted independence in 1648 and by 1815 set borders. Switzerland is a federal state that is made up of 28 cantons. The President rules both the country and the government with two legislative houses. Switzerland is a neutral country and hasn't been involved in a war since 1815.

Communicating with the Swiss is very easy to do as they have four official languages, French, Italian, German, and Romansch, but most business people in the cities speak English also (Morrison, 1994). About 65 percent of the country speaks German. Switzerland has enjoyed radio since the 1920's and some of the amateur radio stations eventually formed companies such as the Utilitas organization. Within five years, 1926, every privately owned station was available in five major cities by associations. The newspaper owners didn't like this because of the competition and succeeded in getting restrictions on the radio industry. The Swiss Broadcasting Company (SBC) is the parent company to nine of the local stations and companies. All of the media regulation is done by the Ministry of Transport and Energy, much like America's FCC. The SBC is a non-profit organization that receives funding through a licensing fee but held a monopoly (until 1983) on both the television and radio markets. Because Switzerland has only one regulating agency, they decide what is reported and are very influential. The SBC's programs must "uphold and develop the cultural values of the country and contribute to the spiritual, moral, religious, civic, and artistic development" of listeners and viewers. They "must serve the interest of the country, reinforce national union and solidarity, and aid international understanding." The majority of programming is news, religion, culture, and information, which fulfills the mandate described (Noam, 1991).

A problem with the Swiss media, mainly television, is that it borders many countries. Why would you watch Swiss television that is comprised of religion and news, when you could just as easily watch something from a German station? This is becoming a problem for the SBC, and they are becoming second tier in their own country. Germany has many more resources when it comes to media, and the citizens of Switzerland know this and flock to their media. Broadcasting revenues, 75 percent, mostly come out of the tax the citizens pay when they buy their television sets. The rest of the revenue is from advertising which is the exact opposite of what we have in America. SBC's monopoly ended in 1983 with the legalization of private stations.

Switzerland had problems in broadcasting publicly because of the three languages spoken by a large portion of the country. The neighboring countries also made it difficult for them to compete. The citizen's needs for television resulted in cable TV sweeping the country because they could get the stations from other countries. Swiss Television seems like a difficult place to make a living. With the many restrictions, competitions, and overall "boring" style of television, it seems as if you are better off trying to succeed in starting a station elsewhere. The country's small population, 6.8 million, and size make it difficult for them to rely on citizens to watch and listen to only their regional broadcasts.

GERMANY

Germany is a very well known nation but has only been around for 120 years. Germany has made great progress since WWII. It is not a democratic federal multi-party republic. The government is trying to bring the former East Germany up to speed with West Germany so all types of business and politics will be affected. The languages spoken are German and English. German is the only official language, but a large portion of the inner city population also speaks English (Morrison, 1994).

German broadcasting has been run by the state from the beginning. The 1872 Telegraph law stated that "electrical telegraph facilities, which distribute information without metallic wires, may be erected and operated only with the permission of the state." This was the beginning of electronic media; they just didn't realize it yet. Many soldiers who were trained to operate radios during wartime carried this skill into their private lives. Many of them became radio enthusiasts. All of this communication was governed by the Reichspost. They held the opinion that it was "a mother hen which had hatched chicks and which was now excitedly clucking, scurrying back and forth ..." (Noam, 1994). . .The Reichspost was very restrictive and required licensing to every broadcast receiver, as well as the approval of whatever receivers were sold to the public. In the beginning only three companies could make receivers. The reasoning behind this was "the parts from foreign countries are inferior and foreigners could spy" on them if they used their parts (Noam, 1994).

During the 1930's broadcasting became a big part of Nazi propoganda. Hitler was on the radio all the time while other speakers would be shut down so that the citizens would be "forced" to listen to Hitler. If you listened to the enemy's broadcasts, it was considered a major crime. After the war the German's revamped their broadcasting system to more match the likes of the BBC which was independent from the state. The Allies, who also agreed that the broadcasting ways of Germany in 1930 were not acceptable, decided on this change (Casmir, 1995).

Television was in operation by 1935 and by 1936 was showing the Olympic Games being held in Berlin. Advertising on television began in 1956 and was considered controversial. At first the advertising was on in the early evening so it would not interrupt programs. Basically, the German media works a lot like ours except they are more liberal, as are many European nations.

Whereas after 10 pm in the U.S., you are more likely to see more "unsavory" things on television such as an increase in swearing or lewd humor, in Germany you will find nudity and sex on the airwaves. It's not that they are any less cultured or a sexist people; it's just that they are more liberal (Noam, 1991).

They don't have a monopoly of media like Switzerland. A 1985 act prevented a dual monopoly of print and television media on both national and local levels. Setting up a station in Germany would be a lot like America except German media is more liberal. To set up a station, you'd have to realize that you would ultimately be controlled by the government, much like in America. With Germany you have a country large enough to operate without worry of smaller border countries taking away viewers or listeners. Germany also has a large enough population, 79 million, so it can rely on its own citizens instead of relying on others.

FRANCE

France, after the death of Charlemagne in 814, quickly developed into one of the strongest and most unified countries in the world. Because it is a multi-party republic, the Prime Minister is the head of government, and the President is the Chief of State. The President appoints the Prime Minister, and he serves for seven years. The official language is French, but like most other European countries, many speak English also (Morrison, 1994).

When French broadcasting first got its start, it was both a public and private system. Soon after being liberated, it quickly became mostly government controlled for political control. Around the mid seventies, the country took a less strict approach with the industry. Eventually French media was open and able to create diversity, independence, and the overall ability to just be more open. Three government-owned networks dominated French broadcasting with matching radio stations. Eventually more non-state stations and channels were included (Noam, 1991). The private channel market soon flourished, and private stations were eventually made legal. France started off being totally government controlled and now is mostly a diverse and private group (Venturelli, 1998). By making it a more privately owned system, it allows France to have more cultured programming and more legitimacy in the rest of Europe.

Setting up a station in France would be a good thing to do as it seems that France is very open to new ideas and would not reject a privately owned station. Because many of the French also speak English, it is a large enough country that their citizens won't receive, watch, and/or listen to other country's stations. This will allow for a more select market and more people that will listen to your station.

ITALY

Italy has existed for over 3,000 years. In the later 1800's it was a unified monarchy that vanished by the 1940's because of the War. Italy's government is a multiparty parliamentary republic with a 325-seat Senate and a 630-seat Chamber of Deputies serving as legislative bodies. The President is the Chief of State. The Prime Minister heads up the government. The official language is Italian but, as with most European countries, several people, namely business owners, speak English also (Morrison, 1994).

Italy is unbelievably open to broadcast television. There are very few cable television or satellite television channels. Hundreds of commercial television channels have graced the airwaves since the mid 1970's. One problem is this is a recently structured broadcast system that is in the clutches of one man, Silvio Berlusconi (Noam, 1991). There were three major networks at the time, and they were all controlled by Berlusconi. The Italian government realized what had to be done in order to prevent this monopoly from doing more damage than it had already done. The government tried to challenge him by passing bills and laws that they thought would give them the upper hand. Berlusconi wasn't a businessman by trade but an actor who had a mind for business. Although the government tried to stop Berlusconi and make it tough for him, they ultimately failed. Italy is still under the media rule of Berlusconi, and he believes other European nations should model the Italian way. "The wind of commercial television blows now from Italy over all of Europe. This is one of the few winds that blows from the south to the north" (Noam, 1991). Although the public broadcasting institution didn't win this bout, they aren't out of the fight completely.

Italy would not be a good place to start up a station. Because a monopoly is present, it isn't conducive for starting up competition.

UNITED KINGDOM

The United Kingdom consists of England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. The government is in England and is a constitutional monarchy. The Prime Minister leads the House of Commons, which is one of two parts of Parliament; the other is the House of Lords. The House of Commons is where the real power is (Morrison, 1994).

Britain's media is primarily composed of the British Broadcast Corporation (BBC). The BBC is government owned and operated and has been a staple in British media for more than thirty years. There are also private channels and networks, which is one reason the system works so very well. Although the BBC is popular, it is also the only publicly owned and operated network allowing the government full majority control. The critics claim there is a flaw in the government having that much control, but the rebuttal is simple; there needs to be a public monopoly so the quality of the programs will be high (Noam, 1991).

London with its size and population made way for a British revolution in program packaging and production. Now London would be included in the task of media production as well as their normal tasks of trade, finance, and shipping. London is already one of the key cities of Europe, why not media production, too. They already hold a strong film and theatre vibe, and the media is there full force. Britain moved ahead in the media game, tested the idea, and then passed them on into the rest of Europe. By doing this, they were always in a constant state of improvement. London was a big enough city so that this could be done, and the UK had enough influence that other countries listened and learned (Noam, 1991).

All of the above information makes the UK a great place to start a station. It's true that they primarily use the government controlled BBC, but they are not against private channels. If you were to work in the UK, you might find that ideas about the different media would be tested. Although sometimes frustrating, this would allow for greater achievement and overall ideas. The UK seems very conducive to new station development. With the only monopoly being in the public market, you should be able to find your niche if you plan correctly.

THE NETHERLANDS

The Dutch of the Netherlands have gone through many changes. So that we don't delve too far into history, we'll pick up in 1609 when Spain and the Netherlands reached an agreement for a twelve-year truce after many years of war. Although this truce was in effect, the Spaniards didn't believe that the Dutch were their own nation until 1648 when the Peace of Munster was enacted. The Netherlands are governed by a constitutional monarchy. Parliament consists of a 75-seat First chamber and 150-seat Second Chamber. The monarch is the Chief of State, where, as usual, the Prime Minister runs the government. The official language is Dutch, but a small portion of the population also speaks Turkish and Arabic. The majority of the Dutch speak at least two languages, and, fortunately, English is usually understood (Morrison, 1994).

The Dutch people are very well versed in languages other than their own; therefore, they play a large part in international trade. With this mentality, the Dutch are very acceptive of foreign radio and television broadcasts from across their borders. Dutch television was never very good because of all the outward signals the citizens received from other countries. Although the Dutch are quickly moving up in the electronic marketplace, the broadcast companies don't have much to work with because of the outside competition. If you take away all of the international signals and channels, the Dutch would have no problem with their broadcasting product. It's not the best in the world at getting viewers or listeners but, by no means, is it bad. The broadcasts meet a lot of the needs and wants that the average viewer might want, but when compared to other public and privately owned stations, that just isn't enough (Noam, 1991).

The public stations usually run the very common, correct religious, and mundane programming expected to be on radios and televisions. When private stations realized nothing could

compete with this, they left the Dutch public stations battling for the middle ground, the traditional broadcasts. With all the public channels battling, the quality of Dutch television was raised, but they also still had to deal with the international station signals that were coming in from across the borders. Because of this quality increase, the Dutch public stations have gained viewership but are constantly under pressure to maintain the traditional ways (Noam, 1991).

This setup makes it hard to break into the market if you want to be traditional in your thinking. Sure one could start a pirate station and get it legalized, but you aren't reaching nearly as many as you would if you were involved with a public station. It doesn't seem to be a situation you could truly win if you go the public route because you have heavy competition. If you go the private route, then you lose quality. It seems best to be a station outside of the country that the Netherlands can get as well.

BELGIUM

In the early 1800's, Belgium was part of the Netherlands. When the map of Europe was being redrawn, with the help of the UK and France, Belgium was able to break away from the Netherlands in 1830. The Belgium government is a constitutional monarchy with two legislative houses. The Chief of State position is held by the King and the head of government is the Prime Minister. There are three recognized languages in Belgium, French, German, and a variety of Dutch (Flemish). Belgium is also the second most densely populated country in Europe (Morrison, 1994).

Having multiple languages spoken in your country doesn't allow a centralized version of media such as Germany has. Multiple languages require them to meet even more needs for their people (Venturelli, 1998). Belgium's placement is also a problem for local media. The country is surrounded by other countries. The Belgians frequently watch other countries' media and broadcasts. They especially like Luxembourg.

Since all of Belgium's viewers were looking to the outside for entertainment, the country united with other stations across Europe. With these new alliances, Belgium enjoys the broadcasts they wanted. Eventually though, Belgium broadcasters will have to put more money and thought into a more successful public system for the people (Noam, 1991).

Starting a station in Belgium may be a good idea in the future if they ever figure out a happy medium for international broadcasts and local. At the moment they don't seem to be concerned with finding this happy medium because what they have now is working for them. Eventually the public broadcasters will figure a way to market all of it as a total package, and the Belgian people will, hopefully, be interested. Until then, you should set up either in Brussels, the administrative capital of Europe, or in an outside country with penetration into Belgium.

SWEDEN

The Swedes come from the Vikings that lived throughout that area. Sweden was once a part of Denmark. Sweden was able to separate from Denmark in 1523 and immediately became a rival power. At one point Norway was taken away from Denmark and given to Sweden. This was punishment for Denmark because of their Napoleonic support. After around 100 years of Swedish rule, Norway was given its independence. Sweden is a parliamentary state under a constitutional monarchy. The executive branch consists of a Prime Minister and his advisors, parliament, and a Supreme Court. The official language is Swedish, which is of German relation. Most school children learn English as well so it wouldn't be too hard to find an English speaking Swede (Morrison, 1994).

In the early 1990's Sweden was known as the strictest country carrying public broadcasts, but it was still losing ground. Cable was beginning to replace over-the-air broadcasts as the primary form of distribution. Television went from almost purely public to more of a mixed system. The cable and satellite companies realized Sweden's needs and came into fill them. Sweden didn't have this kind of programming, and there was a dollar to be made. The traditional broadcasts were very conservative, and this wasn't going to last. The government needed to be competitive with the private channels. So they decided to begin a second and a third public channel just because of the sheer threat of private broadcast entry (Noam, 1991). The public felt that the public channels did not meet all of their needs, but the private channels did (Bryant & Zillman, 1994, p. 11).

The media eventually liberalized and many companies began to run cable throughout the country. The larger more important portions of Sweden were given experimental satellite broadcasts. Sweden is on its way to becoming a more stable media society which is why it may be good to set up there. Some problem with setting up in Sweden is Televerket, the near monopoly of all telecommunications. Monopolies are tough to beat especially if you try to start up a company without prior backing. Although Sweden is becoming media savvy, it would be difficult to crack into the market.

FINLAND

The Finnish people have been part of many countries of Europe. Finland was taken over by the USSR, but the Russians dismembered it instead of absorbing it. By the time World War II ended, they had territory in the USSR, so when the cold war came around, they stayed neutral and eventually became whole again. The Finnish government is a constitutional republic, which means that the President is the head of state and shares power with the Prime Minister whom he appointed. The official languages of Finland are Finnish and Swedish, while English is the primary language learned while in school. Older Finnish usually speak German which is important to know when dealing with the broadcasting media (Morrison, 1994).

Finland maybe small and speaks the lesser used languages, but it seems to have made its way into diversified media better than other countries. Finland enjoys a mix of public and private communication. Even the more liberal politicians approve of the public control of broadcasting. Commercial television works with public television as a way of funding. Also local printers have become much more successful in integrating into broadcasting. This allows local media to flourish in the Finnish system. They are bringing medias together, making local media stronger and much more successful. Finland was also very open to the idea of cable television. The cable programming is very open which will eventually lead to the liberalization of future programs. All of this convergence is making Finland an unlikely media power (Noam, 1991).

Finland is successful at media relations. This seems to be a great place to set up a successful station because everyone seems to work together. Finland is a smaller country, but you can be successful there. Finland seems to be the ideal set up compared to some of the other countries we've covered. Finnish don't watch outside broadcasts, which seem to be the main problem in other European countries.

NORWAY

Much like Sweden, Norway's origins lie in the Vikings. Norway was once under Denmark but when Denmark was punished for siding with Napoleon, it was given to Sweden. In 1905 Norway was given its independence. During World War II, Norway tried to remain neutral but was occupied by Nazi Germany. Norway went from believing in neutrality to believing in collective security and was one of the founding members of the United Nations. The Norwegian government is a multi-party constitutional monarchy. There are three branches of government, the King, the cabinet, and the Prime Minister who heads up the government itself. Norway's official language is Norwegian, which has German roots. Fortunately English is also widely spoken in Norway (Morrison, 1994).

The Norwegian government was not open to electronic media. They also didn't like the decentralizing of the public system although they were extremely strict about advertising on public television. Pirate stations began to broadcast to Norway's public system. When cable television reached Norway, it also brought channels of neighboring countries allowing the Norwegians to enjoy more channels and networks. Outside countries realize that not everyone's cable or public television is desirable, so they pipe in their own shows and networks. Although this is happening in Norway with cable and pay-TV programs, Norway imposes very restrictive rules on them (Noam, 1991).

Norway needs to have to loosen its grip on public television and the rules and regulations it puts upon cable and outside broadcasts or increase the quality of its own public broadcasts. This makes Norway a very unattractive place to set up a station if you want it to succeed. Norway's size hurts them, but there is and will always be a need for local programming. They may not be able to

compete privately or commercially with the bigger countries, but they can have high quality local programming. My suggestion to Norway is to pump more money and more liberal views into the way they handle their media.

DENMARK

Continuing with historically Viking related countries, we begin upon Denmark. As we know Denmark used to be much larger but was punished for associating itself with Napoleon, a problem that resulted in the taking away of Norway. Denmark's government is a constitutional monarchy much like many other countries in Europe. The power is held by the Prime Minister who heads up the government, and the rest is held by cabinet members. Danish is the official language of Denmark although they begin to teach English around age ten or eleven, so a majority of them speak it rather well (Morrison, 1994).

Denmark went through many changes in just the past decade. Television had one public channel with limited viewers. The government realized this was not going well, so their broadcasts began to include outside programming brought in through cable television. This led to more diversity in the networks, and people like diversity on television. This led to commercial television which would bring a national advertising outlet, meaning more money brought in, more stations, more shows, and more interest. Now there are more imported channels coming into Denmark, and the government is helping them. The reason this is working better is because the Danish Government has integrated with these channels from the outside. Commercial channels make more money so the government doesn't care if they are from within the nation or not. The future holds new things for the Danes such as satellite, etc. Danish channels give the people local broadcasting, as well as the commercial channels. The influx of money from the commercial channels allows the government to raise the quality of programming for their public channels, which results in more money for them. They are still trying to get through all of the walls but steady progress is being made. Eventually domestic and international broadcasts will be integrated into one package allowing the viewer more choices and local broadcasts. This is similar to satellite TV in the states holding the local channels, which they did not before.

Denmark is progressing through this converging media age, and it may be a good time to set up a station in this nation. If it is a public station you will hopefully have a high enough quality to succeed. Private stations may have to be brought in by cable, but it seems to be working now. As long as you have the eyes of the Danes, you will be fine. The best idea is to pipe in your channel for now, until the Danish government becomes a bit more liberal with their media laws so that possibly a private or commercial station may flourish within its boundaries.

SPAIN

Stepping away from the Norse countries, we venture into Spain. Spain was a neutral country during World War II but was kind to the Nazi's. Because of this, they were not allowed into the UN until 1955. King Juan Carlos didn't put much emphasis on the military and wanted Spain to stay under civilian rule, but now Spain is a constitutional monarchy. The king is the Chief of State and the legislative power is held by the Cortes (parliament). The head of government is the Prime Minister who is responsible for the Cortes, as well as his deputy and ministers. The official language of Spain is Spanish, but in the northwest, many speak their own languages and dialects so it gets a little more confusing (Morrison, 1994).

Spain has had to overcome many nasty media environments; the old fascist government had a bad attitude toward private broadcasting. They had a strong public system of broadcasting, but it was used primarily for propaganda. Oddly enough it permitted some private broadcasting as long as it was involved with the church, labor organizations, or municipalities. If one of these organizations wanted to broadcast, the government would even reward it for doing this. Eventually the old ideas left Spain and a new democratic government came into place. This allowed them to start bringing in mixed media from the outside and inside. Although it started in the form of radio, television soon followed. Radio was first liberalized because they wanted it to be the official radio of Spain, which allowed the government to control what was broadcast but not to the point of propaganda. This is the model they used for television when it first began. Eventually international media began to come in and this added to the diversity of the country's media as well as more privately owned media networks (Noam, 1991). Spain is making serious headway in the media business. Recently they were primarily putting out propaganda, but now under they realize what a mixed media can do for their society. Spain is a large enough country that if they get enough privately owned and commercial networks and stations, they may not have to rely on those of outside nations as much. This would be great for the Spanish government because they could make a high quality program and maybe even sell it or pipe it in to bordering Portugal or other nations. If they continue to proceed in the manner that they are doing, Spain may very well be resting on a very lucrative untapped media market. Lots of Europe has broadcasts in German, English, and Swedish, but there isn't a Spanish market doing nearly as well as the Norse and Germanic counterparts. It may take a few more decades, but Spain is well on its way to being a great place for station set up.

GREECE

Finally, we come to Greece. The Greeks were said to have been the ones to invent democracy, and with all of the great minds that have come out of that area, who could doubt that. Today though, Greece is a presidential parliamentary republic. The President is elected by

parliament but again the real power is held by the Prime Minister who is the head of government. The official language of Greece is Greek, which is one of the oldest languages (Morrison, 1994).

Greece's form of broadcasting was not the best way of doing things up until 1990. It had one of the oldest ideals of broadcasting, which West Europe had found obsolete many years ago. There were very few public channels and very little cable. When the government finally changed from its traditional society, it did not help out the media convergence. The technological change resulted in five rival broadcast systems. There is now cable in Greece, but it is very sparse. The only way they can receive outside signals is through satellite reception and even that is not good. There are very few broadcast freedoms in this nation. They need to reach out to other nations although this may be difficult because of their geographical location (Noam, 1991).

Possibly Greece will not see any huge movements towards a more positive media experience until they achieve a better understanding of what is needed. They do have the satellite broadcasts, but they should put more money into it. There doesn't seem to be enough people that care about it for anything radical to be done. Greece needs to find itself on the broadcast spectrum before the rest of Europe gets so far ahead they can't catch up.

CONCLUSION

We have examined 12 different European nations and one major problem seemed to keep coming up. The problem seems to be media quality. Obviously the larger nations have it and profit from it greatly, but the smaller nations are unable to compete with this high of quality so they don't do as well. It's not impossible for one of these smaller nations to succeed. Take Belgium for example, they are bringing in commercial, private, and public stations and doing fine. A lot of Belgium's success is based on their primary location but some of it is their liberalized media laws. Laws that restrict the number of private stations so the public station can stay number one hurt the country in the long run. More of these nations should look to allow the support of commercial and privately owned stations. Many believe this will cause too much competition for the public station to withstand, but, I believe, a little competition is what the public stations need. If they continue to broadcast without competition, they will get lazy and not care as much about their quality. Privately owned stations in the area, as well as commercial will keep the public stations always striving to be better. This works out for everyone in the long run because it's quality that counts.

Every country has its limitations; it's just finding ways around these limitations that will make them successful. Greece is in a difficult spot, but there is a solution to their problem. Media convergence is the way of the future, and you can't miss out on an opportunity and expect to maintain a successful country's media. We all live in an age where we have to count on one another to successfully work together, and when you are as close as Europe is, this is a must. Europe is a nation without borders, and they need to begin acting like that. The creation of the Euro has

certainly helped, but maybe someday, there will be a centralized law for media or broadcasting that will liberalize their entire media system so that they all get the programming they need and want.

