

Volume 16, Number 2

Printed ISSN: 1544-0508

PDF ISSN: 1939-4691

**JOURNAL OF ORGANIZATIONAL
CULTURE, COMMUNICATIONS AND CONFLICT**

Connie Rae Bateman

Editor

University of North Dakota

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LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

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

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Connie Rae Bateman
Editor
University of North Dakota

DOES EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE PREDICT IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT?

Ajay K Jain, Aarhus University, Denmark

ABSTRACT

This study examined the predictive ability of emotional intelligence (EI) to predict impression management. It is assumed that EI, as an intrapersonal and interpersonal ability of recognizing and managing emotions in one's self and in others will have a significant impact on impression management behavior. The sample consisted of 250 middle-level executives from four two-wheeler manufacturing organizations located in northern India. Results based on step-wise regression reveal that Reality Awareness and Controlled Problem Solving dimensions of EI had a positive impact on impression management behavior. However, the Positive Attitude about Life dimension of EI was found to be a strong negative predictor of impression management behavior. The implications of the results are discussed in terms of relevance of emotional intelligence in creating positive impression within the organizational context.

KEY WORDS: Emotional Intelligence, Impression Management, Positive Psychology

INTRODUCTION

The concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI) is attracting the attention of practitioners and researchers from various disciplines. Emotional competencies are found to be crucial for adaptation in various realms of life that has fueled interest in the concept of EI (Cote & Miners, 2006). It has inspired the scientists to explore the relationship of EI with organizationally relevant outcome variables for instance; self rated performance, self efficacy, job satisfaction, personal effectiveness, general health, turnover intention, commitment, trust and organizational effectiveness (Sinha & Jain 2004; Jain & Sinha, 2005; Jain, 2011). Other recent empirical studies have found EI as an important tool related to positive outcomes such as prosocial behavior, parental warmth, and positive family and peer relations (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Rice, 1999; Salovey, Mayer, Caruso, & Lopes, 2001; Dulewicz, Higgs & Slaski, 2003).

The underlying assumption of all these studies is that EI is a powerful tool for people to enhance their intrapersonal and interpersonal effectiveness both at work and at home. EI provides the potential for performance, rather than performance itself; how one would use this potential is a matter of personal choice. EI can be a powerful tool for top business leaders and managers on the one hand, and for politicians on the other hand. Therefore EI skills can be used not only to manage one's performance and relationships with others, but also to manage one's

impression on supervisor and manipulate others at work place. No study is carried out on this subject. Hence, the present research aims to examine the impact of EI on impression management. EI as an intrapersonal and interpersonal skill of recognizing and managing one's and other's emotions may have positive impact on impression management behavior.

This study is conceptualized within the framework of positive psychology to increase one's ability to manage one's self. Positive psychology is a movement started by Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000). At a micro level of analysis, the movement focuses on the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths, and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's work place (Luthans, 2002). The constructs of EI and impression management can be perceived within the framework of positive psychology. Recent research in the area of impression management suggests that impression management is not a negative construct in absolute sense rather it is good for personal and organizational effectiveness. Grant and Mayer (2009) have found positive interactions between prosocial and impression management motives as predictors of affiliative citizenship behaviors directed toward other people (helping and courtesy) and the organization (initiative). These results suggest that employees who are both good soldiers and good actors are most likely to emerge as good citizens in promoting the status quo. Thus impression management generates positive outcome for individuals and organizations as well. However the research has been directed at the impact of impression management behavior on job performance behaviors (Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen & Sideman, 2005). Not much research is carried out to see the antecedents of impression management behavior. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to see the impact of emotional intelligence competencies on impression management behavior of employees within the broad organizational framework.