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CORPORATE REPUTATION MANAGEMENT: CITIBANK'S USE OF IMAGE RESTORATION STRATEGIES DURING THE U.S. BANKING CRISIS

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ABSTRACT

Image management is essential to corporations, particularly during crisis situations. The ongoing financial crisis in the United States has led to the failure of several banking firms. Because systemic economic problems may result from the loss of confidence in the banking system, effective use of crisis management and image restoration strategies by the banking industry is particularly important. This paper discusses the importance of corporate reputation management, illustrates the use of communication theory to analyze corporate responses to crisis, and analyzes Citibank's responses to the company's recent financial crisis using two crisis response frameworks, Coombs' Situational Crisis Communication Theory (2007) and Benoit's Image Restoration Typology (1995). Findings indicate that in general, Citigroup responded to negative events in an effective manner (Coombs, 2007; Benoit, 1995) and in such a way to reduce the damaging effects of the crisis. In many instances, Citi used corrective action strategies, in which management indicated ways to solve problems and to prevent the crisis from happening again.

INTRODUCTION

Image management is essential to corporations and other organizations, particularly in crisis situations. The financial crisis in the United States, which led to the failure of a large number of banking firms, has made firm reputation management extremely important. More stakeholders exist in bank governance than in non-financial types of businesses due to banks' role in promoting the stability of the economy and the liquidity function. Therefore, loss of confidence in the banking system can cause serious, systemic economic problems. The bailout for the financial industry and the financial rescue packages offered to select large U.S. banking firms as part of the Troubled Asset Relief Program (TARP) and the TARP Capital Purchase Program served to appease some concerns of bank customers and stockholders. However, the economic crisis and its aftermath continue to cause much concern for all stakeholders of banking firms.

The first purpose of this paper is to discuss the importance of corporate reputation management when crisis situations threaten the company's image. The second purpose is to

illustrate the use of communication theory to analyze corporate responses to crises. Finally, we use two crisis response frameworks, Coombs' (2007) Situational Crisis Communication Theory (SCCT) and Benoit's (1995) Image Restoration Typology, to analyze Citigroup (Citi) responses to the company's 2008 financial crisis. We also evaluate the effectiveness of Citi's responses using Coombs' SCCT and Benoit and Czerwinski's (1997) framework.

In late November of 2008, Citi's CEO, Vikram Pandit called the company's universal banking model "the right model" and said that its strategy was to be "the world's truly global universal bank" (Read & Lepro, 2009). Days later, the government stepped in with millions of dollars of bailout money to prevent the bank from failing. Citi was criticized for not having a credible management team or a credible board (Dash, 2008). In fact, William Smith of Smith Asset Management said that "the problem with Citi is the model, the execution, the management" (Read & Lepro, 2009). Throughout its financial crisis, Citi faced several situations that threatened its image and necessitated a response.

An analysis of Citi's responses to events precipitated by the U.S. financial crisis using two theoretical frameworks (Coombs, 2007; Benoit, 1995) provides useful information to bank managers, communication professionals, and investors concerning the types of responses firms may offer in response to crisis events and the effectiveness of these responses in maintaining or restoring the firm's reputation following a crisis. Results of the analysis indicate that Citi used bolstering strategies most often to respond to events that threatened its image. When firms use bolstering strategies, they attempt to build their images by telling stakeholders about past and current good works (Coombs, 2007) and they use other forms of puffery to reduce the offensiveness of the crisis (Benoit, 1995). Citi also used corrective action strategies in its responses when the company tried to make amends for the wrong that was committed and took steps to prevent recurrence of the crisis (Coombs, 2007; Benoit, 1995). Stakeholders are most concerned by how the crisis affects them. By using corrective action strategies the company communicates what actions it plans to take to protect stakeholders from future harm. We also find that Citi used effective communication strategies in five of the ten excerpts we analyzed according to Coombs (2007) and Benoit & Czerwinski (1997) frameworks.

CORPORATE CRISIS AND REPUTATION MANAGEMENT

Corporate crisis is defined as an unexpected, nonroutine event that creates uncertainty and threatens an organization's legitimacy (Seeger, et al., 1998). Crises can harm stakeholders (community members, employees, customers, and stockholders) both psychologically and financially (Coombs, 2007).

Crisis situations usually result in negative publicity, which threatens the corporation's image or reputation. A company's reputation develops through the information stakeholders receive about the organization, most of which is derived from the media and from the Internet. Therefore, media coverage is an important feature of reputation management. Corporate reputation is widely

recognized as a valuable, intangible asset which can “attract customers, generate investment interest, improve financial performance, attract top employee talent, increase the return on assets, create a competitive advantage, and garner positive comments from financial analysts” (Coombs, 2007, p. 164).

Corporate communication can be defined as “the process through which stakeholders perceive that the organization’s identity, image, and reputation are formed” (Balmer & Gray, 2003). Corporate communication during a crisis reflects the firm’s strategic management of the situation and is critical in determining how much, if any, damage is done to the firm’s image. Because stakeholders attribute some responsibility to the organization or industry in which the crisis exists, communications must explain the facts of the crisis and provide the feeling that steps are being taken to ensure that the crisis won’t happen again (Fortunato, 2008). By strategically managing the crisis situation through reliable, credible, and transparent communication, a corporation addresses stakeholders’ anxieties, manages its corporate image, and restores its reputation (Geppert & Lawrence, 2008).

CRISIS IN THE BANKING INDUSTRY

The crisis in the banking industry greatly diminished the industry’s reputation and the reputations of the firms experiencing serious financial problems and/or facing failure. Because of the banking industry’s role in maintaining financial and economic stability, it is critical that confidence is maintained through effective response strategies to crises. Also, according to Flyvholm & Isaksson (2008), it is particularly important for firms that specialize in intangible products or services (such as banks) to maintain a positive reputation. Bank customers buy products and services that are associated with financial risk and want to be reassured that the company can be trusted. Michael Sheehan, president of Sheehan Associates, a crisis communications firm in Washington, D.C. observes, “The stakes are higher and lot more personal in banking. Banks have cultivated their customers’ trust and customers expect banks to be responsible entities” (Valentine 2007, p. 39). The strategies banking firms use to communicate their responses to crisis situations are critical to maintaining their reputations.

U.S. Banking Crisis: The Case of Citigroup

Citigroup, one of the largest financial services companies in the United States, suffered huge losses during the financial crisis of 2007 and 2008. From early in the decade until 2007, Citi invested heavily in mortgage-related assets, and by September of 2007, the company owned approximately \$43 billion of these assets. In mid-November of 2007, the market value of Citigroup’s stock was \$180 billion; one year later, on November 21, 2008, its market capitalization was approximately \$20 billion, a loss of nearly 90%. In all, the bank reported about \$20 billion in losses in 2008 (Morcroft, 2008). Citi experienced financial difficulties because of the credit crunch and the write-downs of bad investments and other assets. The company’s problems were also

attributed to a poor economy and lax regulatory oversight, along with the company's lack of an appropriate risk management structure. Citi was criticized for being a large business without a cohesive management strategy. In October of 2008, Citi received \$25 billion as part of a government investment in banks to bolster their balance sheets (Morcroft, 2008). However, this did little to alleviate concerns about the risks remaining on the firm's books. The value of Citi's shares fell 60% during the week of November 17, 2008 (Morcroft, 2008). Because of this, the government decided to try another approach to avoid Citi's collapse and a further loss of confidence in the U.S. financial system.

On November 24, 2008, Citigroup announced in a press release that the company had reached an agreement with the U.S. Treasury, the Federal Reserve Board, and the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) on a series of steps to "strengthen Citi's capital ratios, reduce risk, and increase liquidity" (Citigroup, Press Release, November 24, 2008). The crisis faced by Citigroup in late 2007 and 2008 presented the company's management team with the challenge of maintaining the company's reputation and creating a positive image.

COMMUNICATION THEORY AND CRISIS RESPONSE STRATEGIES

Researchers have developed several image restoration strategies based on social legitimacy theory, which argues that an organization's continued existence is contingent on its ability to receive support or approval from stakeholder audiences. The typologies used in this paper to analyze corporate responses to crisis are Coombs' Situational Crisis Communication Theory (Coombs, 2007) and Benoit's Image Restoration Typology (1995). Kim, et al. (2009, p. 446) state that these two models have "...provided dominant paradigms for crisis communication research." Coombs (2007, p. 163) states "research using SCCT relies on experimental methods rather than case studies." Coombs describes Benoit's typology as "a descriptive system used to analyze crisis cases" and writes that Benoit's model "...offers no conceptual links between the crisis response strategies and elements of the crisis situation" (Coombs, 2007, p. 171). However, Caldiero (2005, p. 4) writes: "Benoit frames his theory in terms of communication and, more specifically, goal achievement. If those goals include not only image repair, but also relationship repair, then Benoit's work can be helpful when assessing public response campaigns." The objectives of this study include comparing the two frameworks and evaluating whether the Benoit and Coombs frameworks are consistent in determining appropriate and effective crisis response strategies.

Coombs' Situational Crisis Communication Theory

Coombs' (2007) framework, Situational Crisis Communication Theory (SCCT), maintains that communication affects people's perceptions in a crisis. When crisis managers use SCCT, they must examine the crisis situation in order to determine the reputational threat level presented by the crisis. The three factors that shape reputational threat are 1) initial crisis responsibility or how

much stakeholders believe organizational actions caused the crisis, 2) crisis history, which is whether or not an organization has had a similar crisis in the past, and 3) prior relational reputation, or how well or poorly an organization has been perceived to treat stakeholders in the past. A positive corporate reputation can insulate a firm against negative crisis events (Carroll, 2009), but either a history of crises or unfavorable prior relational reputation can intensify the attribution of crisis to the company. These factors allow managers to anticipate how stakeholders will perceive and react to the organization and to the crisis itself.

Coombs also defines three crisis clusters based on attributions of crisis responsibility: 1) victim cluster, where there is very weak attribution of crisis responsibility and the organization is viewed as a victim; 2) accidental cluster, where there is minimal attribution of crisis responsibility and the event is considered unintentional or uncontrollable by the organization; 3) intentional (preventable) cluster, where there is very strong attribution of crisis responsibility and the event is considered purposeful.

According to SCCT, the first priority in a crisis situation is to protect stakeholders. A strategy for helping stakeholders cope with the crisis is adjusting (adapting information). Once this step takes place, the company can begin to attempt to restore its image by using crisis response strategies including: 1) deny, 2) diminish, and 3) rebuild. Table 1 below contains details of these crisis response strategies.

In order for a deny strategy to be effective, stakeholders must accept the response. If this is the case, the organization will experience no reputational harm. If an organization uses a diminish strategy, management must have solid, credible evidence to support its response in order to minimize damage to the organization's reputation. Rebuild strategies focus on offsetting negative consequences of a crisis by stressing current and past good works of the organization. Adjusting information (expressing concern for victims) and rebuild strategies are the most effective ways to reduce the negative effect of the crisis. Coombs recommends that bolstering strategies should only be used as supplements to the primary strategies.

Benoit's Image Restoration Typology

Benoit's (1995) theory of image restoration has been used extensively to analyze firm responses to crisis situations (Benoit, 1995; Benoit & Brinson, 1994; Benoit & Czerwinski, 1997; Brinson & Benoit, 1999). According to Benoit & Czerwinski (1997) threats to corporate image have two components: 1) the accused is held responsible for an act and 2) the act is portrayed as offensive.

Benoit's typology provides strategies for addressing issues of responsibility and reducing the perceived offensiveness of the crisis and includes five image restoration strategies: 1) denial, or refuting that the company had any part in the crisis, 2) evasion of responsibility, where the firm attributes the crisis to actions of another party, 3) reducing the offensiveness of the act, in which the firm tries to make the crisis seem less threatening, 4) corrective action occurs when the firm

implements steps to solve the problem and prevent a repeat of the crisis, and 5) mortification, where the firm takes responsibility for the crisis and apologizes. Table 2 provides a detailed summary of Benoit's five categories which include 14 communication strategies.

Table 1: Coombs (2007) Situational Crisis Communication Theory		
Category	Strategy	Subdimension
<i>Initial Strategies</i>		
Adjust information	1. Corrective action 2. Express concern for victim	1. What is being done to protect from future crises 2. Expected by stakeholders, but not admission of guilt
<i>Primary Strategies</i>		
Deny	3. Attack the accuser 4. Denial 5. Scapegoat	3. Confronting the person or group claiming something is wrong with the organization 4. Asserting that there is no crisis 5. Blaming person or group outside the organization for the crisis
Diminish	6. Excuse 7. Justification	6. Minimizing responsibility by denying intent to do harm and/or claiming inability to control the events that triggered the crisis 7. Minimizing the perceived damage caused by the crisis
Rebuild	8. Compensation 9. Apology	8. Offering money or other gifts to victims 9. Indicating the organization takes full responsibility and asks for forgiveness
<i>Secondary Strategies</i>		
Bolstering	10. Reminder 11. Ingratiation 12. Victimage	10. Telling stakeholders about past and current good works of the organization 11. Praising stakeholders and/or reminding them of past and current good works by the organization 12. Reminding stakeholders that the organization is a victim too
Source: Coombs, 2007		

Denial can come in two forms, one of which is simple denial, which is an outright refutation that the organization had any part in the crisis or was responsible in any way. The other type of denial is shifting the blame (also called victimage), or asserting that someone (or something) else is responsible for the problem. Denial is the best strategy if the firm is truly blameless. If the firm uses a denial strategy and later is found to have blame in the crisis, its reputation can be irreparably damaged. If denial is not an appropriate strategy, the organization can choose to evade

responsibility by using one or more of four evasion of responsibility strategies. The first is scapegoating, which involves blaming the crisis on the provocation of another. Other evasion strategies include 1) defeasibility, in which the organization states it did not know what to do or lacked the ability to act properly, 2) claiming the crisis was accidental or, 3) maintaining that the organization had good intentions and therefore should be exonerated. Effective use of evasion strategies will reduce reputational damage to the organization.

If a company cannot evade a responsibility that clearly exists, the company can reduce the offensiveness of the act, which can include image bolstering (puffery), minimization (the crisis is not very bad), differentiation (this crisis was different from more offensive crises), transcendence (the good we do as an organization far outweighs the damage done by this one crisis), reducing the credibility of the accuser (also called counter attack), and victim compensation. Reduce the offensiveness strategies can also minimize the damage to the organization's reputation if used appropriately.

Table 2: Benoit's (1995) Image Restoration Typology

Category	Strategy	Subdimension
Denial	1. Simple denial	1. Refuting outright that the organization had any part in the event
	2. Shifting the blame	2. Asserting that someone else is responsible
Evasion of responsibility	3. Scapegoating	3. Blaming the event on the provocation of another
	4. Defeasibility	4. Not knowing what to do; lacking knowledge to act properly
	5. Accident	5. Claiming the event was "accidental"
	6. Good intentions	6. Claiming the company had good intentions
Reducing the offensive act	7. Image bolstering	7. Using puffery to build image
	8. Minimization	8. Stating the crisis is not bad
	9. Differentiation	9. Indicating that this crisis is different from more offensive crises
	10. Transcendence	10. Asserting good acts far outweigh the damage of this one crisis
	11. Reducing the credibility	11. Maintaining the accuser lacks credibility
	12. Compensation	12. Paying the victim; making restitution to set things to where they were before the event
Taking corrective action	13. Corrective action	13. Taking measures to prevent event from reoccurring
Mortification	14. Mortification	14. Admitting guilt and apologizing

Source: Benoit, 1995; Erickson, et al., 2010

Corrective action is Benoit's (1995, 1997) fourth strategy in which the organization tries to make amends for the wrong that was committed and takes measures to prevent the event from reoccurring. Corrective action is the most viable strategy because the firm addresses the source of the problem, explains how changes will eliminate future occurrences of the problem, and implements a remediation plan. When corrective action is used, management accepts its responsibility to eliminate problems before they can result in a crisis. The final strategy proposed by Benoit is mortification, in which the organization admits it was at fault and apologizes to the victims.

Crisis communication literature typically focuses on what corporations do after a crisis. Image restoration models also provide firms with options available within messages to appropriately respond to crisis situations. In other words, "...the defense of a corporation's image must match the attack" (Benoit & Czerwinski, 1997, p. 45). In order to evaluate the effectiveness of a response or defense, Benoit & Czerwinski (1997) suggest a framework that consists of three questions. First, did the company select strategies appropriate to the crisis? The second question is did the spokesperson embed strategies appropriate to the discourse? Even if the chosen strategy was appropriate, the way the message is conveyed may not be. Finally, was the response persuasive?

Discussion of the Coombs (2007) and Benoit (1995) theories leads to the following research questions:

- RQ1: What communication strategies did Citigroup use to respond to crisis events according to Coombs SCCT (2007) and Benoit Image Restoration Typology (1995) frameworks?*
- RQ 2: Did Citi effectively use these communication strategies in response to these crisis events to maintain or restore its image according to Coombs SCCT (2007) and the Benoit and Czerwinski (1997) framework?*
- RQ3: Is the assessment of the effectiveness of communication strategies consistent between the Coombs (2007) and Benoit & Czerwinski (1997) frameworks?*

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In the following section we analyze Citigroup's responses to its financial crisis. We use a critical analysis method to study communication strategies employed by Citigroup and its management to attempt to repair its tarnished image. According to Fairclough (2003), critical analysis generally proceeds from the description and analysis of what happens in a text (or other communication) to an interpretation and explanation of these findings in relation to the context in

which the communication occurs. Adolphus (n.d.) indicates that discourse analysis in qualitative research has become more popular in recent years and is used in a wide range of fields.

We evaluate excerpts from media stories, press releases, and advertisements and we carefully examine the language used by the company to respond to negative events. A variety of types of texts have been evaluated using critical analysis, including speeches, advertising, newspaper articles, and public relations announcements (Benoit, 2006; Benoit & Czerwinski, 1997; Benoit & Henson, 2009; Blaney, et al., 2002; Coombs, 1995; Hearit, 1995; Seeger, et al. 2003).

The following section contains excerpts from articles in the *New York Times*, the *Wall Street Journal*, *Business Week*, *Market Watch*, and *MSNBC*. Excerpts were analyzed using Coombs (2007) and Benoit (1995) typologies. Citi's response strategies were also evaluated to assess their appropriateness and effectiveness according to Coombs' (2007) factors that shape reputational threat and Benoit & Czerwinski's (1997) framework for determining response effectiveness.

EXAMPLES OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES—CITIGROUP

The next section contains excerpts from press releases and other documents that detail events leading up to and including the government bailout for Citigroup. These excerpts are grouped according to the stage of crisis the company faced. We analyze each excerpt according to type of response strategy (Coombs, 2007; Benoit, 1995) and the effectiveness of the strategy given the Coombs' (2007) and Benoit & Czerwinski's (1997) frameworks.

Factors Influencing Reputational Threat

Before we can analyze Citigroup's responses according to Coombs' (2007) SCCT, we must determine the factors that shape the reputational threat. The first factor is initial crisis responsibility, or how much stakeholders believe organizational actions caused the crisis. In many crisis situations, it may be relatively straightforward to determine the attribution of crisis responsibility using Coombs' clusters (victim, accidental, or preventable). However in Citi's case, this attribution is more difficult because the Citi crisis was part of the larger banking/financial crisis in the U.S. So, crisis attribution to the company is partially related to attribution to the industry. In the case of Citi, the reputational threat based on attribution of crisis responsibility is minimal to high depending on the stage of the crisis. During the early stage of the crisis, the reputational threat was relatively mild because at least some of Citi's problems were associated with the U.S. banking crisis and weak regulatory oversight. Coombs classifies this as malevolence (victim cluster), where external agents (in this case the economy and regulators) cause damage. As the crisis unfolded, the reputational threat became moderate (accidental cluster) to severe (preventable cluster) when stakeholders began to see that the company had been engaged in risky activities and was guilty of lax risk management policies, which led to higher attribution later in the crisis period.

The second factor that shapes reputational threat is crisis history, or if the organization has experienced similar crises in the past. Though Citi had not experienced a crisis of this magnitude in the past, the company had carried out financial dealings with Enron, was involved in several lawsuits involving misleading information and inadequate disclosures in its securities dealings, and was sanctioned by the Federal Reserve for its non-cohesive corporate structure and inappropriate risk management activities (Dash & Creswell, 2008). This history provides a minimal to moderate reputational threat. Finally, in terms of prior relational reputation, Citi's reputational threat was neutral to positive according to Coombs (2007). Citi enjoyed a reputation of high earnings and strong stock price prior to the financial crisis.

Early Crisis Excerpts

Early crisis excerpts begin in 2005 and end early in 2008 before Citi's problems began to be widely reported in the media. Table 3 provides a comparison between Coombs (2007) and Benoit (1995) strategies and a discussion of the effectiveness of the strategies according to Coombs (2007) and Benoit & Czerwinski (1997).

Excerpt 1

In December 2005, when Citi first began creating CDOs (collateralized debt obligations), then CEO Charles O. Prince, III assured analysts that "Anything based on human endeavor and certainly any business that involves risk-taking, you're going to have problems from time to time...we will run our business in a way where our credibility and our reputation as an institution with the public and with our regulators will be an asset of the company and not a liability" (Dash & Creswell, 2008).

Excerpt 2

In late summer 2007, after credit markets began to tighten up and values of Citi's Collateralized Debt Obligations (CDOs) began to plummet, Citigroup held a meeting to review its risk exposure. In this meeting, risk managers claimed that the mortgage-related securities held by Citigroup were "viewed by the rating agencies to have an extremely low probability of default (less than 0.01%)" (Dash & Creswell, 2008). At the same time, a Citi risk manager was quoted as saying that the bank "would never lose a penny" (Dash & Creswell, 2008).

Excerpt 3

Early in 2008, Federal Reserve examiners provided a review of the company's risk management practices that was extremely critical of its policies and procedures. In response, Citi

overhauled its risk management function by improving oversight and adding new risk managers. Citi's new chief risk officer indicated that he wanted to ensure "that Citi takes the lessons learned from recent events and makes critical enhancements to its risk management frameworks. A change in culture is required at Citi" (Dash & Creswell, 2008).

Table 3: Analysis of Early Crisis Response Strategies			
Excerpt	Response	Coombs Strategy	Benoit Strategy
1	Diminish importance of risk associated with CDOs.	Diminish--Justification	Reduce Offensiveness--Minimization
1	The company will manage risk appropriately to maintain its reputation.	Bolstering--Reminder	Reduce Offensiveness--Image bolstering
2	No crisis because the probability of default on the CDOs was very minimal.	Deny--Denial	Denial--Denial Reducing Offensiveness--Minimization
2	The bank will not lose any money.	Deny--Denial	Denial--Denial
3	Company admits that its risk management practices were not effective and takes action to correct the problem and to prevent it from reoccurring.	Adjusting information-- Corrective action	Corrective action
Excerpt	Overall Effectiveness		
1	Coombs: No, given the low attribution of crisis at this stage, there is no need for the use of a diminish strategy (justification). Bolster is effective when used to build on a positive relationship with shareholders. Benoit: No, the choice of minimization and bolstering strategies is appropriate if there is a true crisis, but at this stage, there is no need for minimization or bolstering if a true crisis doesn't exist. The company did not address the fundamental problems with undertaking high risk activities.		
2	Coombs: Yes, deny strategies are appropriate during a low attribution stage like this, the company tried to distance itself from the crisis (still in the victim cluster). If stakeholders accept the response, the company will not suffer reputational harm. Benoit: No, the choice of denial and minimization strategies is appropriate, but the statements made were not well-informed, credible, or persuasive. The statements made were very strong and are only effective if the firm is truly blameless.		
3	Coombs: Yes, the accommodative nature of the response is effective given the higher level of attribution after Fed admonishment. Citi moved to the accidental or preventable cluster at this point. Citi provides information concerning what is being done to prevent future risk management problems. Benoit: Yes, the company admits its policies are not appropriate and takes persuasive and believable corrective action to remedy the problem.		