Emotional Intelligence

The work of Salovey and Mayor (1990), Gardner (1983), Goleman (1995, 1998), and BarOn (1997) on "EI" have significantly focused researchers' attention on the role of emotions and EI at the work place. EI has recently received more attention through claims of its ability to predict successful individuals (Cote & Miners, 2006). Research evidence shows that EI predicted the significant amount of variance in the positive forms of organizational behavior like organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Carmeli, 2003; Jain & Sinha, 2003; Sitter, 2005; Cote & Miners, 2006; Solan, 2008; Yaghoubi, Mashinchi and Hadi, 2011). EI and OCBs have been identified as significant predictors of well-functioning individuals and organizations (Jain, 2009). Emotional competencies are thought to be important for social interaction because emotions serve communicative and social functions, conveying information about people's thoughts and intentions, and coordinating social encounters (e.g., Keltner & Haidt, 2001). Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz, Sellin and Salovey (2003) have found positive relationships between the ability to manage emotions and the quality of social interactions. In a diary study of social interaction

with 103 German college students managing emotions scores were positively related to the perceived quality of interactions with opposite sex individuals. Scores on this subscale were also positively related to perceived success in impression management in social interactions with individuals of the opposite sex. Thus it can be derived that emotional skills are important for any form of social interaction. Furthermore, Managers, executives, and human resources professionals clearly understand the importance of strong intrapersonal and interpersonal skills in managing the relationship with others. This paper takes a framework of emotional intelligence that underlies any form of interpersonal communication, and applies it specifically to impression management process. BarOn (1997) argued that EI is concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings, which increases one's ability to be more successful in dealing with one's environmental demands. BarOn (1997) has developed the BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (BarOn EQ-i). The BarOn EQ-i is a self-report measure of non-cognitive (emotional, social and personal) intelligence, composed of 133 brief items. BarOn has coined the term "Emotional Quotient". This study has used an adapted version (Jain & Sinha, 2005) of BarOn's EQ-i to measure the concept of EI in the Indian work context. According to Jain and Sinha (2005) EI is an ability to deal with stressful environments through cognitively controlled affective processes. As such EI is an important factor in determining one's ability to succeed in life and can be recognized an asset to the organization. The research is aimed to see how EI helps in creating positive impression on others. Research evidence shows that emotional skills and complementary social skills are essential for effective leadership function (Riggio and Reichard, 2008). Thus it is assumed that emotional and social skills would also be proved to be beneficial for the impression management behavior. Leadership and impression management behavior can be recognized as part of broad social influence process framework.

This study follows the model of emotional and social skills which is proposed by Riggio and colleagues (Riggio, 1986; Riggio and Carney, 2003; Reichard and Riggio, 2008). This model is applied to the domain of impression management behavior. This framework, which is grounded in basic research on interpersonal communication, suggests that emotional and social communication can be conceptualized as composed of three basic skills: skill in expression, or what communication scholars refer to as encoding skill, skill in recognizing and decoding messages from others, and skill in regulating and controlling communication behaviors. Each of these three skills operate in both the emotional domain (emotional skills) and in the verbal/social domain (social skills). Riggio and colleague proposed three emotional skills are: (1) emotional expressiveness; (2) emotional sensitivity; and (3) emotional control. Thus we assume that emotional skills will also influence impression management skills positively. Impression management behavior involves expression and control of emotions in supervisory-subordinate relationship.

Impression Management

Employees and supervisors engage in impression management behavior in the workplace. Impression management is the process by which individuals attempt to control the impression that other forms of them. Social psychologists have described impression management as any behavior by a person that has the purpose of controlling or manipulating the attributions and impressions formed of that person by others (Tedeschi & Reiss, 1981) and as behaviors initiated by a source to establish a particular identity or 'shape others' attributions of the actors' dispositions (Jones & Pittman, 1982). An impression management perspective has been applied to a number of research areas within organizational behavior and human resource management (Giacalone & Rosenfeld, 1989). Impression management theorists suggests that the primary human motive, both inside and outside of organizations, is to be viewed by others in a favorable light and to avoid being perceived negatively (Rosenfeld, Giacalone, & Riordan, 1995). Impression management behaviors have been discussed in a variety of contexts. These include interviewing (Stevens & Kristof, 1995); performance appraisal (Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995); leadership (Wayne & Green, 1993); careers (Feldman & Klich, 1991) and feedback seeking (Ashford & Northraft, 1992). Most of these research focus on the consequences of impression management behavior. There is a dearth of exploring the antecedents to impression management behavior in organization.

Although many individuals associate negative connotations with impression management, some recent writings have also recognized the value and positive outcomes related to these behaviors (Liden & Mitchell, 1998). As Leary and Kowalski (1990) emphasize, impression management theory does not imply that the impression management created by individuals is necessarily false. In other words, individuals who seek to be viewed as dedicated to their companies may, indeed, truly be committed to their organization. Impression management theorists have identified many strategies that individuals may employ in the organizational setting (e.g., Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984; Jones & Pittman, 1982).