Crisis Excerpts

This section contains excerpts from November, 2008, when Citi's problems were the most severe and the threat to its reputation was very high. The company was in a position to lay off

workers and several members of its management team were being criticized in the media. Table 4 provides a comparison between Coombs (2007) and Benoit (1995) strategies and a discussion of the effectiveness of the strategies according to Coombs (2007) and Benoit & Czerwinski (1997).

Excerpt 4

On November 11, 2008 Citi announced a series of initiatives to help at-risk borrowers remain current on their payments and to stay in their homes. When addressing the initiatives, Sanjiv Das, CEO of Citimortgage said, “In today’s economic environment, Citi continues to build on its long-standing efforts to develop new ways to help our customers remain in their homes. Since the beginning of 2007, these efforts have helped approximately 370,000 homeowners we service avoid foreclosure on their homes. Under our new Citi Homeowners Assistance program we will preemptively reach out to help homeowners before they become delinquent, which is critical to avoiding the loss of a home and protecting their credit score and future borrowing potential” (Citigroup, Press Release, November 11, 2008).

Excerpt 5

On November 14, 2008 an article on wsj.com stated that Citibank planned to cut 10,000 jobs. An internal memo to Citi employees from the Citi Board of Directors quoted in the article says that “The Board of Directors and management are operating as one team completely aligned on critical issues, opportunities, and the direction of the company....We are confident that the direction our management team has set is the right direction—and the winning direction—for these extraordinary times. Citi is well positioned for growth because of its unique global universal bank model, and because it has the right talent, the right management, and the right approach.” The memo ended with the statement “Keep the faith!” (wsj.com, November 14, 2008).

Excerpt 6

In the same memo, the board defends its Chairman, Win Bischoff (after much speculation in the media that Mr. Bischoff would be replaced) by saying “It is important for us to communicate with you (employees) directly in light of recent media coverage of our company. The news coverage about the Chairman of our Board...is irresponsible and completely inaccurate and we want you to understand and appreciate our perspective on it.” (wsj.com, November 14, 2008).

Excerpt 7

A New York Times article on November 23, 2008 reported that Citigroup analysts and insiders said that top management played important roles in the bank’s problems by “drafting and

blissing a strategy that involved taking greater trading risks to expand its business and reap higher profits.” Management declined comment. Paul Rubin, Chair of the Executive Committee, was asked whether he had made any mistakes at Citigroup. In response Rubin said, “I’ve thought a lot about that. I honestly don’t know. In hindsight, there are a lot of things we’d do differently. But in the context of the facts as I knew them and my role, I’m inclined to think probably not... There is no way you would know what was going on with the risk book unless you’re directly involved with the trading arena. We had highly experienced, highly qualified people running the operation” (Dash & Creswell, 2008).

Excerpt	Response	Coombs Strategy	Benoit Strategy
4	Citi wants to build on long-standing efforts to develop new ways to help customers.	Bolster--Reminder	Reduce Offensiveness--Image bolstering
4	Citi will reach out to customers before they become delinquent.	Adjusting information--Express concern for victim	Corrective Action
4	Blaming the economic environment for the crisis.	Deny--Scapegoat	Denial--Shift blame
4	The initiatives offer ways for customers to return to pre-crisis status.	Rebuild--Compensation	Corrective Action
5	Citi states it has the right talent, the right management, and the right approach.	Bolstering--Reminder	Reduce Offensiveness--Image bolstering
5	Company insinuates that its good acts outweigh the damage of the crisis.	Bolstering--Reminder	Reduce Offensiveness--Transcendence
6	Calling the media irresponsible and inaccurate.	Deny--Attack the accuser	Reduce Offensiveness--Reduce credibility
6	Expressing concern for employees.	Adjusting information--Express concern for victims	Reduce Offensiveness--Image bolstering
7	Mr. Rubin indicates that he lacked the information to act properly.	Diminish--Excuse	Evasion of Responsibility--Defeasibility
7	Mr. Rubin speaks of the highly experienced, qualified people running the operation and insinuates that, because these people were in charge, there was no reason to question what they were doing.	Bolstering--Reminder	Reducing Offensiveness--Image bolstering
Excerpt	Overall Effectiveness		
4	Coombs: Yes, the strategies are appropriate for higher attribution of crisis and bolster strategies are effective during the accidental cluster. As strategies become more accommodative stakeholders perceive the organization as taking greater responsibility for the crisis. Benoit: Yes, the company takes action to correct its problems and uses bolstering and denial strategies to reinforce the corrective action, a combination of strategies called separation, a type of corrective action response. The company sends a persuasive message that it is making amends for its ineffective policies.		

Excerpt	Response	Coombs Strategy	Benoit Strategy
5	Coombs: No, a bolster strategy is appropriate in high attribution situations, but should be used in combination with other strategies. The company should have expressed concern for its employees and offered an apology (rebuild strategy) given the high level of attribution. Benoit: No, the use of reduce offensiveness strategies is appropriate, but this was not embedded correctly because it targeted the wrong audience. A more effective strategy when a firm intends to lay off a large number of workers would be one of compensation (reducing offensiveness) and/or mortification.		
6	Coombs: No, the company expressed some concern for employees, but attacking the accuser (media) is not appropriate in a higher attribution stage. Alienating the media could possibly affect future media coverage. The spokesperson expressed concern for employees (adjusting information), which is inconsistent with the deny strategy. Benoit: No, attacking the accuser is only appropriate if the company is blameless, which is not true in this case. The expression of concern for employees was used to protect Mr. Bischoff. It is dangerous to question the credibility of the media in order to bolster the image of the company and/or its management.		
7	Coombs: No, with high crisis attribution (preventable cluster), diminish strategies are not appropriate. Bolster strategies can build on stakeholder goodwill but have a minimal effect on reputation. Lack of comment may lead stakeholders to think the company is not being truthful. Benoit: No, the combination of responses, including refusing to comment when asked about poor management strategies, is not effective in managing the company's image. The inconsistent message is not appropriate, nor does the spokesperson relay the message persuasively.		

Excerpts after Agreement with Government

On November 24, 2008, the company reached an agreement with the U.S. Treasury, the Federal Reserve Board, and the FDIC on a bailout package that would recapitalize the bank and prepare the company to compete in the years ahead. Table 5 provides a comparison between Coombs (2007) and Benoit (1995) strategies and a discussion of the effectiveness of the strategies according to Coombs (2007) and Benoit & Czerwinski (1997).

Excerpt 8

In response to the agreement with the Treasury, Fed, and FDIC, Vikram Pandit, Citi CEO, said "We are committed to streamlining our business and providing outstanding banking services to our clients around the world. We will continue to focus on opportunities and alternatives to further enhance the company's overall position and value." (Citigroup, Press Release, November 24, 2008).

Excerpt 9

In an internal memo, sent out on November 24, 2008, the morning after the agreement with regulators was reached; CEO Pandit said he appreciated how hard the speculation about Citi's fate

had been on “clients, colleagues, business partners, and shareholders. Despite these challenges, all of you have distinguished yourselves in staying focused on serving clients... Citi is America’s bank around the world and our strength is viewed as an integral part of the overall strength of the U.S. financial system. Tonight, we’ve taken an important step to dramatically reduce our future risk exposure and eliminate the lingering doubt in the market about Citi’s financial strength... This is an innovative, market-based solution that allows us to purchase insurance from the Fed to limit future risk” (Hovanesian, 2008).

Excerpt 10

In November of 2008, Citi began a series of newspaper ads in major metropolitan markets designed to tell its customers that its business was fundamentally sound. The ad in the *New York Times* on Sunday, November 23 said “This year, our financial markets have been tested in unprecedented ways. And though the global landscape has become increasingly complex, one thing has remained consistent: Citi’s commitment to helping our clients and customers find solutions that will drive their financial success. That’s why we’re diversified across a broad range of markets and businesses in over 100 countries. Why we’re streamlining our operations. And why we’re using our global presence, knowledge, and expertise, along with almost 200 years of experience, to rise to the challenges and take advantage of new opportunities. That’s why 200 million people around the globe have put their trust in Citi to take control and secure their futures. And why we’re offering them solutions like risk-free savings products, unparalleled financial guidance, credit cards that give you cash back and the Citi Homeowner Assistance Plan that’ll enable half a million Americans to make their payments and stay in their homes. That’s why now, more than ever, you can feel confident that Citi never sleeps” (Citi speaks..., 2008).

Excerpt	Response	Coombs Strategy	Benoit Strategy
8	The company is taking action to enhance the company’s value.	Adjusting information—Corrective action	Corrective action
8	Citi continues to focus on alternatives and opportunities.	Bolstering--Reminder	Reducing Offensiveness--Image bolstering
9	The company has taken action to improve future performance.	Adjusting information—Corrective action	Corrective action
9	Spokesperson stresses the role of Citi in the global economy and its integral part of the U.S. financial system.	Bolstering--Reminder	Reducing Offensiveness—Image bolstering
9	The company realizes how difficult the crisis has been for stakeholders.	Adjust information--Express concern for victims	N/A

Excerpt	Response	Coombs Strategy	Benoit Strategy
9	Employees have distinguished themselves with their focus on serving customers.	Rebuild--Ingratiation	N/A
10	The global landscape has become increasingly complex.	Deny--Scapegoat	Evasion of Responsibility--Scapegoating
10	Citi's commitment to helping clients and customers find solutions that will drive their financial success, company refers to 200 years of experience.	Bolstering—Reminder	Reducing Offensiveness--Image bolstering
10	The company has diversified and streamlined operations.	Adjusting information—Corrective action	Corrective action
10	Offer new products, services and Homeowner Assistance Plan.	Rebuild--compensation	Corrective action
Excerpt	Overall Effectiveness		
8	Coombs: Yes, Mr. Pandit presents a positive image of the company and reminds stakeholders of past efforts to enhance firm value. The company used effective strategies to reduce attribution and improve relational reputation. Benoit: Yes, the company clearly takes action to move on after the bailout. Mr. Pandit communicates the company's plans to continue its focus on enhancing the company's position in the global economy. The communication is appropriate, well stated, and persuasive.		
9	Coombs: Yes, Mr. Pandit assures internal stakeholders that the company is strong and thanks them for their focus on clients. He also indicates that the company has taken steps to reduce future risk exposure. The communication reduces attribution of crisis responsibility and effectively communicates the company's concern for stakeholders Benoit: Yes, the communication reinforces the previous communication and persuasively reassures employees that the company is focusing on their well-being and that the company will continue to be viable in the future.		
10	Coombs: Yes, the company effectively uses a combination of bolster and rebuild strategies. Rebuild strategies are best used for crises that present severe reputational threat. The scapegoat strategy is not appropriate in the high attribution stage, but overall the communication is effective. The firm indicates it has taken steps to repair its image. Benoit: Yes, the ad uses appropriate, well-framed strategies to rebuild the company's reputation and to indicate to stakeholders that the company is taking action to prevent future crisis. It is persuasive in its message of commitment to customers.		

Summary of Analysis of Response Strategies and Effectiveness

We analyzed ten excerpts from media stories, press releases, and advertisements for the period 2005-2008 that illustrate Citi's use of communication strategies in response to the financial crisis.

In response to RQ 1: *What communication strategies did Citigroup use to respond to crisis events according to Coombs (2007) and Benoit (1995) typologies*, we find that Citi used bolstering strategies most often to respond to events that threatened its image. Bolstering was used most extensively during the crisis period and immediately following the government bailout. When firms use bolstering strategies, they attempt to build their images by telling stakeholders about past

and current good works (Coombs, 2007) and use other forms of puffery to reduce the offensiveness of the crisis (Benoit, 1995). These bolstering strategies were used most often in combination with other strategies, which is consistent with results of Kim, et al. (2009). Citi began using corrective action strategies following criticism from the Federal Reserve concerning its risk management policies and processes (Excerpt 3). Citi used corrective action strategies in its responses where the company tried to make amends for the wrong that was committed and took steps to prevent recurrence of the event (Coombs, 2007 and Benoit, 1995). Stakeholders are most concerned by how the crisis affects them and by using corrective action strategies the company communicates what actions it takes to protect stakeholders from future harm. Dardis and Haigh (2009) indicate that there is no need for companies to employ overly accommodative strategies; those that are slightly less accommodative are just as effective and are often less costly. It is best if the company admits fault, but focuses on reducing the severity of the crisis. Citi's responses were consistent with this notion and relied on relational reputation to maintain the company's image. Table 6 provides a summary of the company's responses according to Coombs and Benoit models.

Coombs Category	Number of responses	Benoit's Category	Number of Responses
Adjust Information	7	Denial	3
Deny	5	Reduce Offensiveness of the Act	12
Diminish	2	Evasion of Responsibility	2
Rebuild	3	Corrective Action	6
Bolster	8	Mortification	0

In response to RQ 2: *Did Citi effectively use these communication strategies in response to these crisis events to maintain or restore its image* according to Coombs SCCT (2007) and the Benoit and Czerwinski framework (1997) we find that application of Coombs' SCCT indicates that five of the ten Citi communications were effective given the attribution of crisis responsibility and the stage of the crisis (cluster) at the time of the communication. In three of the five ineffective communications, Citi used strategies that were inappropriate to the crisis attribution and in the other two the company used ineffective combinations of strategies. For example, when attribution of the crisis was high, Citi did not express much concern for its employees and offer an apology, it instead attacked the media for their reporting of the crisis.

Results of the analysis using Benoit's Image Restoration Typology indicate that five of the ten communications were effective. Three ineffective responses contained appropriate strategies, but the strategies were used incorrectly or were not communicated properly. Citi used incorrect

responses in the other two ineffective communications. In one instance, the company spokesperson refused to comment on management strategies, which tends to alienate those receiving the message.

In response to RQ 3: *Is the assessment of the effectiveness of communication strategies consistent between the Coombs (2007) and Benoit & Czerwinski (1997) frameworks*, we find that the overall effectiveness of the strategies was consistent between the models. An exception is Excerpt 2, where the use of deny strategies was effective according to Coombs because there was low attribution of crisis and the company tried to distance itself from the crisis. However, this type of strategy was not effective using the Benoit and Czerwinski framework because the statements were not well-informed or credible. Also, there were some differences in individual responses within the communications. For example, in Excerpt 10, Citi used a scapegoating strategy when it placed responsibility for Citi's problems on the complex economic environment. According to Coombs, a deny strategy is inappropriate in a high attribution crisis stage and that using deny strategies in combination with either diminish or rebuild strategies reduces the effectiveness of the response. In Benoit's framework, scapegoating is an evasion of responsibility strategy that is used correctly in the advertisement and is stated in an appropriate and persuasive manner.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUMMARY

This paper illustrates the use of communication theory and image restoration strategies by a bank facing a crisis situation. When a crisis occurs, the firm's reputation can be adversely affected. Corporate responses to these situations are critical in determining what, if any, permanent damage is done to the firm's image. Crisis management and response are particularly important in the banking industry because of the large number of bank failures and the deteriorating state of the financial industry. It is critical that banking firms use effective strategies to respond to these crisis situations because of the banking industry's role in maintaining financial and economic stability. Analysis of Citibank's responses to the banking crisis using Coombs (2007) and Benoit (1995) frameworks provides guidelines for banks concerning appropriate and effective crisis communication strategies to use during different stages of a crisis.

One limitation of this study is that a single bank, Citi, was the basis for analyzing responses to the banking crisis; however, as Carroll (2009, p. 67) writes, "Newer case studies need to be researched, so that a deeper understanding of the dynamics and nuances of communicating during a crisis can be obtained." Another possible limitation is that financial crises may cry for different strategies than other types of crises that, for example, result in physical harm to others. Again, further case studies of financial crises will undoubtedly address this possible limitation. In addition, other crisis communication models such as Huang & Su (2008) could be used to analyze the effectiveness of crisis communication.

Future research could extend the comparison between Coombs (2007) and Benoit (1995) to analyze other banks that faced similar crises during this same time period to determine if those

organizations used similar strategies and whether the firms were successful in their image restoration attempts. In addition, a study of the various sectors of the banking industry could provide information concerning the communication strategies those organizations used to repair a tarnished image. For example, all image restoration strategies that bank regulators used to answer media questions could be analyzed to determine if the same patterns emerged. Also, other types of organizations and industries could be studied to determine if the communication patterns are different than those of the banking industry.

A study of bank industry and government (regulator) reputations and their responses to their roles in the banking crisis, could provide an interesting complement to studies of individual firms. Winn, et al. (2008, pp. 36-37) define industry reputation as “the collective judgments of an industry by stakeholders and the general public, where the judgment is based on assessments of the economic, social and environmental impacts attributed to that industry over time.” An industry can undergo collective reputation management, which refers to “all activities and behavior undertaken by members of the collective to deliberately alter judgments about the reputation of the collective” (Winn, et al., 2008, p. 37). Regulators (the government) play a role in industry reputation management by attempting to allay stockholder concerns about the viability of the banking industry and the financial system (Winn, et al., 2008).

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ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, FORMAL REWARD STRUCTURE, AND EFFECTIVE STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

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ABSTRACT

An organization's culture can vary from weak to strong depending on the degree to which it is accepted by and influences individual behavior. Similarly, the degree to which the organization's culture is congruent with the organization's formal reward structure may range from low to high. This paper presents a model addressing the interaction of these two variables and how their interaction might impact effective strategy implementation. Research propositions are presented regarding the static aspects of the model and suggestions for practicing managers are presented drawn from the dynamic aspects of the model.

INTRODUCTION

The increasingly competitive and complex global environment poses increasing challenges to organizations today (Dimitriadis, 2005; Lopez, Peon & Ordas, 2004; Raymond, 2003). Because of the downturn in the global economy, traditional rewards such as merit pay, bonuses, and promotions are increasingly in short supply in most organizations. Therefore, organizations might want to consider other things, such as organizational culture, as a means to help them achieve their goals and effectively implement their strategies (Barger, (Barger, 2007).

In order to develop goals and objectives consistent with environmental opportunities and threats, many organizations are devoting an increasing amount of resources to environmental scanning and to the strategic planning process. While many organizations have struggled with the strategic planning process, many others have encountered problems when members of the organization do not support the organization's new goals, objectives, or strategy resulting from the planning process. Kerr and Slocum (1987) identified organizational culture and formal rewards as two key aspects of organizations that encourage and drive members of the organization towards accepting (or rejecting) a new strategy thereby achieving (or failing to achieve) the newly developed organizational goals and objectives.

Once the strategic planning process has created new goals, objectives, and/or strategy for the organization, the traditional approach has been for management to realign policies on raises,

promotions, awards programs, and sanctions (Benhalm, 1999; Holbeche, 2009; Kerr & Slocum, 1987). This realignment is usually developed in the human resources department and is often viewed as an essential component of changing the behavior of the organization's members. However, new policies per se are seldom sufficient to change employee behavior because the primary determinant of employee behavior has been shown to be organizational culture (Bushman & Fowler, 1987; Bushardt, Lambert & Duhon, 2007; Cummings, 1984; Lorsch, 1985; Schwartz & Davis, 1981). While top management can control the organization's formal reward structure, it can only influence organizational culture.

Therefore, given this background, the purpose of this article is to examine the role of the organizational culture/formal reward structure congruence when examined in the light of its interaction with the strength of the organizational culture. In particular, we provide a model showing how this interaction impacts on the effectiveness of organizations achieving their strategic goals and suggest that a high level of organizational culture/formal reward structure congruence results in a more effective strategy implementation than a strong organizational culture alone. Research propositions developed from the model are also presented and the dynamic aspects of the model are discussed to demonstrate how practicing managers may apply the model to achieve desired strategy implementation.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

In cognitive terms, organizational culture is often broadly defined as the shared values, beliefs, ideologies, and norms held by organizational members that influence their behavior (McKenna, 1992; Sackmann, 1991; Schein, 1992; Schultz, 1995). In behavioral terms, organizational culture can be defined simply as a set of contingencies of reinforcement applicable to members of an organization who share a common knowledge (Skinner, 1971). Organizational learning is defined as the addition to or change of the shared common knowledge of the organization's culture.

"The culture continuously monitors behavior and offers timely rewards through the members of the organization who mete out rewards and sanctions" (Bushman & Fowler, 1987, pp. 33-34). Arvey and Ivancevich (1980) found that, in most organizations, future rewards tend to be administered to members of a culture on a variable ratio reinforcement schedule while sanctions tend to be administered on a continuous reinforcement (fixed interval or avoidance learning) schedule. It is the difference in these two schedules that tends to give power to organizational culture over formal reward structure.

Organizational learning may be defined as the addition to or change of the shared common knowledge of the organization's culture. Skinner (1957, 1969) defined knowledge as an awareness of the contingencies of reinforcement by members of an organization. This knowledge may assume basically two forms, private and public knowledge. Private knowledge is gained by the individual through direct experience with the contingencies of reinforcement (Skinner, 1957). The use of

private knowledge has been well documented (Ferster & Skinner, 1957) but efforts to apply research findings about it within organizations have met with limited success (Reppucci & Saunders, 1974; Yukl, Luthans & Pursell, 1976; Yukl & Luthans, 1975; Yukl, Wexley & Seymore, 1972). The use of private knowledge as a means of organizational change has suffered from a primary limitation – it seems to lack the capacity to shape the behaviors of large groups of people. The response of behavior analysts has been to seek a clearer understanding of rule-governed behavior, the substance of public knowledge (Hayes, 1987; Lowe, Beasty & Bentall, 1983).

Public knowledge takes the form of rules that are gleaned from the contingencies of reinforcement. The rules specify the occasions, responses, and consequences of a behavior. Members of an organization talk to others and are changed by (learn from) these interactions (Hayes, 1987; Hayes, Brownstein, Zettle, Rosenfarb & Korn, 1986; Skinner, 1957). In essence, public knowledge means individuals need not experience the contingencies of reinforcement directly but may have their behavior shaped by various rules that govern behaviors.

An example that illustrates the two types of knowledge (private and public) can be seen in an individual attempting to install an air compressor in a garage. He may ultimately complete the installation successfully without instructions through trial and error, or even dumb luck. Without instructions, through trial and error, or even dumb luck, he may ultimately complete the installation successfully. His next installation will take less time because he has learned through experience those behaviors that are rewarded (successful) and those that are not. The acquisition of private knowledge could be deemed “flying by the seat of one's pants.” On the other hand, if the novice installer had elected to utilize the instructions provided with the air compressor, which detailed the installation process, he would be relying on the knowledge of the design engineers whose previous experiences with the contingencies of reinforcement developed the appropriate steps for successful installation. The novice installer would be relying on public knowledge when using the instruction sheet.

CULTURAL STRENGTH

The degree to which members of a group behaviorally respond to a common environmental stimulus indicates the relative strength of the culture. The more similar their behavioral responses are, the greater the strength of the culture. The strength of a culture may be expressed on a continuum from a very weak culture to a very strong culture. A strong culture is one characterized by specifying behavior and consequences that are consistent, noncontradictory, and generally known by members of the organization. The reinforcers are administered informally by members of the organization. Unpleasant or negative consequences will tend to be administered consistently and directly after each breach of a given expectation (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980). Pleasant or positive consequences, on the other hand, are likely to follow a variable reinforcement schedule. The primary impetus of behavioral control is likely to be positive reinforcement with a minimal use

of negative consequences. A result of these qualities is a strong culture directing members' behaviors towards a common goal.

A culture which for any reason induces its members to work for its survival is more likely to survive. It is a matter of the good of the culture, not of the individual . . . If there is any purpose or direction in the evolution of a culture, it has to do with bringing people under the control more and more of the consequences of their behavior (Skinner, 1971, p. 137, italics in original).

Strong cultures exert great influence over individual members of an organization and tend to negate the formal reward structure when the two are in conflict. When formal reward structure and culture are in harmony, they tend to exert an even stronger influence over the organization members' behavior. Weak cultures on the other hand tend to have a minimum effect on members, thus allowing the force of the formal reward structure to exert a greater level of influence (Paunova, 2007). As discussed below, the manifestation of the organizational culture is demonstrated through ceremonies, storytellers, heroes, rituals, and gatekeepers (Bushman & Fowler, 1982; Bushardt, Lambert & Duhon, 2007; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Schein, 1992).

Ceremonies

Certain actions often function as a means to codify knowledge (that is, merge formal rewards and culture) or show that change is occurring and these are known as ceremonies (Bushman & Fowler, 1987). For instance, each fall many universities have faculty convocations at which awards are presented, with the rule-governed behavior being, "This is the behavior we value and reward." For many years one university presented twelve teaching awards for outstanding faculty and no awards in the areas of research and service. The administration, in an effort to change the culture, started providing five teaching awards, three research awards and one service award. The clear message was that the formal rewards were moving towards rewarding research to a greater degree with the administration's hope of fostering a more research-oriented culture while retaining some emphasis on teaching. Though only a few organizational members would receive the awards, the ceremonies sent a public message as to what would be valued from members of the organization. Employee acceptance of the new set of contingencies of reinforcement ultimately changed organizational culture.

Storytellers

The formal reward structure can foster organizational learning by changing the culture instead of focusing on changing individual behavior. For example, suppose the local franchisee of a McDonald's learned of a McDonald's employee going to Burger King while in uniform to buy

and eat lunch. The owner/manager would have a number of options at his/her disposal. Assuming the organization valued product loyalty by the employees, the manager could simply call the employee in and state that such behavior was unacceptable. The focus would clearly be on changing that employee's behavior. On the other hand, the manager could fire the employee for the behavior and the story would become legendary and be told and retold in the organization for years. This second approach would clearly be focused on shaping the culture while the first would be focused on changing the individual's behavior. Management can encourage or discourage story telling behavior through the formal reward structure with a storyteller who is passing on an organizational culture inconsistent with the organizational goals being transferred, relocated, or simply removed.

Heroes

The recipients of organizational rewards or citations can be thought of as heroes. The ceremony of identifying an individual as employee of the month with a designated parking space communicates the rule-governed behavior and helps to identify heroes by showing that this employee's behavior is the one that will be rewarded in an organization's culture. Bushardt and Fowler (1987) succinctly stated: "Heroes serve as beacons for younger members and communicate those behaviors that are valued in the organization" (p. 34). Heroes provide evidence of the value to be gained by following a culture's rules. In addition they serve as an instrument for communicating the desired cultural behaviors and provide assurance these behaviors will be rewarded (Austin & Peters, 1985; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Heroes are often created by the ceremonies and the storytellers of the organization; thus managers may assist in the development of organizational heroes.

Rituals

The patterns of behavior repeated frequently which signify individual commitment to the culture are known as rituals. The process of participating in organizational rituals is a public statement of support of the culture. A much-maligned ritual is hazing. However, hazing in its milder forms is an initiation process for acceptance into the culture. A workgroup composed of electricians used the following behavior to haze young members who joined the electrician team. An older electrician would run two pieces of conduit such that they failed to meet by three or four inches. The older electrician would initiate the hazing by turning to the number two man and saying, "I need the pipe stretcher because the conduit is a bit short." The number two man who was well aware of the "game" would say, "Sorry boss, it's not in the truck but back at the shop. Want me to send the new guy to get it?" After a few strong words from the senior man, the newest member would be sent to the shop to ask Bob, the shop manager, for the pipe stretcher. Once the neophyte arrived at the shop and dutifully asked Bob for the pipe stretcher, the entire shop would

erupt into laughter. The rookie would then have to return to the work site where all the employees would be falling over laughing because there is no such thing as a pipe stretcher. As the newest member of the work group, he could join in with the laughter and realize he had been had, thereby gaining admittance to the culture, or he could get angry over being had and suffer rejection from the culture. Management can weaken a culture by retarding these efforts of solidarity or it can strengthen the culture by turning a blind eye to the less offensive ones.

Gatekeepers

Individuals who monitor and affect information flows in a manner that may either facilitate or hinder organization goals are known as gatekeepers. These individuals may also serve as the repository and disseminator of knowledge associated with the contingencies of reinforcement. Secretarial staff and administrative assistants often function in a gatekeeper role releasing information in part or not at all. Such individuals may also serve in the dual role of storytellers by telling others of inside information. Many a new manager who inherited an established secretary or administrative assistant has discovered that one of the quickest routes to changing the culture of a unit is to replace the person.

FORMAL REWARD STRUCTURE

Formal rewards are those varied reward recognitions and reinforcements administered by an organization to its members. Katz and Kahn (1976) classified organizational rewards into system rewards and individual rewards. System rewards are rewards given to an individual for being a member of the organization – including such things as health, life, and dental insurance, paid holidays, sick leave, a parking space, a Christmas turkey, and the prestige of being part of the organization, among others. Individual rewards are rewards given to individuals and sub-groups based on superior performance – including such things as merit raises, promotions, awards, recognition bonuses, and praise (Bushman & Fowler, 1982; Bushardt, Fowler & Debnath, 1988; Katz & Kahn, 1976).

The use of system rewards is generally recognized to motivate individual performance only to a minimal level – that level necessary to retain employment. The use of individual rewards to motivate high levels of performance consistent with organization objectives has met with mixed success (Kerr, 1975). From a behavioral perspective, the occasions of failure of individual rewards are usually associated with the time lag between the employee's performance of a behavior and the absence of a variable ratio reinforcement schedule. Bushardt, Lambert, and Duhon (2007) recognized the difficulty of an organization's using individual rewards to motivate individual performance by suggesting that most managers (1) lack the time to observe the behavior consistently, (2) lack the skills to apply reinforcers appropriately, and, (3) are unable to employ a variable ratio reinforcement schedule. They compared a manager's trying to use individual rewards

to reinforce individual employee behavior as akin to a psychologist trying to control the behaviors of twenty different rats in a single box.

Formal organizational rewards are often effective at encouraging membership in an organization, but are seldom effective at directing individual employee behavior towards organizational goals (Katz & Kahn, 1976; Kerr, 1975). Because the culture of many organizations tends to be far more effective in administering rewards to individuals, managers will serve the organization's interest more effectively by attempting the difficult process of managing the organization's culture rather than relying on the formal reward structure. Bushardt, Lambert, and Duhon (2007) have gone so far as to assert that a primary job of managers is to manage the culture and not the individual because the behavior of employees is more often directed by the culture.

Figure 1: The Impact on Effectiveness of Strategy Implementation from the Interaction of the Strength of the Organization's Culture and the Congruence of the Organizational Culture with the Organization's Formal Reward Structure

STRENGTH OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE		Strong	1 Low Effectiveness of Strategy Implementation	4 High Effectiveness of Strategy Implementation
		Weak	2 Moderately Low Effectiveness of Strategy Implementation	3 Moderately High Effectiveness of Strategy Implementation
			Low	High
		CONGRUENCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE WITH THE ORGANIZATION'S FORMAL REWARD STRUCTURE		

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The goals of an organization are ideally made operational through its formal reward structure. However, the behaviors which are reinforced by the formal rewards may or may not be congruent with the organizational culture. Formal rewards and organizational culture have greater impact on behavior when "...they send similar, as opposed to conflicting, signals to people in the

organization” (Cummings, 1984, p. 37). Based on a review of findings about cultural strength and formal reward structure, Figure 1 is presented as a model indicating the impact on effectiveness of strategy implementation resulting from the interaction of the strength of the organization’s culture and the congruence of that culture with the organization’s formal reward structure.

DISCUSSION AND RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS

Cell 1

Organizations operating in Cell 1 are likely to experience considerable conflict because employees may be confused and perhaps cynical about the organization with the net result being ineffectiveness in implementing the organization’s strategy. Employees will experience contradictory sets of rules from the culture and the organization (Schein, 1999; Valentino, 2004). Lorsch (1985) suggests they will follow the culture’s norms with the culture overriding the rules of the formal reward structure.

Research proposition 1: Organizations operating with a strong culture that is incongruent with the formal reward structure are likely to experience very low levels of effectiveness of strategy implementation.

Cell 2

Employees are not likely to be under the control of any consistent set of consequences when organizations are operating in Cell 2 and the organization is thus likely to experience moderately low levels of effectiveness of strategy implementation. The organization must rely almost exclusively on the use of formal rewards, which are, even in the best of circumstances, only marginally effective in their own right because these rewards are not congruent with the organization’s culture (McLauren, 2008).

Research proposition 2: Organizations operating with a weak culture that is incongruent with the formal reward structure are likely to experience moderately low levels of effectiveness of strategy implementation.

Cell 3

Organizations operating in Cell 3 are likely to enjoy moderately high levels of effectiveness assuming their organizational goals are consistent with the external environment. Employees will receive and operate under a consistent set of behavioral rules and their consequences. While the

behavior is not likely to be strongly reinforced by the culture, the culture is not likely to send a competing set of rewards and will thus provide some reinforcement to desired behaviors (Gagliardi, 1986).

Research proposition 3: Organizations operating with a weak culture that is congruent with the formal reward structure are likely to experience moderately high levels of effectiveness of strategy implementation.

Cell 4

When the formal reward structure and the organizational culture are congruent, the organization is in a state of equilibrium. Both systems are providing consistent knowledge on the contingencies of reinforcement that coordinate employees' behavioral patterns. Most highly effective organizations will operate in Cell 4 because of their strong organizational culture, assuming their organizational goals are consistent with the external environment (McLauren, 2008).

Research proposition 4: Organizations operating with a strong culture that is congruent with the formal reward structure are likely to experience high levels of effectiveness of strategy implementation.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Figure 1 is a static model that does not recognize the dynamic process that occurs when organizations experience growth and change. However, the numbering of the cells in the model suggests the dynamic aspects of organizational change and the direction of change. As an organization goes through change, the formal reward structure and the organizational culture are likely to become incongruent, which in part explains the conflict often associated with growth and change (Amason, Hochwarter, Thompson & Harrison, 1995; Berg, 1985; Fowler, Bushardt & Jones, 1993; Jones, Bushardt & Cadenhead, 1990; Wolfe & Bushardt, 1985). Organizational change tends to destroy the equilibrium of Cell 4 when environmental demands force change. Organizations with strong cultures run the risk of degenerating into Cell 1 if the organization's goals shift much more quickly than the culture (Ravasi & Schulz, 2006). This usually occurs with a dramatic change in the goals and direction of the organization. It is possible, where minor changes in goals are occurring, to facilitate a gradual change in the culture and not degenerate to Cell 1. Greiner (1998) referred to the change process as one of revolution or evolution, where

revolution is rapid change and evolution is the gradual realignment of culture and formal organizational rewards.

Organizations in Cell 1 are not likely to be very effective because of a strong organizational culture and low congruence. Therefore, management's removing of storytellers and creating of new heroes can facilitate a movement to Cell 2, weakening the organizational culture and increasing effectiveness of strategy implementation. Once the old culture is weakened, the organization can begin the process of fostering congruence of the culture with the reward structure of the organization to facilitate a movement to Cell 3 further increasing the effectiveness of strategy implementation (Valentino, 2004). The culture and the formal rewards are congruent but the culture is weak at this point in the process. In time, however, as the culture is strengthened, the organization can enter or return to Cell 4 with a strong culture as well as congruence between the culture and the formal reward structure resulting in effectiveness of strategy implementation. Many organizations are likely to choose to operate in Cells 2 or 3 with a weak organizational culture because organizations operating in Cell 4 risk moving to Cell 1 in a highly unstable environment where strategy changes quickly.

The velocity of change from Cell 1 to Cell 2 and the rebuilding in Cells 3 and 4 are strongly influenced by numerous variables – most notably, the level of outside threat and the personality of the CEO (Asree, Zain & Razalli, 2010). While these two constructs are independent in theory, in reality CEOs who have a personality favoring a revolutionary approach, as opposed to an evolutionary approach, tend to create the perception of a high level of outside threat to justify the extreme measures associated with the cultural change and the cultural shock which they often bring.

Al Dunlap is a former CEO who embraced the revolutionary approach to cultural change with his restructuring of American Can, Lily Tulip, Crown Zellerbach, Scott, and finally, Sunbeam. In the process he became known as the “Rambo in Pinstripes” or less affectionately as “Chainsaw Al.” Each time, as CEO, he would immediately start by decrying the waste and inefficiency of previous management as a signal that the culture needed a transition. Every component was then managed to send a consistent signal that cultural change was going to happen, and then changed happened with massive layoffs of personnel. At each company, many of which were operating in Cell 4, Dunlap attempted to quickly move them through Cells 1 and 2 by destroying the old culture. At Sunbeam he began with, ““You guys are responsible for the demise of Sunbeam! I'm here to tell you that things have changed. The old Sunbeam is over today. It's over!” ” (Pisapia, 2009, p.157). While he had enjoyed some success with American Can, Lily Tulip, Crown Zellerbach, and Scott, the Sunbeam organization was his Waterloo. Sunbeam had been utilizing quality circles and many techniques borrowed from Japan, but under “Chainsaw Al's” leadership, the CEO ultimately felt compelled to purchase a bulletproof vest and a handgun for his own protection (Byrne, 1999).

Gradual change in culture allows an organization to transform itself without going through Cells 1 and 2 because the old culture is not wiped out but gradually transformed within Cells 3 or 4. History tends to remember the leaders of revolutionary cultural changes but remembers the organizations with evolutionary cultural changes. While the selection of the approach is often

contingent on the level of environmental threat, it is often difficult to separate out the impact of the leader's personality as a driving force.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICING MANAGERS

Managers must devote considerable time and resources to assess environmental opportunities and threats and to develop organizational goals and objectives consistent with environmental constraints. However, having done so may be insufficient to ensure the successful implementation of an organization's strategy without the commitment and efforts of its members.

Managements' attempts to realign the formal reward structure with organizational goals and objectives solely through the human resource function have often failed to energize employees towards the new goals and objectives. The limited success of realigning the reward structure reflects an inability to manage individual behavior due to rewards not being administered in a timely manner, failure to use a variable ratio reinforcement schedule, and the lack of time most managers face in the challenging jobs of today. Managers would be more effective if they focused on using formal rewards as means to manage the culture instead of as a means to manage the individual. Schein (1992) suggests, "[t]he only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture" (p. 5).

Practicing managers need to assess the organizational culture as a part of the strategic planning process. When goals and objectives change, managers need to implement a systematic, goal-directed process for shifting the culture. The issue involves whether to gradually change the culture or to take a revolutionary approach. As practicing managers begin the change process, they need to identify not only the desired new sets of rule-governed behaviors for building but also the undesired behaviors for weakening or destruction.

The primary job of a manager is to manage the culture not the individual. Organizational leadership can manage the culture through the ceremonies, storytellers, heroes, rituals and gatekeepers that it encourages or discourages by changing activities and by changing incumbents in key positions. The model presented here illustrates the challenges leaders face – to destroy the current culture, to strengthen the culture already present, or to create a new culture aligned with the strategic objectives. An important decision in the change process is the speed by which cultural change is implemented which is, in part, contingent on the personality of the leader and the degree of outside threat. The practicing manager's job is difficult and challenging, requiring constant and continuous adjustment to ensure cultural alignment with organizational goals.

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HOW SALES PERSONNEL VIEW THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND SPIRITUALITY IN THE WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT

This research was aimed at the study of job satisfaction and the relationship to spirituality in the workplace. In addition, job satisfaction was studied as both intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction spirituality in the workplace was researched as standalone variables. The ultimate goal of this research was to examine the relationships of the variables that would lead to further growth in employee development, increased job performance, lower turnover rates, higher profits and employee retention as they relate to organizational goals and strategies. Research results suggest the following conclusions; among sales personnel 1) there is a relationship between spirituality in the workplace and intrinsic job satisfaction, 2) gender does not moderate the relationship, 3) age does moderate the relationship, and 4) there is no relationship between spirituality in the workplace and intrinsic job satisfaction.

This research indicated that there is a widespread belief that for companies to survive into the 21st century in the face of economical downturn and global competition, it is necessary for leaders and employees to tap into their spiritual resources. All the collected evidence from this research points to a strong and significant framework between the variables. The potentially groundbreaking nature of this research leaves no doubt that the intuitively positive relationship between spirituality in the workplace and job satisfaction have the ability to transform individual and organizational lives.

Key Words: Leadership, Job Satisfaction, Spirituality, Sales Personnel

INTRODUCTION

Spirituality in the workplace is about people who perceive themselves as spirited beings, whose spirits desire and need to be energized through work. It is about experiencing real purpose and meaning at work beyond paychecks and performance reviews. Spirituality is about people sharing and experiencing some common attachment, attraction, and togetherness with each other within their work unit and the organization as a whole (Harrington, 2004).

The recent spurt of scholarly articles along with several authors currently writing on the work-spirituality connection (Benefiel, 2003; Krishnakumar & Neck, 2002; Ashmos & Duchon, 2000; Dehler &

Welsh; 1994) reflects the interest in the relationship of spirituality in the workplace, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Connolly & Myers, 2003; Milliman, Czaplewski & Ferguson, 2003). The need for a spiritual connection has become important to a wider audience, partly because of ongoing changes in organizational structure, which often results in feelings of insecurity regarding one's place in the system (Heaton, Schmidt-Wilk & Travis, 2004).

The core of spirituality is about people sharing and experiencing some common attachment, attraction, and togetherness within their work unit and the organization as a whole. (Harrington, 2004; Mitroff & Denton, 1999).

The term spirituality comes from the Latin word *spiritus*, meaning vapor, breath, air or wind. Mitroff & Denton (1999) defined spirituality as the desire to find one's ultimate purpose in life, and to live accordingly. However, a review of the literature determined that there is no single agreed-upon definition of the term "spirituality" among those who are conducting research in this field.

Recent scholars have moved towards defining spirituality in terms of purpose and meaning, community and an element of interconnectedness (Allegretti, 2000; Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). Allegretti defines spirituality as a kind of shorthand for the deepest urgings and impulses of the human self: That which gives meaning and depth to everyday life. The concept encompasses one's need for creativity, one's desire for self-expression, and a hunger for love and service. A spirituality of work refers to making work a part of spiritual life, finding opportunities for self-expression, bringing moral values into the workplace, standing up for what one believes, and developing a sense that all of life is sacred (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). Spirituality, according to Giacalone & Jurkiewicz (2003) refers to the idea that individuals hold a set of moral beliefs (distinct from religious beliefs) that inform their sense of right and wrong in the workplace. These beliefs generally center on a desire by the individual to be his or her best, to help others be their best, and to feel a sense of connectedness with one's work and coworkers. By acting upon these beliefs, individuals achieve a sense of sacredness in their actions and in the world (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this empirical study is to examine the relationship of spirituality in the workplace to job satisfaction. The ultimate goal is to use a current theory with practical implications for creating a positive workplace environment; in this way human resource professionals and corporate executives may implement practices that lead to further growth in employee development, increased job performance, lower turnover rates, higher profits, and long term employee satisfaction and employee retention as they relate to organizational goals and strategies.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

There is currently limited knowledge and research about the relationship between workplace spirituality and job satisfaction. Hence, this empirical study assesses the strength of the relationship between spirituality in the workplace and job satisfaction. Moore and Casper (2006) measured the impact of a proxy

of workplace spirituality (perceived organizational support) and found a high correlation between affective organizational commitment and intrinsic job satisfaction. The focus of this study will be on sales managers who work for a Fortune 500 company and the results will be used to for human resource purposes to gain a in-depth understanding on job satisfaction as it relates to spirituality in the workplace.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study addresses the following research questions:

Is spirituality among sales personnel in the workplace related to job satisfaction?

Job satisfaction is an important variable that has been established as a key variable relating to individuals and organizational performance. The independent variable in this study is job satisfaction and the dependent variable is spirituality in the workplace.

LIMITATIONS

The limitations hampering a scientific study of workplace spirituality are threefold: (1) inadequate measurement tools; (2) limited theoretical development; and (3) legal concerns. This research study will address these limitations by quantitatively surveying corporate employees for the purpose of developing, testing and presenting research that explains the relationship between spirituality in the workplace and job satisfaction and to the organization as they exist in today's corporate culture among sales personnel.

DELIMITATIONS

This study will be delimited in that it will recognize that every human being is a spiritual being; however, not every human being is a religious person. Religion, while it may be the vehicle through which some individuals express their spiritual desires, will not be the focus of this research study. In addition, this study, while recognizing the spirituality of the individual, is more concerned with the value of corporate-initiated and sponsored programs to encourage spiritual expression by its sales managers as they relate to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is delimited from spirituality in that it is a cognitive, attitudinal and emotive state based on a comparison of job related expectations relative to actual performance. It is embedded in the cognitive theories of psychology and has been used in organizational theories since the 1920's (Hill & Pargament, 2003).

ASSUMPTIONS

There are two significant assumptions for this research. The first is that spirituality is a valid psychological construct that can be operationalized, measured and investigated in nomological networks

(Reed 1991, 1992). The crisis in psychology in the 1970s (Koc and Leary 1992) and the emergence of the tradition of humanistic psychology as an “alternative conception in psychology” (Hilgard, 1987) set the stage for the introduction of the concept “spirituality” as a valid psychological construct. In the 1970s and 1980s spirituality was embraced by the more extreme followers of humanistic psychology in psychological therapy in the context of Maslow’s higher motives related to “being” and self-actualization (Maslow, 1954). In recent years the concept has become increasingly embraced in research areas that apply psychological theories to explain behavior in organizations. (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000, Mitroff and Denton, 1999; Brandt, 1996; Chappel, 1993).

The second assumption is that this construct is linked to positive organizational outcomes. This assumption is justified because self-actualization and higher levels of motives can be expected to relate to positive behaviors in organizations. Both psychological theory building (Milliman, Czaplewski, and Ferguson, 2003) and general sociological theories have established a link between these higher motives and positive economic outcomes (Weber, 2003). This study will primarily focus on the short term and long term consequences of spirituality in the workplace as it relates to job. Due to the extensive availability of quality information on the subject of workplace spirituality, this assumption as well as the phenomenon of spirituality in the workplace will be affirmed throughout this research study.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is significant because there is still so much divergence, even controversy, in perceptions about the phenomenon of spirituality in the workplace. There is a significant degree of inhibition among corporate professionals in the 21st century to implement the research that has been completed on embracing spirituality as it relates to job satisfaction.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

The definitions of selected terms used throughout this study are as follows:

- Job Satisfaction: The pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the assessment of one’ job and job experiences (Locke, 1976), and the degree to which people like their jobs (Spector, 1997).
- Intrinsic satisfaction: How people feel about the nature of their job tasks (Hirschfield, 2000).
- Extrinsic satisfaction: How people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks or work itself (Hirschfield, 2000).

Spirituality in the workplace:

Workplace spirituality involves the effort to find one's ultimate purpose in life, to develop a strong connection to coworkers and other people associated with work, and to have consistency or alignment between one's core beliefs and values of their organization (Mitroff and Denton, 1999).