Wayne and Ferris (1990) studied 24 impression management behaviors; on that basis they found three types of tactics: *Job Focused*, *Self-Focused* and *Supervisory Focused impression management behavior*. Supervisor-focused tactics involve ingratiation behaviors and are designed to make employees appear considerate and helpful. Self-focused tactics involve exemplification behaviors and are designed to make individuals look like nice, polite, dedicated employees. Finally, job-focused tactics involve self-promotive behaviors and are designed to make employees appear more competent at their job. They found that supervisory focused tactics affected supervisors' liking for subordinates, which in turn influenced exchange quality. In the present research, we have used the 24-item scale developed by Wayne and Ferris (1990) to measure impression management behavior in the organization. Based on the above body of knowledge, this research aims to investigate the impact of EI skills on impression management behavior. Based on the above analysis, the following hypothesis is derived:

HYPOTHESIS

Hypothesis: Emotional intelligence will have significant impact on impression management behavior.

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

The sample consisted of 250 middle-level executives from four plants of two-wheeler (scooter and motorcycle) manufacturing organizations. The organizations, within the private sector, were located in five different cities of North India. The employees were male, in the 25 to 45 year age group, who had spent at least one year in the same organization. Almost all of them were married and had a graduate degree or diploma in engineering. India being a culturally diverse and large country, the data were collected from North Indian organizations to control for cultural differences in work values and physical characteristics of the respondents.

The data was collected by administering questionnaires mainly during office hours with the consent of both the relevant representatives of the employer as well as the respondents. The questionnaires were in English, adapted to suit the target group by slightly modifying the language or the response categories as needed, and they were validated in the Indian cultural context. The participants were chosen randomly from each organization and belonged to different departments of the organization. Most of the participants showed their willingness to participate in the study after a short meeting.

Measures

Questionnaire measures were used to obtain data on the three variables included in the study: EI and impression management. EI was designated as the independent variable whereas impression management was considered to be the dependent variable. Self-report measures were used to obtain the data. EI was measured through a questionnaire adapted from the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i, BarOn, 1997) which consisted of 133-items. Later this inventory was adapted by Jain and Sinha (2005), consisting of only 21-items distributed across five factors. *Impression Management questionnaire* consisted of 24-items which was adapted from the writing of Wayne and Ferris (1990). Further, this questionnaire was adapted by Jain (2003) in Indian work condition. The questionnaire yielded four significant factors upon factor analysis and had 16 items where eight items are dropped because of poor factor loading.

A summary for ready reference is presented in Table 1, which shows (a) the major concepts used in the study; (b) their factor-analytically derived dimensions; (c) number of items

constituting the factors; and (d) Cronbach's alpha coefficients indicating the internal consistency for the respective factors.

Concept	Factors	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Emotional Intelligence	1. Assertiveness and Positive Self Concept	4	.74
	2. Impulse Control	4	.72
	3. Positive Attitude About Life	5	.77
	4. Reality Awareness	4	.71
	5. Controlled Problem Solving	4	.71
Impression Management	1. Job Specific Impression Management	3	.78
	2. Job Outcome Credit Focused Impression Management	6	.76
	3. Supervisory Focused Impression Management	5	.76
	4. Self Focused Impression Management	2	.78

The measures used in this study were borrowed from their original sources and adapted in the Indian work setting by using exploratory factor analysis technique. All survey items were rated on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (true to almost no extent) to 5 (true to a very great extent). Results of factor analyses were based on principal axis factoring and oblique rotations using the PA 2 option of the SPSS-X statistical analysis package program. A brief description of factors extracted by factor analysis, according to the criterion of factor loadings $\geq .30$ and Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient $\geq .70$.

Emotional Intelligence Inventory

Using BarOn's (1997) EQ-inventory, the present study yielded five significant factors upon factor analysis. These were: 1) Assertiveness and Positive Self-Concept (APSC, $\alpha = .74$), 2) Impulse Control (IC, $\alpha = .72$), 3) Positive Attitude about Life (PAL, $\alpha = .77$), 4) Reality Awareness (RA, $\alpha = .71$), and 5) Controlled Problem Solving (CPS, $\alpha = .71$).

The nature of the factor structure of the five obtained factors indicated that the first factor's structure perhaps relates to the EI skill arising out of proper expression of one's ideas and feeling to others with a positive image of one's self. The factor structure of the second factor indicated EI skills through control and regulation of one's negative emotions. The factor structure of the third factor indicates optimistic attitudes about life in general. The factor structure of the fourth factor indicates awareness of one's environment. The factor structure of the fifth factor indicates the implication of EI skills in solving problems by controlling one's negative mood and feelings. Overall, the five factors have some similarity with those found by Goleman (1995), Salovey and Mayer (1990), and BarOn (1997). The majority of the items, however, did not appear to be relevant for measuring EI in our sample of Indian managers, as evident by the fact that out of 133-items only 21 were found to be factor-analytically meaningful.

Impression Management Questionnaire

Wayne and Ferris (1990) measured impression management on supervisors through a 24-item scale that yielded only four useable factors, called (a) Job Specific Impression Management (JSIM, $\alpha = .78$), (b) Job Credit Outcome Focused Impression Management (JOIM, $\alpha = .76$), (c) Supervisory Focused Impression Management (SUIM, $\alpha = .76$), and (d) Self-Focused Impression Management (SFIM, $\alpha = .78$). The factor structure indicates that employees manage their positive impression on their supervisors by saying good things about the task they do, about the results of the task, about their supervisors and about himself or herself. Only 16-items were retained, and rests of the items were dropped because of poor factor loading and/or reliability.

RESULTS

The conceptual scheme of the present study included two major constructs: EI and impression management. Both constructs yielded five and four factors respectively upon factor analysis. To determine the strength of relationship between the five predictor variables and the four factors of impression management, stepwise multiple regression analysis (MRA) was used. Results showed the significant impact of the independent variables on dependent variables in this sample. The general statistics pertaining to the variables appear in Table 2 and the MRA results appear in Table 3.

Table 2: Intercorrelations, Means, Standard Deviations for all the Variables

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Assertiveness and Positive Self Concept	4.25	.74	1									
2. Impulse Control	3.56	.81	.36	1								
3. Positive Attitude About Life	3.81	.71	.52	.31	1							
4. Reality Awareness	3.92	.61	.27	.08	.31	1						
5. Controlled Problem Solving	3.79	.70	.47	.44	.42	.32	1					
6. Overall Emotional Intelligence	3.87	.50	.76	.66	.74	.53	.77	1				
7. Job specific impression management	3.24	.94	-.20	-.11	-.27	.08	-.08	-.18	1			
8. Job outcome credit focused impression management	2.92	.69	-.05	-.06	-.03	.06	-.01	-.03	.44	1		
9. Supervisory focused impression management	2.5	.75	-.21	-.14	-.22	.02	-.13	-.20	.34	.17	1	
10. Self focused impression management	3.47	.83	-.02	.13	-.05	.10	.15	.08	.40	.23	.38	1
11. Overall impression management	3.04	.57	-.18	-.06	-.21	.10	-.02	-.11	.80	.62	.66	.72

Pearson's $r = .13$ and $.17$ are significant at $.05$ and $.01$ level.

A correlation matrix and descriptive statistics are shown in Table 2. Inspection of Table 2 indicates that five dimensions of EI had a significant relationship with four dimensions of impression management. However, EI had positive as well as negative relationship with different dimensions of impression management.

No.	Predictor Variables (Dimensions of EI)	Criterion Variables (Dimensions of Impression Management)	β	t	p	Adj. R^2
1	Positive Attitude about Life	Job Specific Impression Management	-.33	-5.25	.01	.07
2	Reality Awareness	Job Specific Impression Management	.19	3.00	.01	.10
3	Positive Attitude about Life	Supervisory Focused Impression Management	-.26	-4.03	.01	.04
4	Reality Awareness	Supervisory Focused Impression Management	.14	2.12	.05	.06
5	Controlled Problem Solving	Self-Focused Impression Management	.21	2.99	.01	.02
6	Positive Attitude about Life	Self-Focused Impression Management	-.14	-2.00	.05	.03