SPIRITUALITY IN THE WORKPLACE

This literature review presents a comprehensive definition and an integral model of spirituality in the workplace in the following sections:

- Model: Self Thought Leadership Model
- The Spirituality Movement of the 21st Century
- The Integration of Sales and Spirituality
- Spirituality's Impact on the Corporate Bottom Line
- A Model: The Interaction of the Spiritual Component with the Corporate Body
- Job Satisfaction
- Organizational Commitment.

A review of the literature found a growing awareness by Human Resource professionals of spirituality in the workplace, and revealed changing strategies by employers to deal with organizational needs for spirituality. There is increasing evidence that a major transformation is occurring in many organizations (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000). In the so-called Spirituality Movement, organizations that have long been viewed as rational systems are considering making room for the spiritual dimension, a dimension that has less to do with rules and order and more to do with meaning, purpose, and a sense of community (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000).

THE SPIRITUALITY MOVEMENT OF THE 21ST CENTURY

Ashmos and Duchon (2000) recognize that the world of corporate work is changing. Where Americans work, how they work, particularly since the advent of computer technology allowing telecommuting, bringing about the isolation and impersonal sense of detachment of those who work and communicate solely through computers—all of these factors contribute to a workplace ripe for embracing a connection, whether it be through spirituality or some other source. These changes are drastic, even revolutionary, and will affect every working American. Five reasons for corporate America's growing interest in spirituality at work are noted by: (Ashmos & Duchon, p.134)

1. "The downsizing, reengineering, and layoffs of the past decade have turned the American workplace into an environment where workers are demoralized."

2. “The workplace is being seen more often as a primary source of community for many people because of the decline of neighborhoods, churches, civic groups, and extended families as principal places for feeling connected.”
3. “Curiosity about Pacific Rim cultures and Eastern philosophies. Philosophies such as Zen Buddhism and Confucianism, which encourage meditation and stress values such as loyalty to one’s groups and finding one’s spiritual center in any activity, are finding acceptance.”
4. “As aging baby boomers move closer to life’s greatest uncertainty—death—there is a growing interest in contemplating life’s meaning.”
5. “The pressure of global competition has led organizational leaders to recognize that employee creativity needs a fuller expression at work.”

Although the concept of “spirituality in the workplace” has increasingly gained popularity in the past few years nevertheless, this literature review recognizes that the term spirituality means different things to many people. Dr. Judy Neal, founder and president of the Association for Spirit at Work, found that managers often confuse spirituality with religion (Brandt, 1996). A person in corporate America can have a deeply meaningful spiritual experience at work without having people become upset with someone trying to convince them of a particular religious point of view. Ashmos and Duchon (2000) referred to this phenomenon as being about employees who understand themselves as spiritual beings whose souls need nourishment at work; about experiencing a sense of purpose and meaning in their work, and experiencing a sense of connectedness to one another and to their workplace community.

THE INTEGRATION OF SALES AND SPIRITUALITY

The targeted population of this study is taken from full time sales personnel working for a Fortune 500 Company. This section of the literature review includes an insight to the impact of spirituality on the sales culture.

Because of the substantial influence the spirituality concept is having on U.S. corporations, sales managers are realizing the need to establish sales management developmental programs on the spirituality concept impact upon the sales culture and sales force. Kumar & Seshadri (2009) regarded spirituality for sales personnel as a technique of cultivating a balanced temperament than enables them to attain and sustain success. Also, marketing means aggressiveness, manipulation and introducing wants that are not required by consumers. These are some of the major criticisms of marketing and sales in a world where changing lifestyles and aspirations leave no time to even think of spiritual aspects. Beyond the debate of rituals and spirituality, the Bhagavad Gita seems to offer insights that are practical and simple, when applied to the field of marketing and sales. Life is a mixture of joy and misery. There are moments of joy when the salesperson established a relationship with a client bags an order and wins accolades from the company. There are depressing moments when he/she gets tongue lashed for not showing results within the organization, though in reality the odds may have been against him/her. A salesperson who practices and masters a balanced temperament is one who is supreme and sure to attain success.

Marchetti (2004) found that sales managers who made an effort to learn more about each sales person and to initiate more cheerleading now and then had a positive effect. Serifsoy (2002) defines the exploration of an emergent model for sales as a alternative to traditional and consulting selling models, grounded in the philosophies and skills of dialogue and appreciative inquiry. It is an integrative, comprehensive and multi-disciplinary that draws from the fields of psychology, organizational development, executive coaching, communication and spirituality. Other attributes of this model include: a focus on creating generative relationships, listening to connect, generating internal commitment from the buyer, and attending to the sales process as a spiritual practice. Futrell (2009) examined the question, “Do salespeople who follow the Golden Rule or let their faith influence their behavior to serve their customers better or let their jobs and employers more than other salespeople?” A comprehensive study was developed and tested using structural equation modeling to investigate an organization’s relationships with job satisfaction, organization commitment, propensity to leave, life satisfaction and customer satisfaction. The combined effect of following the Golden Rule and personal faith leads to more satisfied customers and a more stable workforce to meet organizational goals.

Another spirituality-driven concept that sales managers must learn to appreciate are the dimensions of the workplace for salespersons. Rego & Cunha (2008) describe a study of spirituality aimed to examine the impact of five dimensions of workplace spirituality (team’s sense of community, alignment with organizational values, sense of contribution to society, enjoyment at work, opportunities for inner life on affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Correlations, regressions and cluster analyses were carried out. The findings suggest that when people experience workplace spirituality, they feel more affectively attached to their organizations, experience a sense of obligation/loyalty towards them, and feel less instrumentally committed.

To summarize, the connection between sales and spirituality becomes more crystallized once a purposeful spiritual approach is better understood. Drucker (2003) was perceived as a spiritual philosopher because his views about management are always contextualized within a purposefully spirit approach. He felt human existence can only be experienced by finding its spiritual center. His post-modern Gestaltic view of the “whole” embodies “elements” or “parts” that contribute purposefully and responsibly because they have a necessity to develop spiritually and meaningfully. His philosophy recognizes that moral values and strength of character develop the spirit while advancing the practice of management.

SPIRITUALITY’S IMPACT ON THE CORPORATE BOTTOM LINE

How does spirituality in the workplace relate to the bottom line of a business? Recent publications and studies have focused on the relationship between workplace spirituality and organizational performance (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). Earlier studies showed a strong correlation between corporate culture/core values and profitability. A Harvard Business School study examined ten companies with strong corporate culture and ten with weak corporate culture, drawn from a list of 200 leading companies. Researchers in this study not only found a dramatic correlation between an organization’s spirited culture and its profitability;

but, also found that, in some cases, the more spirited companies outperformed the others by 400 to 500 percent in terms of net earnings, return on investment, and shareholder value (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003).

Research performed by University of Southern California's Marshall Graduate School of Business Professor Ian Mitroff (Mitroff, 1999) indicates that organizations which identify themselves as spiritual have employees who: 1) are less fearful of their organizations; 2) are less likely to compromise their basic beliefs and values in the workplace; 3) perceive their organizations as being significantly more profitable; and, 4) report that they can bring significantly more of their complete selves to work, especially their creativity and intelligence. Many studies have indicated that what gives individuals the most meaning and purpose in their job is the ability to realize their full potential as a person (McCoy, 2001).

McLaughlin (1998) emphasizes the relationship between spirituality and profitability by asserting, "A growing movement across the country is promoting spiritual values in the workplace and pointing to many examples of increased productivity and profitability" (p. 11). According to McLaughlin, organizations that want to survive in the 21st Century will have to offer a greater sense of meaning and purpose—key elements of spirituality, to their workforce. A credible way of demonstrating the correlation between a spiritual approach and corporate profitability is through case studies of companies. For that purpose, Milliman, Ferguson, Tricket and Condemni (1999) selected Southwest Airlines, justifying their choice for this company as follows:

We selected Southwest Airlines (SWA) for our case study because it appears to have a strong sense of spiritual-based values guiding its organizational goals and practices. In addition, the company has an established track record of excellent organizational performance as well as high employee and customer satisfaction. In profiling SWA we certainly do not want to imply that it is a perfect example of living spiritual values; it has its problems and limitations like other firms. Despite this, there seems to be a genuine sense of spirit and affection in both SWA employees and customers (p. 221).

The purpose of the article was to examine the ways spirituality is manifested within SWA and assess the impact of spirituality on SWA employees, customers, and organizational performance. Included in this case study was the result that because of high employee satisfaction, SWA employees have one of the lowest turnover rates (six percent, at the time of the study) in the airline industry.

Another researched case of profitability in a spiritually-led company is the Herman Miller Furniture Company. Max DePree, CEO of the Herman Miller Furniture Company is recognized among the successful business leaders who demonstrate a personal spirituality that inspires good moral habits. In his book, *Business as Unusual: the People and Principles at Herman Miller* (1992), DePree describes the company as problem-solving, risk-taking, committed to change, dedicated to quality and the pursuit of excellence. It fosters an open climate of freedom in which people have the right and responsibility to contribute, to be involved, and to influence the design and manufacture of office and health care furniture. One of the ways to measure Herman Miller's successful performance is through the frequency in which this company is

mentioned by a wide variety of authors on the topic of management excellence and outstanding organizational behavior.

Marques and Dhiman (2005) studied spirituality in the workplace by interviewing six business executives in a qualitative study and developed a list of vital themes for spirituality in the workplace. The 19 themes are:

Themes That Apply to a Spiritual Workplace	
Ethics	Trust
Truth	Kindness (bonding, compassion)
Belief in God or a Higher Power	Team Orientation
Respect	Few organizational barriers
Understanding	A sense of peace and harmony
Openness	Aesthetically pleasing workplace
Honesty	Interconnectedness
Being self motivated	Encouraging diversity
Encouraging creativity	Acceptance
Giving to others	

JOB SATISFACTION

Based upon the employee's environment, he or she either enjoys or is dissatisfied with his or her job. It is clear through research studies that the extent to which an employee is allowed and encouraged to express him or herself through spirituality is an indication, a tool of measurement, for his or her emotional and psychological state. One source states that "some individual level benefits of workplace spirituality include 'increased physical and mental health of employees, advanced personal growth, and enhanced self worth'" (Krahnke & Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003, p. 397). It is important to note that to study job satisfaction is to place emphasis on the psychological process instead of the physical (Spector, 1997).

Spector (1997) claims that job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and the different aspects of how they perform their job requirements. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs. Job satisfaction may be viewed in the overall content an employee experiences or some sort of specific, momentary satisfaction (Cook & Hepworth, & Wall & Warr, 1981). In this way, there are two types of satisfaction an employee may experience: intrinsic and extrinsic.

One study states that these two divisions in job satisfaction are clear measurements of how employees like or dislike their work; what they feel towards their tasks and their organization (Bhuiyan, 1996; Locke, 1976). Extrinsic satisfaction is experienced when the organization rewards an employee for doing a good job, most likely through the form of a raise or promotion (Bhuiyan, 1996). Intrinsic satisfaction deals more with

the employees own internal feelings of accomplishment and self-actualization. Another source defines intrinsic satisfaction as “an individual’s attitudes toward elements related to work such achievement, responsibility, advancement, and growth” (Herzberg, 1968, p139). This form of satisfaction has closer ties to an employee’s spirituality. It has been studied and proven that intrinsic satisfaction has a deeper and a more lasting effect on an employee, keeping an employee dedicated to his or her tasks more so than extrinsic satisfaction does.

In order to simplify and organize the way job satisfaction is studied, Locke (1976) divided job satisfaction into several different theories: Process theory, content theories, and social identity theory. For the purpose of this research study and relating to the effects of spirituality on job satisfaction, content theories prove most important and relevant.

Locke stated that the content theories “specify the particular needs that must be attained for an individual to be satisfied with his job” (Locke, 1976, p. 1307). The predominate content theories are Maslow’s Hierarchy of Need theory and Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene theory (Locke, 1976). Maslow’s theory, however, involves many factors that both directly and indirectly affect and are related to spirituality. Maslow’s theory is further divided into the categories of physiological need, safety need, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs.

Spirituality is primarily concerned with the last three categories: belongingness and love needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. Employees who are openly allowed and encouraged to explore their spiritual self most often do not experience self-esteem problems, as they are secure with who they are in their own beliefs.

It is also apparent that a corporation that embraces spirituality amongst its workers also encourages an atmosphere where employees feel a certain connection, an inclusion with each other. This company openness helps to uplift and celebrate the individual spiritual needs and promotes esteem building characteristics. When the employees’ belongingness, love, and esteem needs are met, they then begin to take pride in their work, acquire a certain self-actualization; this discovery makes the workers more efficient, and the company more successful in terms of togetherness, marketability, and finances. The first two categories of Maslow’s theory safety needs and physiological needs are indirectly affected by the promotion of spirituality in the workplace. An important dimension of job satisfaction is the employee’s self-actualization, which one source compares to the “intrinsic motivation in work”; “the human growth and development through work” (Butts, 1999). This self-actualization or intrinsic satisfaction is assessed by achievement, personal reward, and growth, at work (Milliman, Czaplewski, and Ferguson, 2003). As discussed before, this sort of intrinsic satisfaction is bolstered by the way a company embraces its employees’ spirituality.

Job satisfaction, in terms of spirituality, is experienced by the employee when he or she believes that his or her goals, morals, and ideas are in alignment with those of the organization. This is when the employee feels as if he or she is apart of a team rather than just completing a job to earn money. It is at this point, when an employee jives with the company, that an employee experiences intrinsic satisfaction due to self-actualization, which then leads to extrinsic satisfaction, or rewards from the organization due to an increased level and quality of work. This is a result of the employee believing that he or she is apart of some larger plan,

purpose, and being and is therefore obligated to exert his or her best efforts in the form of some sort of contribution.

In order for an employee's and a corporation's values to be aligned, an employee must share the concept that he or she is apart of a "higher" organization, one that strives to be a corporation with high sensibility, scruples, and an awareness and adherence to ethics and integrity; an organization with the purpose to contribute to something greater than itself. When this alignment takes place, a sense of community within the workplace is developed and employees enjoy this sense of community, thus increasing satisfaction and benefits arise when employees realize that they are now apart of a community.

SUMMARY

In the 21st century corporate organizations must seek to develop options that will result in a competitive advantage. Developing a spiritual vision can bind an employee to the company and enhance job performance (Neck and Milliman, 1994). Unfortunately, many employees perceive their job and their organizational commitment negatively due to their lack of purpose or spirituality in their work. The interest in spirituality in the workplace is here to stay, as reflected by the rising number of publications on the topic, and the many reasons for this call on a global level. There is still a broad divergence in interpretations for the word spirituality as well as for the phenomenon "spirituality in the workplace". The literature reviewed demonstrates that applying the spiritual mindset in a workplace will encourage the creativity and innovativeness of employees, which, in turn, enhances their productivity, leading to better overall performance for and by the organization as it relates to job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Spirituality exists in corporations, simply because all employees are spiritual beings. However, there are many difficulties to address if a company wishes to acknowledge officially what already exists, and to erect a framework by which the individual's spirituality will have a positive, work-enhancing expression.

SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

This study is significant because there is still so much divergence, even controversy, in perceptions about the phenomenon of spirituality in the workplace. There is a significant degree of inhibition among corporate professionals in the 21st century to implement the research that has been completed on embracing spirituality as it relates to job satisfaction. This research will be an important contribution to research on these variables since almost no studies exist in this area of research. Perhaps one of the biggest fears that hinder the ability of corporations to adopt programs stimulating spirituality in the workplace is that of discrimination lawsuits. It would be nice to believe that human resource management seeks to put the good of the corporation first, and the employee second; however, each individual is most of all concerned with his or her own employment.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The targeted population of this study is sales managers. The sample for this population is taken from full time sales managers working for a fortune one hundred companies located in the southeast of the United States. One hundred and twenty surveys will be administered to sales managers of a large manufacturing firm with a majority of these 75 participate with a MBA or BA in business.

The Variables

The research will investigate job satisfaction as an independent variable. The dependent variable is spirituality in the workplace.

Surveys: Construct and Measures:

This section describes the research questionnaires that will be utilized to gather the data.

Constructs (Variables)	Scales	Source
Spirituality in the Workplace	Spiritual Perspective Scale	Reed (1987)
Job Satisfaction	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire	Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967)

SPIRITUALITY IN THE WORKPLACE

The Spiritual Perspective Scale (“SPS”) was developed by Dr. Pam Reed and has been utilized since 1987. A ten-item, self-report questionnaire (see Appendix A) it is designed to assess spirituality. Each response will be answered on a 6 point Likert scale, with selections ranging from strongly disagree, to not at all, to strongly agree. Reed has tested the SPS on numerous respondents in varied organizations to determine its reliability in assessing spirituality in the workplace (Reed, 1987). Reed originally tested the SPS on 400 healthy, hospitalized, or seriously ill adults of all ages. Reliability, as estimated by Cronbach’s alpha, was consistently greater than .90. Inter item correlation ranges were from .54 to .60 across all groups. Item-scale correlations were consistently above .60 and validity has been tested numerous times. Scoring of the SPS was accomplished by calculating the arithmetic mean across all items for a total score that ranges from 1.0 to 6.0. The larger the score obtained, the greater the degree of spirituality.

Table 1: Summarizes research on the reliability and validity of the SPS:

Table 1a: Items of Each Subscale of Spiritual Perspective Scale (Reed, 1987)

Subscale	Items
Spiritual Perspective	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
The scales are summed	

Table 1b: Spiritual Perspective Scale by Dr. Pamela G. Reed 1987

Study	Sample Size	Description of Sample	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Validity
Jesse and Reed (2003)	120	Pregnant Women	.83	Trait Validity
Jesse and Alligood (2002)	75	Prenatal Psychosocial Profile of Women to measure the frequency of tobacco and alcohol substances.	.91	Trait Validity
Stevens (1999)	152	Young adults with AIDS	.84 to .90 in four separate tests	Construct Validity
Reed (1991)	400	Terminally Ill hospitalized patients	.90	Criterion-related validity and Discriminant validity

JOB SATISFACTION

This variable was measured using the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967). It was selected because it measures dimensions of job satisfaction that are not measured by other satisfaction instruments (Cook, et al., 1981). The dimensions included in the MSQ are activity, independence, variety, social status, supervision, moral values, security, social service, compensation, coworkers, recognition, creativity, working conditions, company policies achievement and advancement and these are some variables that will be utilized to measure the effect of spirituality in the workplace on job satisfaction.

The twenty item MSQ was designed on a 5-point Likert type scale with responses anchored from "very dissatisfied" (1) to "very satisfied" (5). The twenty items short form of the MSQ was derived from the long form of the MSQ. The short-form MSQ employs the same response categories used in the 1977 long form and as with Downes (2002), "This study does not attempt to distinguish between the intrinsic and extrinsic types, but rather attempts to capture elements of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction through the use of the MSQ" (p.30).

Peters, Jackofsky, and Salter (1981) while studying full and part-time employees, using the twenty item MSQ achieved a reliability estimate of 0.92 at (N = 31 full time employees). Cronbach's alpha for the internal consistency for the overall job satisfaction scale of the MSQ for employees in this research was found to be 0.86. This is consistent with Nunally's (1978) recommendation of 0.70 being sufficient for most research. In line with the estimate for total job satisfaction, the reliability estimates for intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction were also found to be 0.824 and 0.834, respectively. Table 2 summarizes research on the reliability and validity of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).

Subscale	Items
Intrinsic Satisfaction	1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, 20
Extrinsic Satisfaction	5, 6, 12, 13, 14, 17, 18, 19
The scales are summed.	

Study	Sample Size	Description of Sample	Reliability	Validity
Wanous (1974)	80	Female Telephone Operators	.71	Trait Validity
Schriesheim and Murphy(1976)	54	Social Service Counselors	.74 (Kuder-Richardson)	Trait Validity
Jermier and Berkes (1979)	158	Police Officers	.92 (Kuder-Richardson)	Trait Validity
Motowidlo and Borman (1978)	614	Army Soldiers	.84 Kuder-Richardson	Trait Validity
Arvey and Dewhirst (1976)	271	Scientists	.79.5 Test-retest reliability over one week	Trait Validity

A sufficient amount of reliability is important in order to ensure that posited relationships between the variables as measured by the instruments can be found. Low reliability of survey instruments strongly impacts a researcher's ability to find the relationship in the nomological network that the researcher attempts to measure.

A review of the validation of the two scales reveals that the trait validation procedure is the primary procedure used to establish validity and reliability of both measures (Spirituality in the workplace and job satisfaction). The results of the various previous validation studies are documented in the agenda. It should

be noted that some of the studies employed the Kuder-Richardson (K-R) formula rather than the Cronbach alpha formula. The Kuder-Richardson is a computational simplification of the Cronbach alpha formula and functionally equivalent. The review yielded an overwhelming evidence for validity and reliability of all three measures.

DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

The data collection will be conducted at a corporate regional sales meeting of a large manufacturing firm. One of the researchers will be responsible for the self-administered collection of these surveys.

Permission has been requested and confirmed from the Human Resource Department of this corporation. The head of the department will be informed about the purpose of the research and the details of the expected completion time of 30 minutes

The collected data will be analyzed using SPSS for Windows. In determining averages, blank answers will be ignored; and only those items answered will be averaged.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Currently there is limited knowledge about the relationship between workplace spirituality, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This empirical study is designed to determine the strength of the relationship between spirituality in the workplace, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The study addresses the following question:

Is spirituality in the workplace related to job satisfaction of sales personnel?

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are important variables that have been established as key variables impacting the performance of an organization. The hypotheses derived from the research question are stated next. The null hypothesis is stated first, followed by the alternative or research hypothesis.

SPIRITUALITY & JOB SATISFACTION

H_{01} : *There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction.*

H_{A1} : *There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction.*

H_{02} : *There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction by gender.*

H_{A2} : *There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction by gender.*

H₀₃: There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction in older respondents by age.

H_{A3}: There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction in older respondents by age.

H₀₄: There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction.

H_{A4}: There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction.

H₀₅: There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction by gender.

H_{A5}: There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction by gender.

H₀₆: There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction in older respondents by age.

H_{A6}: There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction in older respondents by age.

DATA ANALYSIS AND STRATEGY

The data analysis will follow a step-by-step approach as follows. In a first step, descriptive statistics of the individual items of each survey instrument will be reviewed in order to calculate the average, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of the variables. Outliers will also be reviewed and if necessary discarded from the analysis.

This step is important as a precursor to the validity and reliability study of this research. The key first step will be the calculation of the correlation matrix for each of the scales. It should be noted that departures from normality, homoscedacity and linearity only reduce the correlation between the items (Hair et, al. 1998, p. 99). Necessary remedial countermeasures will be taken as appropriate.

The correlation matrix provides the input matrix for the principal component analysis. Missing values will be handled via the “exclude cases listwise” procedure. Principal components analysis makes certain assumptions. The following key statistics will be reviewed to ensure that the appropriate conclusions are drawn from the results of the principal component analysis:

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity indicate to what degree there are significant correlations in the correlation matrix. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic is expected to exceed a value of .8, even though values of .6 are deemed acceptable.

Bartlett's test of sphericity tests the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. An identity matrix is matrix in which all of the diagonal elements are 1 and all off diagonal elements are 0. A researcher wants to reject this null hypothesis. The determinant is expected to be greater than zero. If the determinant is 0, then there will be computational problems with the component analysis, and SPSS may issue a warning message or be unable to complete the factor analysis.