From Tables 3, it appears that EI has predicted impression management in a significant way. The significant MRA results are as follows: *Job Specific Impression Management* ($F_{(2,247)} = 14.81, p \leq .01$), *Supervisory Focused Impression Management* ($F_{(2,247)} = 12.40, p \leq .01$), *Self-Focused Impression Management* ($F_{(2,247)} = 4.79, p \leq .01$). The predictor variable, EI, has explained 2 to 10 per cent of the variance in the criterion variable, impression management. The important findings were that the *Positive Attitude about Life* dimension of EI was a consistently negative predictor of impression management behavior, whereas the *Reality awareness* dimension had a positive impact on three sub-scales of Impression Management. No relationship was observed with *Job Credit Outcome Focused Impression Management*.

DISCUSSION

The present work examined the strength of association of EI with impression management behavior. The overall results indicated that EI had a strong link with impression management behavior. Results showed that EI had positive as well as negative impact on impression management, which supports the hypothesis.

The dimension of EI, Positive Attitude about Life, was found to be a consistently negative predictor of different dimensions of Impression Management: *Job Specific Impression Management*, *Supervisory Focused Impression Management*, and *Self-Focused Impression Management*. The factor structure of Positive Attitude about Life reflects hopefulness about the self, work place and people in general. The reason for this finding may be that it makes an individual optimistic about her/his skills, capability and career progress. Hence, it prevents an individual from making impressions on her/his supervisors by going out of way, because she/he has faith in one's capacities and in getting rewarded for work only. Therefore, they do not require of getting involved in any kind of impression management behavior.

Although, impression management is positively linked with interviewing (Stevens & Kristof, 1995); performance appraisal (Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995); leadership (Wayne & Green, 1993); careers (Feldman & Klich, 1991); feedback seeking (Ashford & Northraft, 1992); and information seeking (Morrison & Bies, 1991). However, job focused form of impression management behavior is found to be negatively linked with career success and supervisor ratings of performance (Judge and Bretz, 1994; Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Thus, positive attitude about life reduces impression management behavior among employees because it promote employee well being (Jain and Sinha, 2005). Positively inclined employee believes focusing on larger issues at work place rather than spending time in creating impression on others about their job and about themselves.

However, Reality Awareness dimension of EI was found to be a positive predictor of two dimensions of Impression Management: *Job Specific Impression Management and Supervisory Focused Impression Management*. As we know that Reality Awareness is concerned with more precise understanding of one's behavior and the environment. At a realistic level, the Job and Supervisor are two important parts of an employee's life at the work place. An employee needs to perform and develop a positive relationship with the supervisor to maintain the smooth functioning at work. So that s/he could get an expected rewards and appreciation from his/her boss. In an organization, supervisors are directly responsible for judging the performance of their subordinates. The performance appraisal is linked with rewards, recognition, promotion, transfer, termination and so on. Jones and Pittman (1982) argue that individuals usually engage in ingratiation behaviors to be seen as helpful, kind, and considerate. Moreover, these tactics are often effective. Indeed, in a meta-analysis of social-psychological and organizational studies, Gordon (1996) found that ingratiation tactics generally have a positive effect on performance evaluations and on judgments of interpersonal attraction. Thus, Reality Awareness dimension of EI makes an employee aware about the fact that without the supervisor's positive evaluation, they would not be able to achieve promotion, receive a reward, and other similar work benefits. Therefore, employees with the ability of Reality Awareness try to manage the positive impression on their supervisors.

Controlled Problem Solving dimension of EI was found to be a positive predictor of the dimension of Impression Management called *Self-Focused Impression Management*. The reason may be that employees always want to keep themselves in a positive light to get appreciation and recognition from their supervisor and coworkers. The ability of Controlled Problem Solving makes them efficient in getting their work accomplished by keeping their negative emotions under control. The control over negative emotions makes them more generous and positive towards others. Controlled Problem Solving helps them in expressing positive emotions and keeping negative emotions under control. Some researchers have referred to self focused impression management behavior as exemplification (e.g., Jones & Pittman, 1982; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Employees who engage in self-focused strategies of impression management seek to present themselves as being friendly. They also tend to work especially hard when others are

looking and try to act like a 'model' employee in front of their supervisors. Thus, controlled problem solving creates a positive impression of being a hard working and a polite employee on supervisor. Turnley and Bolino (2001) found that students who used exemplification tactics were significantly more likely be seen as 'dedicated' by their peers and significantly less likely to be seen as 'lazy'.

Thus, overall, these results showed that Positive Attitude about Life dimension of EI was found be a significant negative predictor whereas Reality Awareness and Controlled Problem Solving were found to be the significant positive predictors of Impression Management behavior.

Here, the relationship of EI with impression management is subjected to a more critical analysis. The reason may be that many individual associate negative connotations with impression management, but recent writings have recognized the value and positive outcomes related to these behaviors (Liden & Mitchell, 1998). Individuals who seek to be viewed as dedicated to their companies, may indeed truly be committed to their organization. From the description of EI, some connection appears between EI and Impression Management. As we know, impression management is the process by which individuals control their impression over others. It is argued that emotionally intelligent people might be high in self-monitoring and may be well aware about their emotions, feelings, and behavior in relation to others. Researchers have found that high self-monitors were more likely to engage in information manipulation (Fandt & Ferris, 1990). Low self-monitors tend to present images of themselves that are consistent with their personalities, regardless of the beneficial or determinant effects. In contrast, high self-monitors are good at reading situations and molding their appearances and behavior to fit each situation. Another reason may be that emotionally intelligent people are high in social skills, like handling another person's emotions artfully. Therefore, EI provides the ability to influence others and to pursue them in the direction of making positive impression management on others. The emotional competence emerges repeatedly as a hallmark of superior performance, particularly among the stratagems used by top performers, particularly among supervisors, managers and executives (Boyatzis, 1982). Similarly, the stratagems used by top performers included impression management, appeals to reasons and facts, dramatic argument or actions, building coalitions are behind the scene support, emphasizing key information on and on. Goleman (1998) included influence (wielding effective tactics for persuasion) as part of social skills which in turn fifth component of EI. As we know impression management also includes the tactics of influencing others. Thus emotional intelligence can make an employee to be a good actor.

Furthermore, Riggio and colleagues (Riggio, 1986; Riggio and Carney, 2003; Reichard and Riggio, 2008) proposed three emotional skills are: (1) emotional expressiveness; (2) emotional sensitivity; and (3) emotional control. An emotionally intelligent person may possess these emotional skills which help them in managing the impression on others.

Overall, it could be argued that EI skill acts in two ways. The EI skills like Reality Awareness and Controlled Problem Solving had a positive impact on impression management behavior which jointly can make an individual more effective and productive if used for

organizational goals. Secondly, EI skills like Positive Attitude about Life helps in reducing over-indulgence in impression management behavior. EI skills generate self confidence in one's capacities and competencies to achieve positive outcomes, rather than getting rewarded by the formation of positive impression only.

We can say that impression management utilizes social influencing process with the purpose of professional benefits. EI helps in impression management through better *people skill* (interpersonal skill). EI skills are found to be important in predicting the influence on others. Studies showed that subordinates use a number of upward influence strategies to obtain personal benefits or satisfy organizational goals (Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick & Mayes, 1979; Kipnis, Schmidt, Wilkinson, 1980). It can be stated that EI skill makes an employee a good soldier as well as a good actor. It could be maintained that EI skills are relevant for actors, soldiers, managers, executives, politicians, emotional labors etc. It is up to the person how he/she wants to utilize this ability either for other's welfare or for personal selfish gains.

Implications

The nature of the organizations and nature of the work has changed drastically. Now organizations have to rely more on their employees' commitment, sincerity, hard work, and innovative and creative contributions to face the competitive challenges in the context of environmental complexity and uncertainty. To gain trust and commitment, organizations need to work towards developing the positive human skills. In this context, some individual level variables like EI can be useful, which may act in creating positive impression. The continuous research in the field of EI is showing the powerful impact of EI on organizational behavior but as a researcher or practitioner, we have to be conscious enough about the usage of good things for productive purpose. It is not true always that a good thing will produce a positive impact. The role of organizational psychologists becomes very critical at this stage, where a positive concept like *EI can also act as a double edged sword*. It appears that EI as a multi-factor concept may have different implications for positive and negative forms of behavior in organizations. The success of future organizations will depend on the 'guided usage' of human potential and strength in achieving the desired individual and organizational goals, in which EI can be a good source of contribution. EI skills will provide a competitive advantage to newly emerging organizations in the field of information technology or business process outsourcing, while assuming that all organizations would be able to provide similar kinds infrastructural facility like work environment, pay-packages, bonuses, rewards and recognition. It is only the human strengths which can bring difference in the performance. However, it is not easy to bring change in the soft skills like human commitment and usage of full potential in meeting and exceeding the performance standards. The continuous focus in developing the human strengths like EI can be a good effort in this direction. It will further support the significance of studies in positive psychology as well.