Table 3: The Variables of Hypothesis Model Summary

Hypothesis	Variables	Operational Variables	Reference
H1	Spirituality in the workplace Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Spiritual Perceptive Scale Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire	Reed (1987) Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist (1967)
H2	Spirituality in the workplace Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Spiritual Perceptive Scale Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Gender	Reed (1987) Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist (1967)
H3	Spirituality in the workplace Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Spiritual Perceptive Scale Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Age	Reed (1987) Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist (1967)
H4	Spirituality in the workplace Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Spiritual Perceptive Scale Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire	Reed (1987) Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist (1967)
H5	Spirituality in the workplace Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Spiritual Perceptive Scale Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Gender	Reed (1987) Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist (1967)
H6	Spirituality in the workplace Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Spiritual Perceptive Scale Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Age	Reed (1987) Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist (1967)

Also, the anti-image correlation matrix and the extracted communalities will be reviewed and serve as a guide for remedial measures. Appropriate remedial or countermeasures will be performed as necessary. Taken together, these tests provide a minimum standard which should be passed before a factor analysis (or a principal components analysis) should be conducted.

As discussed above, the latent root criterion will be used to identify the number of components extracted. In accordance with the general literature on factor and principal components analysis, the Kaiser criterion will be set at an eigenvalue level of one (Hair et al. 1998, p. 103).

In a subsequent step the component matrix will be rotated using the varimax rotation. The rotated component pattern matrix will then be analyzed to determine to what degree it represents the dimensionality of the constructs as discussed in the literature.

As a final diagnostic check the reproduced correlation matrix and the residual correlation matrix will be reviewed. The residual correlation matrix should be close to zero if the component solution truly reproduces the original correlation matrix.

Next, the items that load highly on the rotated component matrix and that constitute the items measuring the appropriate construct will be submitted to a Cronbach alpha analysis. The Cronbach alpha is expected to exceed the critical value of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). If necessary items that show low total-item correlations may be deleted from the final scale.

Once trait validity and reliability have been established, the item scores for each of the variables will be calculated via an unweighted linear composite. In other words, the items will be summated in order to establish the score of the respondent on the spirituality in the workplace and job satisfaction scales.

Finally, the hypotheses will be tested via a multiple regression procedure. The summated ratings will be submitted to a stepwise regression analysis and the ANOVA table will be reviewed to determine if the posited correlations hold in the data matrix.

Hypothesis	Variables	Test
H1	Spirituality in the workplace Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Simple Regression (F-test), Milliman, Czablewski and Feguson (2003), $r = .26$, $p < 0.05$
H2	Spirituality in the workplace Intrinsic Job Satisfaction Gender	Comparison of unstandardized regression coefficient (Cohen 1983), no published results
H3	Spirituality in the workplace Intrinsic Job Satisfaction Age	Comparison of unstandardized regression coefficient (Cohen 1983), no published results
H4	Spirituality in the workplace Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Simple Regression (F-test), no published results
H5	Spirituality in the workplace Extrinsic Job Satisfaction Gender	Comparison of unstandardized regression coefficient (Cohen 1983), no published results
H6	Spirituality in the workplace Extrinsic Job Satisfaction Age	Comparison of unstandardized regression coefficient (Cohen 1983), no published results

Each set of the two variables independent variables (intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction) is also assumed to be moderated by two dichotomous variables (gender, age). The age dimension will be dichotomized at the category level 40. Thus, age categories will be dichotomized into respondents who are less than 40 years old and respondents who are 40 years and older. This research will take the recommendations of Baron and Kenny (1986) and test the impact of the moderator variables (gender and age) with the dependent variables by comparing the significance of the differences in the unstandardized regression coefficients. "It is almost always preferable to measure the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable not by correlations coefficients by unstandardized (not beta) regression coefficients (Baron and Kenney 1986, p. 1175). The key assumptions of linear regression i.e. normality of the errors, homoscedacity of the errors, independence of observations and independence of the error terms will be reviewed via residual analysis techniques. Also, multicollinearity will be assessed in order to ensure that the conclusions about the statistical significance of the dependent on the independent variables are appropriate. This study will use the variance inflation factor, which is expected to be less than 10 (Hair et al. 1998, p.170).

LIMITATIONS

As noted earlier, this study contributes to our current knowledge in that it continues the validation of the spirituality in the workplace construct both as a scale and in the context of a nomological network that contains job satisfaction. However, the study also has certain limitations and the study is conducted as a cross-sectional study and can, therefore, not establish causality. Causality is best established via longitudinal study or ideally in the context of a controlled experiment. Also, the study does not show the impact of spirituality in the workplace on business performance.

RESEARCH ANALYSIS

The data collected was compiled from six different locations in an area that was located in two geographically separated locations in Florida. The data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). A return rate of 95 percent was achieved, which was considerably higher than was anticipated.

A proportions difference test shows that males (56%) constituted a significantly larger proportion of respondents than females (44%, $p < 0.05$). The company that was included in the research employs more male than female employees in their sales division.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RESPONDENT SAMPLE

The population of employees of respondents can be described as follows: 122 employees (97.6%) were professional employees. Three employees (2.4%) were managers

Position	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Managerial	3	2.4	2.4	2.4
Professional	122	97.6	97.6	100.0
Total	125	100.0	100.0	

In terms of tenure, 36% of the employees were employed up to 10 years, 64% were employed more than 10 years. The workforce appears to be rather stable and not affected by a high employee turnover rate.

Tenure or Years with Company	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-5	2	1.6	1.6	1.6
6-10	43	34.4	34.4	36.0
11-15	33	26.4	26.4	62.4
16-20	24	19.2	19.2	81.6
21-25	21	16.8	16.8	98.4
over 25	2	1.6	1.6	100.00
Total	125	100.0	100.0	

In terms of ethnicity, 115, i.e. 92.9% of the employees self-identify as caucasians. The remaining 10 employees of the sample are equally split between 5 Hispanics (4.0%) and 5 employees who self-identify as Mixed Race (4.0%)

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Caucasian	115	92.0	92.0	92.0
Hispanic	5	4.0	4.0	96.0
Mixed Race	5	4.0	4.0	100.0
Total	125	100.0	100.0	100.0

The age of the employees are distributed as follows: 3 respondents (2.4%) are 25 – 34 years of age, 35 employees (28%) are 35 to 44 years of age, 43 respondents (34.5%) are 45 to 54 years of age and 55 of the respondents (35.2%) are 55 years and older.

Age of Employees	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
25-34	3	2.4	2.4	2.4
35-44	35	28.0	28.0	30.4
45-54	43	34.4	34.4	64.8
55 and up	44	35.2	100.0	
Total	125	100.0	100.0	

In terms of salary, 97 of the employees (77.6%) make salaries of less than \$60,000. The remaining 28 employees (22.4%) exceed a salary of \$60,000 a year.

Salary of Employees	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
21,000-30,000	2	1.6	1.6	1.6
31,000-40,000	35	28.0	28.0	29.6
41,000-50,000	43	34.4	34.4	64.0
51,000-60,000	17	13.6	13.6	77.6
61,000-70,000	16	12.8	12.8	90.4
71,000-80,000	11	8.8	8.8	99.2
81,000 and up	1	.8	.8	100.0
Total	125	100.0	100.0	

More than 25% of the cell counts are smaller than 5 counts (62.5%). This is primarily due to the low representation of female salespeople in the sample. Nevertheless, a cross tabulation of gender and age indicates that female sales personnel are underrepresented, particular in the age groups of 55 years and older (Chi-Square = .7522, d.f. = 3, p = 0.57). This finding while violating the assumptions of cross tabulation and Chi Square test is important in that it demonstrates that the female gender is underrepresented in the sample.

This in turn may affect the hypothesized moderating effect of gender in the hypothesis tests below. A distribution free test such as Kendall's tau-b shows a significant result and is appropriate for a rectangular table. The current table shows a Kendall tau-b of 2.233 and a p-value of 0.23. It confirms the findings of the chi-square test with non-parametric assumptions.

Table 10: Cross tabulation of age by gender (including standardized residuals)

Age of Participants * Gender of participants Crosstabulation

			Gender of participants		Total
			Female	Male	
Age of Participants	25 -34	Count	1	2	3
		Expected Count	.2	2.8	3.0
		Std. Residual	1.8	-.5	
	35-44	Count	3	32	35
		Expected Count	2.2	32.8	35.0
		Std. Residual	.5	-.1	
	45-54	Count	4	39	43
		Expected Count	2.8	40.2	43.0
		Std. Residual	.8	-.2	
	55 and up	Count	0	44	44
		Expected Count	2.8	41.2	44.0
		Std. Residual	-1.7	.4	
Total	Count	8	117	125	
	Expected Count	8.0	117.0	125.0	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.522 ^a	3	.057
Likelihood Ratio	8.549	3	.036
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.909	1	.027
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 5 cells (62.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .19.

Table 10: Kendall's tau-b on gender and age

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Ordinal by Ordinal	Kendall's tau-b	.179	.063	2.223	.026
N of Valid Cases		125			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

SCALE RELIABILITIES AND NORMALITY

The reliability of each scale exceeds the 0.70 threshold for research measurements as suggested by Nunnally (1978). The spirituality scale shows a Cronbach alpha of .86, the Intrinsic Satisfaction scale one of .86 and the Extrinsic Satisfaction scale one of .84. All scales exceed the minimum criterion set by Nunnally (1978) and are of sufficient reliability for the analysis.

Table 12: Reliabilities of the scales

Variable	Reliability (Alpha)	No. Items	Scale Mean	Scale Deviation
Spirituality	.86	10	5.13	.64
Intrinsic Satisfaction	.84	12	3.64	0.37
Extrinsic Satisfaction	.74	8	3.85	.34

Normality tests on the scales show that none of the scales is normally distributed. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality is significant for all of the scales at $p < 0.01$. The same information is provided by the review of the skewness and kurtosis statistics. However, one needs to keep in mind that regression analysis requires normality of the error distribution, not the normality of the distribution of the individual variables. Also, the skewness and kurtosis statistics are not so seriously skewed that the data require a transformation.

Table 13: Normality of scales

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Spirituality	.155	115	.000
Intrinsic Satisfaction	.097	115	.010
Extrinsic Satisfaction	.110	115	.002

^a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 14: Skewness and Kurtosis

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Spirituality	122	-1.039	.219	.328	.435
Intrinsic Satisfaction	120	-.691	.221	.988	.438
Extrinsic Satisfaction	123	-.605	.218	-.109	.433
Valid N (listwise)	115				

SCALE CORRELATION

Correlation analysis on the raw data shows that the linear correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction is high ($r = 0.567$, d.f. = 118, $p < 0.01$). The spirituality scale does not show a significant linear relationship with intrinsic satisfaction ($r = 0.080$, d.f. = 117, $p = 0.388$), or extrinsic satisfaction ($r = -0.004$, d.f. = 120, $p = 0.963$).

Table 15: Correlations between the three scales

		Correlations		
		Spirituality	Intrinsic Satisfaction	Extrinsic Satisfaction
Spirituality	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.080	-.004
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.388	.963
	N	122	117	120
Intrinsic Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.080	1.000	.567**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.388	.	.000
	N	117	120	118
Extrinsic Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-.004	.567**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.963	.000	.
	N	120	118	123

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

ANALYSIS OF HYPOTHESIS

In accordance with the recommendations by Baron and Kenny (1986), the moderating effects of gender and age will be investigated using regression analysis. The analysis will use the normalized scales rather than the original scales in correspondence with the correlation analysis discussed above.

Age is dichotomized at the age of 44. In other words, the age variable splits the respondents into two groups. One response group is categorized as up to 44 years old the other response group is categorized as older than 44 years.

Also, in order to test the interaction effect of the two moderating variables (gender, age) the categorical moderator variable is multiplied by the continuous independent variable spirituality. The moderating effect is then tested by the significance of the interaction effect of the moderating and the independent variable on the dependent variable of intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction in a hierarchical way via a moderating multiple regression procedure (MMR).

TEST ANALYSIS

H_{01} : *There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction.*

H_{A1} : *There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction.*

The linear correlation analysis discussed above showed that the linear relationship between spirituality in the workplace and intrinsic job satisfaction on the raw data is not significant. However, it may well be that the normalization of the scales yields a different result. As a matter of fact, once spirituality and intrinsic satisfaction are normalized, the correlation becomes significant ($r=0.285$, $d.f. = 102$, $p=0.004$). This results falls outside of the 95% confidence interval for correlations as calculated by Fisher's z formula which indicates that the confidence bounds of a correlation of 0.80 lies between -0.103 (lower bound) and 0.2.58 (upper bound). Because the correlation falls outside of these boundaries the calculated correlation of 2.85 is significantly different from 0.80. Correlations are highly variable, sample dependent and differences between correlations highly skewed. As a result, the 95% upper and lower bounds of a correlation should be calculated via Fisher's formula in order to determine if the difference between the two correlation coefficients is statistically significant and not just due to chance.

The researchers, therefore, conclude that we accept the alternative hypothesis and reject the null hypothesis that the correlation between the scales based on the raw data and the normalized scale is statistically significant. In addition, the researchers conclude the regression of spirituality and intrinsic satisfaction for the normalized data set is statistically significant. We reject the null hypotheses and accept the alternative hypothesis that spirituality predicts intrinsic satisfaction ($\beta = 0.285$, $d.f. = 101$, $p = 0.004$).

Table 16: Correlation between normalized Spirituality and Intrinsic scales

		Correlations	
		IS Normalized	SP Normalized
IS Normalized	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.285**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.004
	N	105	102
SP Normalized	Pearson Correlation	.285**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.
	N	102	107

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

Table 17: Regression Spirituality (normalized) – Intrinsic Satisfaction (normalized)

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.285 ^a	.081	.072	144.3889

a. Predictors: (Constant), SP Normalized

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	183899.1	1	183899.135	8.821	.004 ^a
	Residual	2084815	100	20848.152		
	Total	2268714	101			

a. Predictors: (Constant), SP Normalized

b. Dependent Variable: IS Normalized

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	840.286	33.597		25.011	.000
	SP Normalized	2.461E-03	.001	.285	2.970	.004

a. Dependent Variable: IS Normalized

H_{02} : *There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction by gender.*

H_{A2} : *There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction by gender.*

For this analysis also the normalized spirituality scale and the normalized intrinsic satisfaction scales were used. Based on the regression output we conclude that gender has no moderating effect on the relationship between the normalized intrinsic satisfaction scale and the normalized spirituality scale (beta = 0.446, d.f. = 101, $p = 0.656$).

We reject the alternative hypothesis and accept the null hypothesis that gender does not moderate the relationship between spirituality and intrinsic satisfaction.

Table 18: Regression: Spirituality (normalized) – intrinsic satisfaction (normalized) moderated by gender

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.288 ^a	.083	.064	144.9705

a. Predictors: (Constant), SP Normalized by Gender, SP Normalized

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	188086.8	2	94043.411	4.475	.014 ^a
	Residual	2080627	99	21016.439		
	Total	2268714	101			

a. Predictors: (Constant), SP Normalized by Gender, SP Normalized

b. Dependent Variable: IS Normalized

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	840.561	33.738		24.914	.000
	SP Normalized	1.186E-03	.003	.137	.399	.691
	SP Normalized by Gender	6.548E-04	.001	.154	.446	.655

a. Dependent Variable: IS Normalized

H_{03} : *There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction in older respondents by age.*

H_{A3} : *There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction in older respondents by age.*

For this analysis also the normalized spirituality scale and the normalized intrinsic satisfaction scales were used. Based on the regression output we conclude that age has a moderating effect on the relationship between the normalized intrinsic satisfaction scale and the normalized spirituality scale (beta = .0403, d.f. = 88, $p = 0.033$).

We reject the alternative hypothesis and accept the null hypothesis that age does not moderate the relationship between spirituality and intrinsic satisfaction.

Table 19: Regression: Spirituality (normalized) – intrinsic satisfaction (normalized) moderated by age

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.408 ^a	.166	.147	139.8950

a. Predictors: (Constant), SP Normalized * Age, SP Normalized

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	335363.0	2	167681.500	8.568	.000 ^a
	Residual	1683072	86	19570.610		
	Total	2018435	88			

a. Predictors: (Constant), SP Normalized * Age, SP Normalized

b. Dependent Variable: IS Normalized

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	819.573	35.803		22.891	.000
	SP Normalized	4.391E-05	.002	.005	.026	.979
	SP Normalized * Age	6.524E-04	.000	.403	2.164	.033

a. Dependent Variable: IS Normalized

Because normalization has no impact on the correlation between spirituality and extrinsic satisfaction the non-normalized, raw data were used for this part of the analysis.

H_{04} : *There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction.*

H_{A4} : *There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction.*

Based on the regression output we conclude there is no the relationship between extrinsic satisfaction and spirituality (beta = -0.004, d.f. = 119, p = 0.963). The researchers reject the alternative hypothesis and accept the null hypothesis that age does not moderate the relationship between spirituality and intrinsic satisfaction.

Table 20: Regression: Spirituality (non-normalized) – extrinsic satisfaction (non-normalized)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.004 ^a	.000	-.008	7.3834

a. Predictors: (Constant), Spirituality

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.116	1	.116	.002	.963 ^a
	Residual	6432.684	118	54.514		
	Total	6432.800	119			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Spirituality

b. Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	30.538	3.067		9.957	.000
	Spirituality	-2.89E-03	.063	-.004	-.046	.963

a. Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction

H_{05} : *There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and extrinsic job satisfaction by gender.*

H_{A5} : *There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and extrinsic Job satisfaction by gender.*

Based on the regression output we conclude that gender has no moderating effect on the relationship between the extrinsic satisfaction scale and spirituality scale (beta = 0.064, d.f. = 119, p = 0.693).

The researchers reject the alternative hypothesis and accept the null hypothesis that gender does not moderate the relationship between spirituality and intrinsic satisfaction.

Table 21: Regression: Spirituality (non-normalized) - extrinsic satisfaction (non-normalized) moderated by gender

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.037 ^a	.001	-.016	7.4099

a. Predictors: (Constant), Spirituality * gender, Spirituality

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.732	2	4.366	.080	.924 ^a
	Residual	6424.068	117	54.907		
	Total	6432.800	119			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Spirituality * gender, Spirituality

b. Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	30.338	3.119		9.726	.000
	Spirituality	-3.82E-02	.109	-.056	-.350	.727
	Spirituality * gender	2.045E-02	.052	.064	.396	.693

a. Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction

H_{06} : There is no correlation between spirituality in the workplace and extrinsic job satisfaction by age.

H_{A6} : There is a correlation between spirituality in the workplace and extrinsic Job satisfaction by age.

Based on the regression output the researchers conclude that age has no moderating effect on the relationship between the extrinsic satisfaction scale and spirituality scale (beta = -0.031, d.f. = 105, p = 0.801).

The researchers reject the alternative hypothesis and accept the null hypothesis that age does not moderate the relationship between spirituality and intrinsic satisfaction.

Table 22: Regression: Spirituality (non-normalized) - extrinsic satisfaction (normalized) moderated by age

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.037 ^a	.001	-.016	7.4099

a. Predictors: (Constant), Spirituality * age, Spirituality

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.732	2	4.366	.080	.924 ^a
	Residual	6424.068	117	54.907		
	Total	6432.800	119			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Spirituality * age, Spirituality

b. Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	30.338	3.119		9.726	.000
	Spirituality	-3.82E-02	.109	-.056	-.350	.727
	Spirituality * age	2.045E-02	.052	.064	.396	.693

a. Dependent Variable: Extrinsic Satisfaction

Table 23: Summary of Hypothesis tests

Hypothesis	Variables	Results
H1	Spirituality in the workplace Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Reject (null)
H2	Spirituality in the workplace Intrinsic Job Satisfaction Gender	Fail to Reject (null)
H3	Spirituality in the workplace Intrinsic Job Satisfaction Age	Reject (null)
H4	Spirituality in the workplace Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Fail to Reject (null)
H5	Spirituality in the workplace Extrinsic Job Satisfaction Gender	Fail to Reject (null)
H6	Spirituality in the workplace Extrinsic Job Satisfaction Age	Fail to Reject (null)

ADDITIONAL & CONTINGENT RESEARCH DISCOVERIES

The results show that gender does not moderate the effect of spirituality extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction at the alpha 0.05 level. What is interesting though that the majority of the rejected null hypotheses are related to extrinsic job satisfaction. Furthermore, age may have an impact on spirituality and intrinsic job satisfaction. These findings will be discussed in more detail.

Overall, gender may not moderate the impact of spirituality on intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic. By contrast, age moderates the relationship between spirituality and intrinsic satisfaction. The following is a key question that needs further clarification: Is Spirituality in the Workplace related to job satisfaction among sales personnel?

It is clear through research studies that the extent to which an employee is allowed and encouraged to express him or herself through spirituality is an indication, a tool of measurement, for his or her emotional and psychological state. One source states that “some individual level benefits of workplace spirituality include ‘increased physical and mental health of employees, advanced personal growth, and enhanced self worth’” (Krahnke, Giacalone and Jurkiewicz, 2003, p. 397). It is important to note that to study job satisfaction is to place emphasis on the psychological process instead of the physical (Spector, 1997).

INTRINSIC JOB SATISFACTION

Hirschfield’s (2000) study that intrinsic job satisfaction is how people feel about the nature of their job tasks and the impressions of job satisfaction are formed from feelings related to the facets of job satisfaction with work, coworkers, supervision, pay and promotion opportunities. The identified dimension of Spirituality in the Workplace may work independently or in unison to create higher levels of satisfaction with the various facets of job satisfaction.

This study did not find a simple correlation between spirituality in the workplace and intrinsic job satisfaction based on the raw data, but it showed a significant relationship when the scales are normalized. In addition, it shows that the relationship between spirituality and intrinsic job satisfaction is moderated by age. This indicates that the relationship between spirituality in the workplace and intrinsic job satisfaction is more complex than originally thought as expressed in the literature. Also, future researchers should make sure that the sample size is adequate to detect a significant correlation.

Snedecor & Cochran (1996) demonstrate that in order to find a correlation of .113 a sample size of at least 300 responds is needed, Aguinis (2005) states that the effect sizes in the social sciences may be lower than originally expected by Cohen (1988). It is not unusual to find correlations or effect size of moderating variables lower than .10, a result other researchers may consider conducted a study in this research area with sample sizes larger than 300.

EXTRINSIC JOB SATISFACTION

Hirschfield (2000) indicated that extrinsic job satisfaction is how people feel about different aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks for work assignments. Within the last fifteen years, research has emerged that a five-factor model of personality, often termed the Big Five can be used to describe the most salient aspects of personality. Although the five factor model has been researched in many areas of industrial organizational psychology, with a majority of the research going to job performance, the relationship of the five-factor model to satisfaction is much less studied. The variables of the five factor model are neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness which are linked in the research to extrinsic job satisfaction (Judge, 2002).

This study found no simple correlation between spirituality in the workplace and extrinsic job satisfaction. However, spirituality in the workplace and extrinsic job satisfaction are moderated by gender. Further researchers may investigate why spirituality in the workplace and extrinsic job satisfaction are moderated by gender. The findings of this research showed that the relationship between spirituality in the workplace and extrinsic job satisfaction are higher in males than in female respondents. Male respondents may have a higher level of extrinsic job satisfaction however; spirituality in the workplace could have an impact on this relationship. This type of question needs to be investigated with an experimental design. A cross sectional study, as was conducted in this research can demonstrate a moderating effect but cannot determine why this relationship holds.