Limitations

The present research used the sample of manufacturing industries; in other studies a varied sample from IT or service sector can be a good source of comparison where human skills are much more relevant. Further, it would be noted that the construct of EI as represented through the dimensions in the present study may not be robust enough predictors of variables of interests like impression management. It means the concept of EI has not evolved yet in the Indian work context. It is notable that the original item pool of 133 items of the EI questionnaire was reduced to only 21 items upon factor analysis. The idea needs to be examined further with more varied samples and culturally relevant items. However, results of the present work are indicative of the importance of EI skills in general for the work behavior within the framework of positive psychology. So EI can make an employee a good actor as well as a good soldier.

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SURNAME DISCRIMINATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR KOREAN UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS

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ABSTRACT

Surname discrimination is typically linked to racial discrimination, cultural preferences and issues belonging to surname order or the alphabetical-ordering effects associated with academic paper authorship. Based on data collected from four top Korean universities, this study statistically investigates potential surname discrimination as well as the effects of the alphabetical order of professor surnames on their employment statuses. No unexplained surname population differences were found, supporting the assumptions that Korean governmental and business policy modernization has improved HR standards and practices. Additionally, the authorship effects of professor surname initials, based on both the English and Korean Hangul alphabets, proved insignificant.

Key Words: Surname discrimination; Korean university professors; Alphabetical discrimination, Confucianism

INTRODUCTION

For decades, academics have been testing a host of different characteristics to identify their impact on the labor market and other areas of social competition. These characteristics have included a range of influencers stretching from sex, race, self-perceived productivity enhancers and even beauty (i.e. Walcutt et. al., 2011; Bertrand & Mullainathan, 2004; Wood et al., 1993). One relatively recent characteristic to be tested is the effect that surnames have on areas such as employment, trust, and compensation. In some studies, surnames have had little effect on behaviors, whereas in other research, the results have displayed potentially discriminatory results.

By definition, surname discrimination is a condition where individuals with the same economic or cognitive characteristics receive higher wages, evaluations or opportunities, and whose differences are systematically correlated with the surname of an individual (Jurajda & Munich, 2007; Arai & Thoursie, 2006; Wood et al., 1993). Based on the above research, there are differing opinions of the impacts of surnames on various labor markets. This alone helps

justify the need to more fully explore the causes, dynamics and overall existence of this phenomenon. However, this need is further compounded when applied to a high contextual Confucianistic society, as found in Korea, where there is a continuing drive to modernize governmental regulations and the labor markets to better ensure fair and transparent HR practices (Korean Ministry of Employment and Labor, 2010).

To accomplish these goals, researchers have tried to better define the scope of surname discrimination by applying it to an entire spectrum of studies using surnames to estimate or justify wages, identify work productivity and trustworthiness and even show the impact on the tenure of university professors (Ahmed, 2010; Frandsen & Nicolansen, 2010; Efthyvoulou, 2008; van Pragg and van Pragg, 2007; Einav & Yaviv, 2006; Aria & Thoursie, 2006; Bertrand & Mullainathan, 2004; Gordon et al., 1974, Zuckerman, 1968;). The research results have been less than conclusive, but many studies have determined that surnames can have some degree of influence. As it relates to the current study, this research will be conducted with the goal of identifying the existence of surname discrimination in the context of Korean university professor employment, quantifying the impact of surname initials on academic employability and providing some explanation of the results by statistically analyzing data from four top Korean universities.