The ultimate goal of this research was to use a current theory with practical implications for creating a positive workplace environment. In this way, human resource professionals and corporate executives may implement practices that lead to further growth in employee development, increased job performance, lower turnover rates, higher profits, and long term employee satisfaction and employee retention. Neck and Manz (1992) propose a developmental model called Thought Self-Leadership (TSL) that states that self-talk, emotion and mental imagery mediate between schema and automatic thoughts; that self-efficacy mediates between performance and self-talk and mental imagery; that scripts, which are schema about events, mediate between automatic thought and behavior. Neck and Manz (1996) propose that TSL training should teach leaders to understand, and change, where necessary or desired, beliefs and scripts. Leaders should be taught how to control self-talk, and how to use mental imagery positively. They should be helped to understand and work with emotions, and lastly, should be provided with experiences to boost their self-efficacy.

Bandura (1986) had suggested that self-efficacy or confidence can be defined as individual judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances. This is not concerned with the skills of the individuals, but with the beliefs about what they can do with whatever skills they possess. The Thought Self Leadership (TSL) model provides a rationale and focus model for leadership, development training and provides scholars and practitioners with an empirically tested model that will significantly impact organizations. Job satisfaction has been directly linked to several other beneficial organizational outcomes (Mowday, 1979). Neck (1994) indicates and suggests that the Thought Self Leadership theory can change employee cognitions and perceptions of their jobs, specifically the model's framework involves an employee's observed and current thought patterns, then

develops and substitutes a new constructive cognitive processes. These constructive thought patterns can lead to an enhanced perception and greater sense of spirituality in work, which in turn will lead to greater employee creativity, motivation, and organizational commitment.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The current study was designed to demonstrate that spirituality in the workplace has a positive effect on job satisfaction. This study revealed that participants believed that when they practiced spirituality at work, it made a more significant difference in their level of individual job satisfactions than it did within the overall organizational culture. Because spirituality is viewed as an individual pursuit, it was difficult for participants to perceive it as an organizational endeavor. Further, the organization represented by this research had no formal corporate spiritual practices in place; the participants had no empirical grid from which to draw organizational conclusions about spiritual practices. It was recognized through this study that a very few of the participants initially understood the terms spirituality or spirituality in the workplace. Without such an explanation, it was left up to the participants to determine their own reasoning for participating in this survey, since this was a blind survey with very few instructions.

The full benefits of spirituality in the workplace are for productivity, job satisfaction and continued organizational commitment. These benefits will not be realized without a sustained, cultural transformation at all levels of the organization. When this transformation happens the corporation should expect to see the following changes in the workplace:

- Management will learn to listen and build a safe place where employees can speak the truth without fear of repercussions.
- The organization will become purpose-driven and meaning driven.
- Management with a mission will replace management of efficiency and control.
- Management practices and decisions will be clearly consistent with spiritual values such as integrity, honesty, love, hope, kindness, respect, and nurturing.
- Spirituality is bringing passion, your heart, soul and spirit to what you do. Work from a spiritual perspective, will take on a deeper meaning and serve a higher purpose.
- There is a shared attitude that products and services are beneficial to community and humanity.
- Management will value employees based on who they are, and what they can become, rather than what they can do for the company.
- Leaders will break down the walls of hierarchy to create a sense of community and inspire a sense of belonging in the workers.
- A spiritual dimension will be fully integrated with ever aspect of work life, such as relationships, planning, budgeting, negotiation, and compensation.
- There will be a move from command and control leadership to horizontal servant leadership and/or spiritual leadership principles, both of which emphasize empowering, delegation, and cooperation.
- There will be an improvement in morale, job satisfactions, loyalty and productivity.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Further research should be done utilizing data that would be designed to demonstrate the top fifty major markets in the United States. Since there is no confirmed research in this area comparing the variables of spirituality in the workplace and job satisfaction finding and keeping the right people with the right skills presents a major challenge for organizations today. Engaging employees to voluntarily deliver maximum effort in key strategic areas adds another dimension to this research. It is essential to consider worker's needs for meaning and fulfillment in order to unleash their full potential, and employees to derive satisfaction and organizational commitment from their work. As indicated by this study, it is refreshing to discover that more and more organizations are embracing spiritual values. The present spiritual movement is probably the most significant trend in organizational behavior since the 1950's leaders are more willing to take spiritual and moral values seriously. This trend will continue to endure, simply due to the fact that it speaks to the deeper needs of the human fears, and provides a promising remedy to declining job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Spirituality in the workplace research is hindered by its lack of grounding in theoretical and empirical literature. However, this has not only hampered development of the field, but in a profound way has artificially reduced its importance. Although this research did not establish a direct link between spirituality in the workplace and job satisfaction, has provided an enlightened business attitude on the part of the researcher to create the benefit of creating a more compassionate, caring and ethical workplace. This result alone would be good news for people who spend most of their adult lives at work. In these turbulent times, it is only natural that workers turn to spirituality in the workplace for remedies, security and inner peace, and corporate America has a obligation, a duty, to build organizations that help build people's spirits, commitments and job satisfaction. Since many people have to work longer hours and longer years just to survive financially, there is a greater need for them to incorporate the spiritual aspects of their lives into their work. The hunger for spirituality in the workplace and meaning among aging baby boomers may also contribute to this movement. Similarly, the increasing number of women joining and working in the 21st century also creates a demand for caring and nourishing in the workplace. This research indicated that there is a widespread belief that for companies to survive into the 21st century in the face of economical downturn and global competition, it would be helpful for leaders and employees to tap into their spiritual resources.

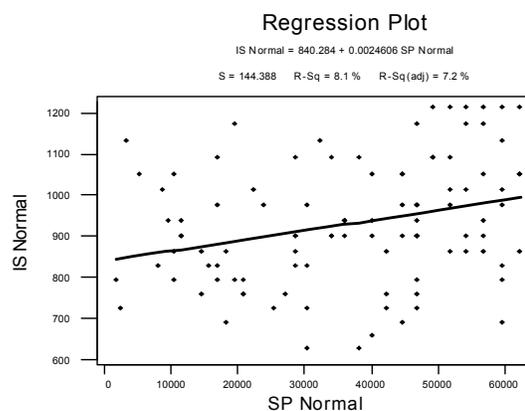
It is clear from the data that participants have a lot to say about the subject that was researched. The pragmatic tools by which to test and understand what is going on in the workplace as it relates to spirituality in the workplace needs refinement and precision. The quantitative responses were unexpectedly rich and the researcher did not count on such a high percentage of quantitative participation. Giacalone (2003) indicates that the scientific study of workplace spirituality will bring forth a new development in the organizational sciences. The potentially groundbreaking nature of this research leaves no doubt that the intuitively positive relationship between spirituality in the workplace, job satisfaction and organizational commitment has a relationship to transform individual and organizational life in ways unrestricted by natural laws. In the years to come, organizations must seek to develop any option possible that can result in a competitive advantage.

Developing a spiritual vision can bind an employee to the company and enhance job performance and organizational commitment.

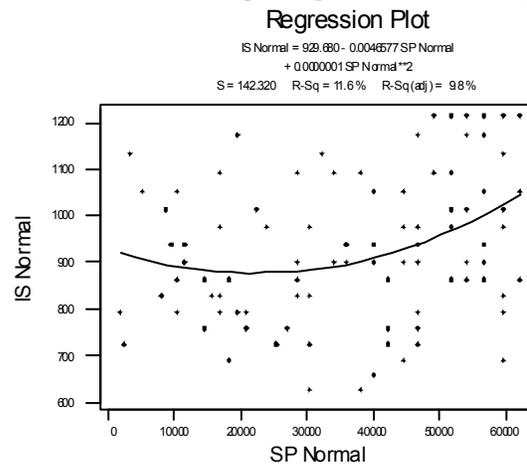
There is also an opportunity to further review the relationship between spirituality and intrinsic satisfaction. Preliminary data shows that a curvilinear rather than a fitted regression line may increase the variance accounted for by the statistical model. While it is too early to make any conclusive statements, an explanatory analysis showed that this is indeed the case with the existing data set. While the difference may be spurious, the fact that a rather small data set (125 salespeople) was used may indicate that future research should further test the hypothesis. Of course, there is always the challenge that a higher order regression model may over fit the data because it may be specific for a particular dataset. The following shows a preliminary analysis based on a linear versus a cubic model.

The following figure suggests that in addition to the requirement of normalization, the relationship between spirituality and intrinsic satisfaction may be curvilinear rather than linear. R^2 increases from 8.1% to 11.9% when the assumption of a linear relationship is changed to that of a curvilinear relationship. While the difference is small and may be statistically insignificant it emphasizes again the need to ensure that the statistical properties of the relationship are fundamentally reviewed prior to running the hypothesis tests. As noted earlier, correlation analysis should be run with large sample sizes and the sample size of 125 may be too small to detect a significant difference in a potential curvilinear relationship between the variables that is both significant and has a practical effect size. Other areas such as marketing currently investigate the nature of the relationship and here also the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty may be curvilinear rather than linear (Steuker and de Ruyter, 2004).

Graph 1: Graphical relationship of the impact of Spirituality on Intrinsic Satisfaction assuming a simple linear relationship



**Graph 2: Graphical relationship of the impact of Spirituality on Intrinsic Satisfaction
assuming a simple linear relationship**



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STEREOTYPE THREAT IN MANUAL LABOR SETTINGS FOR HISPANIC AND CAUCASIAN PARTICIPANTS

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ABSTRACT

Stereotype threat, primarily studied in academia with test performance, aptitude, ability, and intelligence, impacts performance and causes both behavioral and cognitive decrements. Research in the workplace has usually looked at upper-level or more academically-based job tasks. This paper concentrates on how stereotype threat impacts those in manual labor workplace settings, specifically with Caucasians and Hispanics, and sought to test subjects on a behavioral task in a workplace setting to see if the results mirror those in academia. Stereotype threat in academic settings has been shown to cause both behavioral and cognitive decrements, and it was theorized that stereotype threat would cause performance decrements for the Hispanics, more so than Caucasians. Participants were undergraduate students, 60 Caucasian and 36 Hispanics. All performed two manual labor tasks, sorting and assembling nuts and bolts, and a math test, half while under stereotype threat and half without stereotype threat manipulation. Results yielded significant differences between ST and NST condition for Hispanics on the non-academic/manual labor tasks, but not on the academic task administered during the study.

INTRODUCTION

Prior to the creation of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) and the Civil Rights Act, both in 1964, as well as various employment legislation, the American workforce was segregated, those segmented groups a reflection of homogenous ethnic, socioeconomic, religious, gender, and other demographic-related traits. There has been a dramatic increase in immigration especially from countries South of the United States into the Southern United States, in addition to the legal formalities, has lead to an increase in women, minority, and immigrant workers. Technology has flattened organizational structure and the workplace has become increasingly global. All of this has led to an increased focus on workplace diversity, and the benefits of being able to maneuver within a diverse work environment. There are benefits to a diverse workforce, such a as penetrating untapped markets, gaining a competitive advantage, and having a creative edge (Roberson & Kulik, 2007) and, the more diverse a company's workforce,

the more diverse and innovative the company's culture, strategic plan, and communication network (Jackson, Brett, Sessa, Cooper, Julin, & Peyronnin, 1991).

A large segment of the American workforce is the manual labor population, which has, in the past, most especially during the industrial revolution, was comprised of an immigrant population. This industry has also been traditionally and overwhelmingly male, regardless of race. Minorities have had a historically occupational disadvantage relative to non-minority workers in the American workforce, and some of these patterns of occupational inequality between the groups continue today (Bound & Freeman, 1992; Fassinger, 2008). Minorities, immigrants, and even women find restricted access, unequal compensation, unofficial segregation, inadequate, underutilization, and underemployment. Often times, the feelings of inequality can impact performance and productivity on the job, which is a way to monitor employee performance and measure productivity, an evaluation of one's efficiency (outputs/inputs) and effectiveness (outputs/goals; Pritchard, 1995). Given the findings in academia, concerning stereotype threat's affect on academic tasks, productivity and test performance may be parallel variables, and the presence of stereotype threat in the workplace has proven to have similar effects in workplace and academic settings. However, much of the research has been in the area of more intellectual workplace environments, such as in management, accounting, and education. Given this previous research, two questions remain: How does stereotype threat affect simple (i.e., manual labor) work performance, and will the results mirror those in academic settings? If we look at the antecedents of stereotype threat in academic settings as applied in the workplace, we see that it is likely.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The workplace dynamic, inundated with women and minority workers, has shifted, and managers cannot ignore the shift. These various groups coming together in the workforce also bring one's generalizations about the world and those with whom they interact, often times based on stereotypes. Basically, a stereotype is a, generalization, or a consensus of members of a group with regard to the attributes of that group or individual (Mooney, Knox, & Schacht, 2004). Stereotypes are common place, but can be regarded in many viewpoints, such as with group membership (i.e. ethnic groups) (Brigham, 1971). Stereotypes are a combination of components, rather than a single, 2-dimensional idea. Often, a component is negative (Katz & Braly, 1935), but it also relates to fixed generalizations involving a group, often based on cultural traits, ethnic characteristics, beliefs, social status, or impressions given by groups or individuals, many times oversimplified overgeneralizations (Coon, 1994). People can use stereotypes to describe others, especially in foreign situations, a completely natural human inclination, and they serve to process and filter all incoming information, sorting the information into usable and understandable categories that help people function in unfamiliar situations. They help in setting expectations about these unfamiliar scenarios and making generalizations about unknown people or groups (Jones, 1990).

What is Stereotype Threat?

Stereotype threat is ultimately the presence or perception of a stereotype. Stereotype threat concludes that not only is there a stereotype present, but that there is a fear that one's behavior will confirm a stereotype of a group that one identifies with is something more, and has different consequences. It is the threatening feeling that arises when self-stereotypes are activated and that the activation of such stereotypes, as theorized, can lead to poor performance (Steele & Aronson, 1995; Steele, 1997). Stereotype threat has been found to hamper one's ability to succeed, a central theme in both affirmative action and job discrimination claims, among other consequences. Today's stereotypes of minorities in the workforce vary, but job performance can still be impacted, regardless. For instance, African-American workers can be stereotyped as being unintelligent, loud, poor, and criminal (McAndrew & Akande, 1995); however, there are also many positive stereotypes, such as athletic and musical (Devine & Elliot, 1995). Hispanics, often referred to as being anything from hard working to illegally working the country (Cain, 2004; Weaver, 2005), also have the impact of both positive and negative stereotypes. Both negative and positive stereotypes can impact performance, regardless if the stereotype is in reference to intelligence. For instance, Hispanics are seen as being hard working (Cain, 2004; Weaver, 2005), but this stereotype can impact two fold. First, it can negatively impact manual labor performance in trying to live up to the standard being set. Second, it can motivate Hispanics to perform consistently, regardless of condition, on academic tasks.

Targeted Groups

The majority of stereotype threat work has evaluated its impact on women and African-Americans, although other groups have been explored. This research wanted to look at how Hispanics, and the increased growth of the Hispanic population in the United States. From 1990 to 2000, the Hispanic population doubled in size and as of July 2010, there were an estimated 47.8 million Hispanics in the United States, equating to 15.5% of the total population (Owens, 2006), Hispanics are the fastest growing minority group in the US, and it is estimated that this minority group will reach over 100 million (over 24% of the population) by 2050 (Owens, 2006; Knight, 2007). Over 31% of professional positions, 26.8% of the construction and maintenance (i.e. manual labor) industry, 22.8% of the production and transportation industry are made up of Hispanic workers (Owens, 2006). This does not mean that they are necessarily immigrants CENSUS. Foreign-born workers accounted for 49 % of labor-force growth between 1995 and 2005 (Rakesh, 2007), some legally allowed to work in the United States and some illegally entering the country. The illegal immigration debate has sparked numerous political and social issues. Immigration is also a workplace debate, as companies try to find the most cost-effective labor, having an impact on domestic-born, non-immigrant, and non-Hispanic workers.

More than 66% of the Hispanic population in the United States is of Mexican descent (Owens, 2006), so it is common for non-Hispanic Americans to assume that all Hispanics are of Mexican lineage (i.e., that the terms are interchangeable). With the illegal immigration debate of recent years, both negative and positive stereotypes are evident. Of course, the illegal immigration debate has brought up assumptions that Hispanic workers are illegal and taking jobs that were intended for American citizens. However, there are positive views of the Hispanic and, more specifically, the Mexican cultural group (Cain, 2004), such as strong work ethic, commitment to family, and passionate about life. Many of the stereotypes concerning Hispanics have changed over time. For instance, Weaver (2005) found that the positive view of Hispanics in the United States has steadily increased from 1990 to 2000. Attributions of strong work ethic, accumulated wealth, and increased intelligence have been made concerning Hispanics. It is evident that different types of stereotypes (i.e. negative and positive) may differentially influence how stereotype threat is interpreted.

Research in Academia

The presence of stereotype threat has been shown to have an effect on the performance of intelligence-based tasks on standardized tests (Good, Aronson, & Inzlicht, 2003), in laboratory studies (Steele & Aronson, 1995), in the classroom (Cole, Matheson, & Anisman, 2007; Good, Aronson, & Harder, 2008; Keller, 2007; Neuville & Croizet, 2007), and tasks thought to be “culture free,” relatively pure measures of cognitive ability (Klein, Pohl, & Ndagijimana, 2007). Stereotype threat has also been shown to impact non-intellectual tasks with such groups as Caucasians in athletics (Stone, Sjomeling, Lynch & Darley, 1999), women in athletics (Stone & McWhinnie, 2008), women in negotiation (Kray, Galinsky, & Thompson, 2002), gay men in childcare (Bosson, Haymovitz, & Pinel, 2004), the elderly in memory performance (Levy, 1996), and women in driving (Yeung & von Hippel, 2008). Although the above tasks are behavioral in nature, little of the research addresses stereotype threat on manual-labor tasks in manual-labor environments. Although the current study investigates stereotype threat outside the academic domain, it is still important to review what has been done in that domain in order to get a complete understanding of the construct. Both cognitive and behavioral effects have been measured during stereotype threat manipulation in various academic settings, resulting in decreased performance and self-handicapping.

Despite demographic trends in the U.S., much of the research regarding stereotype threat has focused on African-American responses, rather than Hispanic or Latin American groups. Even so, it has been found that stereotype threat can occur based on any social identity where there exists a stereotype of poor performance, including Latino populations. Gonzales, Blanton, and Williams (2002) studied female Caucasian and Latin American undergraduates by having participants complete a difficult test of analytical and mathematical ability. Participants were placed in one of two conditions: half being told that the test was an indicator of not only their actual abilities but

their liabilities as well; and, the other half receiving no mention of ability or limitations. Latin American women, just as African-American participants in other studies, performed worse than Caucasians in the first condition, while there was no difference between Latin American and Caucasian women in the second condition. Similar findings were shown for Latin American men as well.

Consequences of Stereotype Threat

Steele and Aronson (1995) and Steele (1997) proposed a stereotype threat theory, centering on the threatening feelings that present themselves when negative self-stereotypes are activated, often leading to decreased performance on various tasks, thus hampering one's ability to succeed. The impact of stereotype threat comes in a variety of forms, such as decreased performance, self-handicapping, and disengagement.

Decreased Performance

Stereotype threat was first formally addressed by Steele and Aronson (1995) in academics by administering the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) African-American and Caucasian college students and, as predicted, African-American students' scores decreased under the stereotype manipulation condition, concluding that the drop in performance for the minority group was a result of the stereotype threat manipulation in the study largely caused by the test-takers dividing attention between trying to answer the test questions, concentrating on the content of the test, and trying to assess the self-significance of the participant's frustration. Stereotype threat was also shown to make the students anxious, and that these effects were magnified when the stereotype threat was blatantly racial. The impact of stereotype threat is especially evident in situations where subjects identify with a domain, particularly when the test is assessing a trait of the domain (Spencer, Steele & Quinn, 1999; O'Brien & Crandall, 2003; Stricker & Bejar, 2004) or when the tasks required higher, more developed (Wicherts, 2005; Neuville & Croizet, 2007).

Self-Handicapping

Barriers to performance can be established by individuals, thus providing "external" attributions for failure, referred to as self-handicapping, which enables individuals to blame the barriers for the under-performance, rather than deficits in motivation or talent. African-American students in the Steele and Aronson (1995) study under stereotype threat tended to place blame for possible test under-performance. Individuals under stereotype threat have also tend to prepare less, exert less effort, or create a priori of excuses for potential failure (Stone, 2002; Steele & Aronson, 1995; Keller, 2002), even if doing so could harm performance, as see with Caucasian and Hispanic subjects (Stone, 2002). The degree to which an individual takes part in self-handicapping led to

lower performance. There is also evidence of task discounting, such as justifying poor performance in terms of the validity or reliability of the task, labeling it “tricky” or “unfair” (Keller, 2002; Lesko & Corpus, 2006).

Disengagement

When stereotype threat leads individuals to distance themselves from a threatening domain, or suggest that performance in a domain is unrelated to self-worth, is termed disengagement (Crocker, Major, & Steele, 1998; Major, Spencer, & Schmader, 1998). Disengagement occurs when one expects to work under threat of stereotype and, when one becomes disengaged, "self-views" become disconnected from performance in the domain. For example, a person might perform poorly on an intelligence test and discount the performance levels, saying the test was not really an accurate test of intelligence. Although disengagement can protect an individual (e.g., Major et. al, 1998), it can also reduce motivation, interest, and even achievement (Steele, 1997), especially when made aware of the stereotype attributes (Steele & Aronson, 1995; Davies, Spencer, & Steele, 2005). "Disidentification" can result from disengagement if an individual copes with long-term threat by avoiding the domain or detaching one's identity from a domain (Steele, James & Barnett, 2002; Osborne, 2007; Osborne & Walker, 2006).

Causes and Antecedents

There are also particular antecedents to stereotype threat that increase the chances of being affected by and being susceptible to stereotype threat, such as cognitive load and anxiety, self-fulfilling prophecy, self-esteem and social identity, stigma consciousness, solo status, and collective threat.

Cognitive Load, Anxiety, and Stress

Stereotype threat conditions have been shown to increase anxiety levels along with lowering performance on complex intellectual tasks (Spencer et al., 1999; Stone et al., 1999), and it has been conceptualized (Schmader & Johns, 2003; Croziet et al., 2004) that the increase in fear and/or anxiety leads to an increase in cognitive load, which refers to the “load” on working memory during thinking, reasoning, and problem solving, including perceptions (Sweller, 1988). Conditions for success are optimal when the load on working memory, which is the temporary storing and processing of information and has a limited capacity, is lightest (Engle & Kane, 2004). Capacity can be impacted by both one’s ability to handle stress, including stereotype threat (Redick & Engle, 2006), and the ability for someone to focus on a task by eliminating task-irrelevant thoughts, and overload (i.e. in a stressful testing situation) can cause frustration, anxiety, and distraction (Schmader & Johns, 2003). Anxiety seems to be the culprit in overloading cognitive load in

minorities under stereotype threat as well, and anxiety paired with fear can increase cognitive load even more (Osborne, 2001; Wicherts, Dolan & Hessen, 2005). The more anxiety derived from actual experiences, in particular female and minority members, the lower performance (Bosson et al., 2004).

Self-Fulfilling Prophecy

Self-fulfilling prophecy is a prediction that may sufficiently influence a person so that one's actions and reactions ultimately fulfill the prediction (Merton, 1968; Wilkins, 1976), usually directly or indirectly causes itself to become true. Behavior confirmation, a specific type of self-fulfilling prophecy where expectations induce people to act in way consistent with those expectations (Snyder, Tanke & Berscheid, 1977), is an external threat, involving a situational threat of being stereotyped (Steele, 1999). Stereotypes can prompt under-performance in stigmatized groups in the workplace, an implicit response to the biased behavior of others outside of the group (Word, Zanna & Cooper, 1974). Stereotype threat can alter subjects' professional identities and career path aspirations (Steele, James, & Barnett, 2002, Brodish & Devine, 2009), and yield poorer performance on job interviews (Word, Zanna & Cooper, 1974).

Self-Esteem and Social Identity

Social identity theory holds that a person's self-image consists of both individual and group components, claiming that a person derives one's self-image not only from one's own idea of who they are but also from the group to which they belong (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Self-categorization theory says that people identify with particular social groups to achieve a sense of who they are, and identification with a group that is reflective of the individual's personal beliefs can increase self-esteem (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher & Wetherell, 1987). Self-esteem, a reflection of a person's own self-worth, of a stereotyped group member was shown to drop in part due to how negative the group was defined (Cohen and Garcia, 2005). In social situations, people take on particular social identities according to situational cues they encounter, such as a minority being outnumbered in a situation (Murphy, Steele & Gross, 2007), and might alert someone to the possibility of psychological and/or physical threats, such as isolation or ostracism. Social identities, to which minorities are more sensitive to, can become vulnerable when stereotypes are invoked during performance, blatantly or otherwise (Steele & Aronson, 1995), and can lead to performance decrements (Wiley, 2001 and Marx & Goff, 2005).

Stigma Consciousness

Every situation hints at possible discrimination for groups traditionally targeted by negative stereotypes, such as Hispanics, African-Americans, and women, and these group members

recognize that group membership plays a role in how they interact and how others interact with them. People with high stigma-conscious are more likely to perceive and therefore experience stereotyping, especially minority workers who have been shown to be more aware of stereotypes in the workforce and usually confirm the stereotype, whether for the individual or the group (Pinel & Paulin, 2005). Even the mere exposure to a stereotype, without the subjects displaying any of the stereotypical traits, can produce performance decrements (Josephs, Newman, Brown & Beer, 2003), even if the stereotype or high stigma consciousness is unjustifiable (Pinel & Paulin, 2005).

Solo Status

Solo status has been shown to activate the potential for stereotyping (Stangor, Carr & Kiang, 1998). In situations where one is the only representative of a stereotyped group, there is heightened group identity leading to decrements in performance (Stangor et al., 1998; Inzlicht & Ben-Zeev, 2000; Beaton, Tougas, Rinfret, Huard & Delisle, 2007; Sekaquaptewa, Waldman & Thompson, 2007).

Collective Threat

The worry with many stereotype situations is confirming a stereotype with one's performance, yet stereotype threat can also incorporate concerns with the actions of other group members, referred to as collective threat, confirming a stereotype, thus being reflective of the entire group's performance and negatively impacting those capable of performing the task (Cohen and Garcia, 2005). People are threatened with how another member's poor performance will impact the way the group is viewed (Schmader, 2002), and these collective threats harm self-esteem, especially in minority subjects, and has led to lower efficacy in math, higher gender stereotype activation, and greater social distancing and less imitative behavior.

STUDY SET-UP

Problem Statement

Two hypotheses were tested:

- (1) *The presence of stereotype threat in manual labor task lowers test performance in the Hispanic, as compared to the Caucasian, and*
- (2) *the presence of stereotype threat in an academic task lowers test performance in the Hispanic, as compared to the Caucasian, group.*

Methodology

Laboratory experiments have shown stereotype threat depresses scores on various achievement tests in minority and other stigmatized groups (Steele et al., 2002) and, although the ultimate goal is to take these results to the field (i.e. manufacturing environment), the impact of stereotype threat was evaluated in workplace-type settings in a controlled environment, where legal issues, OSHA regulations, and employee relations' issues do not skew the basic study of social cognition and the affect on basic work performance. In laboratory research of this nature, other variables that might have an effect on work performance in the field (e.g. temperature, legal constraints, equipment malfunctions, time allotted to task, status/position interference) were eliminated, or were at least controlled. In the field, these factors are not controlled and thus its influence on results is not clear.

Participants

Participants were Texas A&M – Commerce students, both undergraduate and graduate, and were asked to complete the non-academic and academic tasks in the same room located on campus at Texas A&M University – Commerce. Two groups of college students, both male and female, between the ages of 18 and 40 were studied: 60 Caucasian participants and 36 Hispanic participants. There were a total of 46 males (31 Caucasian and 15 Hispanic) and 50 females (29 Caucasians and 21 Hispanic). There were 18 males in the stereotype threat condition 1 (11 Caucasian and 7 Hispanic) and 28 males in the non-stereotype threat condition 2 (20 Caucasian and 8 Hispanic). For females, 30 were in the stereotype threat condition 1 (19 Caucasian and 11 Hispanic) and 20 were in the non-stereotype threat condition 2 (10 Caucasian and 10 Hispanic). Participants were not in rooms of mixed race, but grouped and examined only with those of the same racial group, and were submitted to two conditions: with and without stereotype threat.

Condition 1 - Setting and Procedure (Presence of Stereotype Threat)

In Condition 1, the stereotype threat condition, classroom notes were written on the board at the front of the classroom. In the stereotype threat condition for the Hispanic participants the notes focused on Hispanic Civil Rights leaders of the 1960s, activating activate thoughts concerning race. Attention was not drawn to the notes by the researcher but, to ensure that the notes were seen, participants had chairs and tables facing the notes and were asked to sit and wait quietly until the experiment began. Participants were asked to complete the first of two non-academic (manual labor) tasks. The first task was to sort three distinctively different sized bolts and screws. Participants were timed and the lower the score (time), the better the results. The second task asked students to spend seven minutes assembling nut-bolt combinations, twisting the nuts completely onto the bolts, and, the more assembled in that period of time, the better the results.

Participants were then given 15 minutes to complete a 10-question math worksheet from the TAKS (see www.tea.state.tx.us).

Condition 2 - Setting and Procedure (Control)

In Condition 2, the control condition, classroom notes were written on the dry erase board in the front of the classroom regarding the top 15 countries' Gross Domestic Product (GDP), so that students entered the room thinking that there has been an economic classroom lecture. To maximize the probability that the notes will be seen, participants' chairs and tables were facing the notes and asked to sit and wait quietly until the experiment begins. The instructions, tasks, and procedures of the control group (condition 2) remained the same as that of condition 1.

Materials

For the first manual labor task, each student received 90 bolts (30 of each size). For the second manual labor task, 31 nuts and bolts were provided for each student, in groups of three. All materials for each manual labor task were provided in a large plastic bag, along with 3 plastic boxes for the sorting task. The math worksheet contained problems from the basic Texas standardized test for 11th graders (i.e. exit exam). The questionnaire, which was administered at the end of the study, asked for demographic information, as survey of the study, and the Collective Self-Esteem Scale – Race Specific (CSES), which evaluates the degree to which a person identifies with one's race.

STUDY FINDINGS

The initial round of analysis eliminated difference in gender for both races. It was hypothesized that performance on both the academic and non-academic tasks would be negatively impacted by the presence of stereotype threat for minority participants; however, Hispanics only had significant decreased performance on the manual labor/non-academic tasks. During the experiment, the total time in sorting bolts and screws, the total number of assembled nut-bolt combinations, and the score on the mathematics test for each racial group were documented. Each of these categories were compared using a 2 (Race) X 2 (Stereotype Threat) repeated measures MANOVA, which showed that stereotype threat did impact performance as a whole with regard to race: $F(1, 94) = 6.825$ ($p < .001$) and stereotype threat condition, $F(1, 94) = 3.881$ ($p < .071$), but not so much for the interaction, $F(1, 94) = 1.633$ ($p < .137$), most likely since there was not a significant impact of stereotype threat on Hispanics on the academic task, revealed in subsequent one-way ANOVAs and post-hoc.

Sorting Task

When comparing the grand means for the sorting task, under stereotype threat condition, it took Hispanics , there was a main effect for stereotype threat condition, $F(1, 92) = 3.457$ ($p < .066$), revealing that, under stereotype threat condition, it took longer for participants to complete the task stereotype threat condition ($\mu = 80.17$ seconds), compared to the non-threat condition ($\mu = 66.39$ seconds). Further, there was a significant interaction between race and stereotype threat for the sorting task, $F(1, 92) = 7.02$ ($p < .001$). There was also a significant main effect for race on the sorting task, $F(1, 92) = 13.677$ ($p < .001$). Hispanics took an average of 11.5 seconds longer than Caucasians to sort the three types of bolts and screws while under stereotype threat condition. Hispanics were significantly affected by stereotype threat on the sorting task, $F(1, 35) = 19.97$ ($p < .001$) while Caucasians, $F(1, 59) = .337$ ($p < .564$) were not significantly impacted by stereotype threat in the sorting task.

Table 1: Sorting Task Results Caucasian and Hispanic Respondents

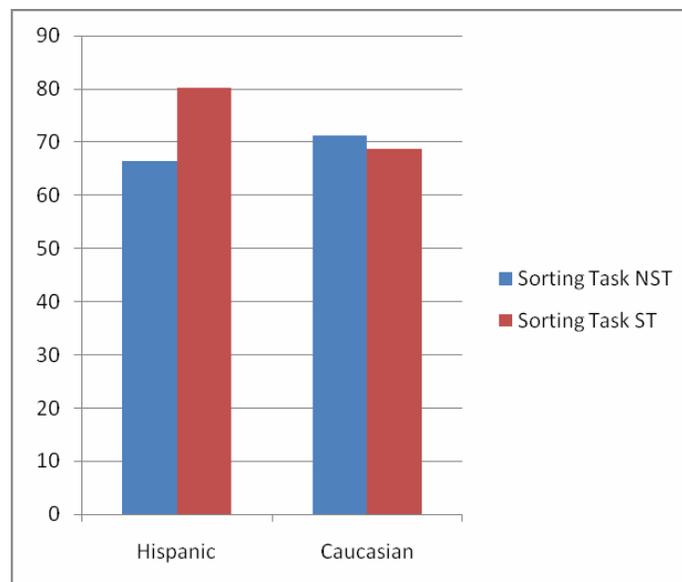
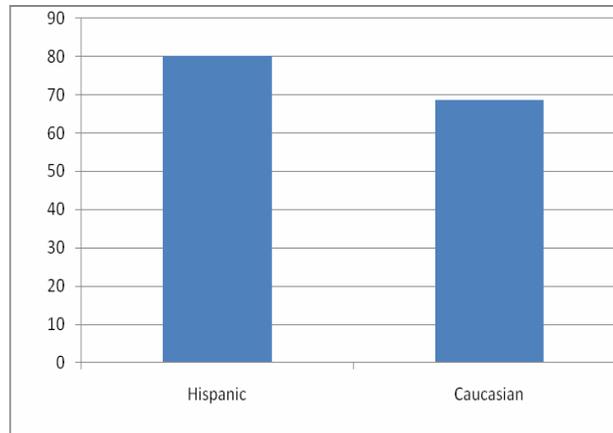


Table 2: Sorting Task Results for Caucasians and Hispanics under Stereotype Threat Condition

Assembly Task

Under stereotype threat condition, Hispanics assembled fewer nut-bolt combinations ($M = 28.861$) as compared to the non-stereotype condition ($M = 30.472$). There was also a significant difference in how each race performed on the task, $F(1, 92) = 5.387$ ($p < .001$), as well as a significant interaction between race and stereotype threat for the assembly task grand means, $F(1, 92) = 3.410$ ($p < .001$). Hispanics assembled 1.07 fewer nut-bolt combinations than Caucasians while under stereotype threat, and Hispanics were shown to be impacted by stereotype threat on the assembly task, $F(1, 35) = 6.859$ ($p < .001$), while Caucasians, $F(1, 59) = .151$ ($p < .699$), were not significantly impacted by stereotype threat condition on this task.

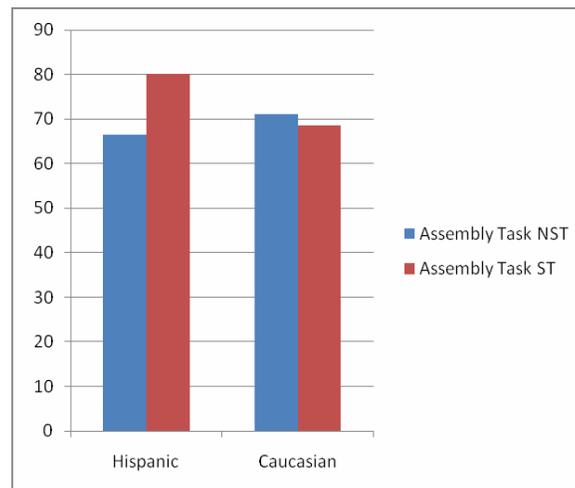
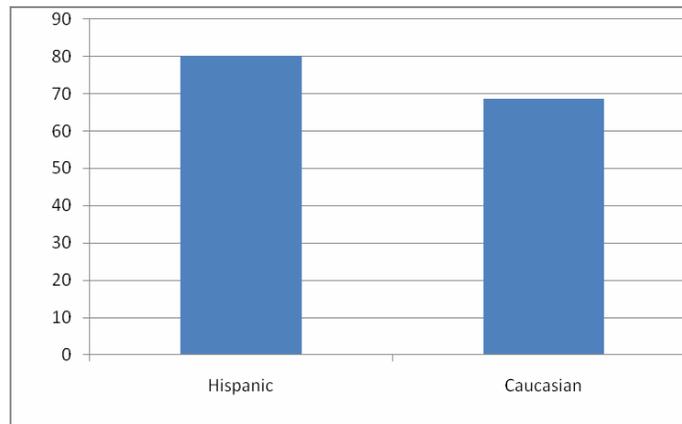
Table 3: Assembly Task Results; Caucasian and Hispanic Respondents

Table 4: Assembly Task Results for Caucasians and Hispanics under Stereotype Threat Condition

Math Test

Under stereotype threat condition, although Hispanics performed worse under stereotype threat condition on the math test, scores were not significantly lower (ST $\mu = 59.44$, NST $\mu = 67.78$). Caucasians scored, on average, regardless of condition, only .72 points lower than Caucasians. There was not a significant main effect for racial groups or interaction between race and stereotype threat, $F(1, 92) = 2.436$ ($p < .122$) and $F(1, 92) = .915$ ($p < .341$). Caucasians scored on average only 8.56 points higher than Hispanics while under stereotype threat, who were not significantly impacted by stereotype threat on this task $F(1, 35) = 1.809$ ($p < .151$), while Caucasians, $F(1, 59) = .274$ ($p < .602$) were not significantly impacted by stereotype threat in the math task.

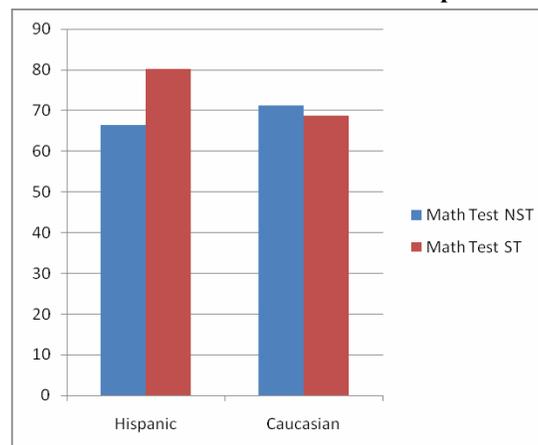
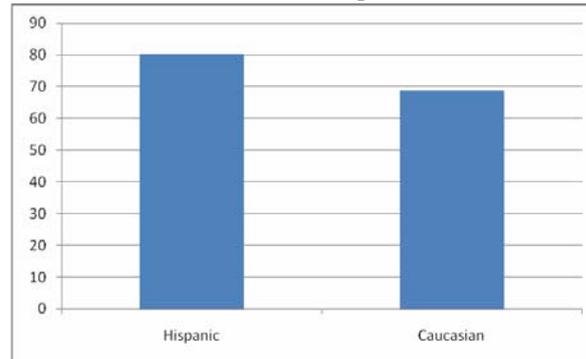
Table 5: Math Test Results Caucasian and Hispanic Respondents

Table 6: Math Test Results for Caucasians and Hispanics under Stereotype Threat Condition

Collective Self-esteem Scale (CSES)

The CSES (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992) was used in this study to evaluate the participants' collective self-esteem as categorized by four factors on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree): membership self-esteem, private collective self-esteem, public collective self-esteem, and importance of (racial) identity. There was not a significant main effect for race with regard to the four subscales, and the presence of stereotype threat did not significantly influence scores on any of the CSES sub-scales. Membership scores for Caucasians $F(1, 59) = 1.662$ ($p < .202$) and for Hispanics $F(1, 59) = 1.43$ ($p < .236$); Private scores for Caucasians $F(1, 59) = 2.021$ ($p < .160$) and for Hispanics $F(1, 59) = .893$ ($p < .347$); Public scores for Caucasians $F(1, 59) = .0001$ ($p < .160$) and for Hispanics $F(1, 35) = .258$ ($p < .613$); and, Identity scores for Caucasians $F(1, 59) = .019$ ($p < .890$) and for Hispanics $F(1, 35) = .576$ ($p < .450$). Identification was consistent regardless of the presence or absence of stereotype threat. Caucasians and Hispanics did not view their membership to their racial group, the way the public views their racial group, their own assessment of their race, or how much they identify with their race in a significantly different way.

Discussion

The original research question investigated whether stereotype threat would affect performance on both academic and non-academic tasks in a workplace setting. There was a significant main effect for race on all the two manual labor tasks while working under stereotype threat for Hispanics but not for the academic task, while Caucasians were not negatively impacted by stereotype threat on any of the three tasks. As discussed earlier, Hispanics have been judged by stereotypes regarding work ethic and ability (Cain, 2004; Weaver, 2005). Even positive stereotypes, such as being hard working, and trying to live up to the expectations, can negatively impact performance, as seen in this study.

Limitations

The limitations of the study lead the way for future areas of study, first of which being that participants are college students, not “true” workers in the workforce, who, in a manual labor environment, might not be as educated or motivated. The college students in the study have a higher ego than those who might not have attended college and thus entered the workforce, so stereotype threat might not have as much of an impact as with a different population. Another limitation is that of lab versus field study. This study took place in a controlled environment, since field conditions might not warrant the same manipulation of stereotype threat but might offer other ways of manipulation of stereotype threat. The study is also limited by the demographics of the population of Texas A&M University - Commerce, where there might not be enough of a represented racial group. Additionally, could the people referenced in the notes have impacted the effects of stereotype threat for Hispanics? The figures described in the notes for the Hispanic stereotype threat condition were labor rights leaders, many whose notoriety is isolated to the Hispanic community.

CONCLUSIONS

Stereotype threat is present in the workplace, just as in educational settings, although less is known about its effects on work performance, and how one views the world, and themselves, can be affected by stereotypes. Understanding stereotype threat’s consequences on stereotyped groups is important, especially when comparing different ethnic groups, and there is a need for research on stereotype threat, its impact on work performance, and how those affects compare to the effects in academics and academic testing. The activation of stereotype threat for Hispanics caused decrements in performance on manual labor tasks, but not for academic tasks. Directly observed in this study was the degree to which a group identifies with their race and if that is related to performance under stereotype threat.

Reducing Stereotype Threat in the Workplace

The workplace is a heterogeneous mix of people in terms of age, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and gender, more so now than ever before. With this mix, stereotypes and stereotype threat are sure to ensue, but there are ways to alter the consequences of stereotype threat, one of which is providing a successful task strategy. This study showed that a stereotyped group could work above the stereotype, but that the presence of the stereotype led to decreased performance. There is evidence that stereotyped people seek to distance themselves from the stereotype by acting in opposition to it (Aronson, 2002). Often times, workers work even harder and longer to prove the stereotype does not apply to them. Kray et al. (2002), provided women with a strategy to successfully counteract the stereotype, and when they were explicitly told that women were less

assertive than men in business negotiation situation and that they did not act in their own self-interest, the women were more assertive in the negative situation.

So what can managers do? The stereotype threat process needs to be interrupted (Roberson & Kulik, 2007), as the stereotype threat process has many stages (i.e. task difficulty, stereotype awareness, and reinforcement of the stereotype through situational cues), and the interruption techniques need to be continually improved upon as the framework of the workforce changes. To interrupt this process, managers can plan to provide a well-laid, tactical plan for completing the task, available and recognizable by all participating, or counteract the stereotype threat by reducing the relevance of the task and focusing on the purpose of the task in non-stereotypical terms (i.e., not concentrating on abilities or academic measures as a measurement of success) (Spencer et al., 1999; and Roberson & Kulik, 2007). Managers can also associate the complexity of the task with the task itself or the general expected knowledge base, not the abilities of the subjects. Changing the context, the diversity of those performing the job, is another way to counteract stereotype threat and can diminish the relevance of stereotypes. It is taking the “token” out of the situation, where “token” members, those single members of a minority group placed in stigmatized situations (Roberson & Kulik, 2007).

Implications for Managers

While negative stereotypes may adversely impact health and performance in racial groups, suggest that positive performance stereotypes may also have adverse effects, often leading to the setting of unrealistic goals and then failure in attaining these goals (Cocchiara & Quick, 2004). A factor to consider in studies in the workplace is one’s motivations and pursuits. Not only negative self-stereotypes but a negative outlook on living up to positive stereotype lead to a negative focal point, leading to setting minimal goals in pursuing career or educational paths (Pinel & Paulin, 2005; Seibt & Förster, 2004; and Brodish & Devine, 2009).

The long-term health of an organization is a primary goal of many companies, and a company’s ability to continually evaluate and adjust its’ internal social systems can set apart effective business from those at-risk of poor organizational health and high anxiety among employees (Cocchiara & Quick, 2004). Effective management in diverse settings should focus on creating an environment where all can succeed (Cox, 1994), recognizing that stereotypes are inevitable in a diverse workforce but a factor that must be addressed directly and openly. Focusing on a stereotype in order to eliminate it does not equate to endorsement of that stereotype (Adler, 2002). A more optimistic perspective and prediction of the effect and learning about the effects of stereotype threat might give individuals with an external attribution for any anxiety during the task, and might release stereotype-threatened people from assuming that the increased anxiety indicated they do not have the ability to do well (Wheeler & Petty, 2001). Successful managers not only accept the possibility of stereotype threat, but they take counteractive steps towards diffusing

stereotype threat situations. They must change the conditions that foster stereotypes to change the conditions of their work environment, enable diversity, and promote harmony among employee.

Final Thoughts

There is a racial undertone in the United States and, as its workforce not only ages but becomes more ethnically and racially diverse, those who enter are decidedly different than in generations past. Enforcement of civil rights in employment and education, and with technological advancements have paved the way for global connectivity has changed the dynamics of places of employment, which makes it more important that ever to be aware of possible stereotypes (and stereotype threats). Teaching about stereotypes threat prior to being in a stereotype threat situation might reduce anxiety and the negative ramifications of stereotype threat. Understanding stereotype threat is more than an individual being non-prejudiced or un-biased, but is about actively seeking the cues that limit the contributions of all employees. For managers, communication plays a big role in how stereotypes are pushed through an organization, taking over like a virus; however, communication also allows managers to promote tolerance, diversity awareness, and communication training throughout the organization. When managers undertake this task, diversity will be less of a burden and more of a celebration for an organization.

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