This study will contribute to the overall body of knowledge by covering surname discrimination from a university context and assist in supporting the impact of surname initials as related to academic authorship on professor employment. In addition to further fleshing out the existence and role of surname discrimination in Korea, the findings can also help university and governmental policy makers validate their efforts in the modernization of fair and equitable HR practices. Additionally, unlike the current research, no past studies have examined the surname discrimination phenomenon from a cultural standpoint, especially as it relates to Confucianism-based cultures, as culture may infer significant reasons for any surname discriminatory tendencies identified. Lastly, no other studies have been conducted involving Asian countries, and especially none that have cultures that are highly Confucianistic, such as Korea. By closely investigating the effects, these gaps in the literature should be more thoroughly covered.

Organized into four sections, this paper begins by identifying theories related to surname discrimination. The following section relates to data collection, hypotheses, and the statistical approach used by the researchers. The collected data is then subjected to a comprehensive analysis to explain the results and implications. The final section summarizes the findings on the study's hypotheses and limitations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature applying to the effects of surnames is a relatively new subset of the body of knowledge on labor market discrimination. The literature review for the current study is organized into three distinct sections. The first relates to the general studies on the surname

discrimination phenomenon and is followed by the two primary theories employed to explain its existence in the context of employment based surname issues. The last section incorporates essential cultural and recent governmental and business policy information to assist in understanding the Korean context of this study.

Surname Discrimination Research:

To generalize, the primary studies conducted to date on surnames have looked at surname discrimination from two points of view: (1) discrimination based on race or other factors and (2) the alphabetical-ordering effects associated with academic paper authorship.

The first theme used by prior studies has been to examine the impact of surnames associated with race or regional origin to labor market outcomes including jobs, earnings and trust. For example, Bertrand and Mullainathan (2003) measured racial discrimination in the labor market by assigning an African American sounding name or a very white sounding name to resumes when applying to help-wanted advertisements. The authors' results showed significant discrimination against African-American names. A second study compared the earnings development for a group of immigrants to Sweden that changed their names to Swedish-sounding or neutral surnames with immigrants who retained their original names. The results showed that, although both groups were similar in earnings and abilities before the change, an earnings gap after the name change was observed of about 26 percent and was felt to be attributed directly to the name change (Arai & Thourise, 2006).

A further study found statistically significant discriminatory behavior by men against co-players with non-European backgrounds in trust and dictator games that showed the impacts of foreign surnames on perceived racial or regional origin discrimination and on interpersonal trust. The researcher concluded that this discriminatory behavior was solely a male phenomenon (Ahmed, 2001). A few additional studies, following the same vein and with similar results, were conducted by researchers such as Ahmed (2006, 2010) and Frandsen and Nicolaisen (2010).

The second theme used by researchers relates to the alphabetical-ordering effects associated with academic paper authorship. In academia, most fields of study use one of two conventions to assign authors' names to papers. Within the field of economics, for example, names are typically assigned to academic papers based on the order of the authors' surname initials whereas the discipline of psychology orders surnames based on each author's contribution to the research. Within this context, a number of papers were written looking at the correlations between surnames and academic or university position outcomes. Einav and Yariv (2006) presented evidence that a variety of proxies for success in the U.S. economics labor market (tenure at highly ranked schools, fellowships in the Econometric Society, and to a lesser extent, Nobel Prize and Clark Medal winnings) were correlated with surname initials, favoring economists with surname initials earlier in the alphabet. The general discriminatory trend continued, even controlling for country of origin, ethnicity, and religion, and generally exhibited

a direct relationship to the existing norm in economics prescribing the alphabetical ordering of names on academic papers. Applying their study to psychology, they discovered no significant correlation between surname initials and university position tenure, thus promoting the initial concept of alphabetical discrimination. This study was followed by other research, namely by van Prapp and van Prapp (2007), Maciejovsky et al (2009), and Frandsen and Nicolaisen (2010), that showed similar results validating that alphabetization can have a definite impact on authors' careers, but that impact will vary significantly between fields and the conventions used to list authors.

Research on the effects of alphabetical discrimination has also reached beyond academia with a 2010 study by Jurajda and Munich. In this study, the researchers showed that one's position in an alphabetically sorted list may be important in determining access to oversubscribed public services. Their empirical evidence was based on data from a population of students graduating from secondary schools and applying to universities in which the use of the alphabet in admission procedures at both secondary and tertiary levels implied potential efficiency losses.

Theoretical Models for Surname Discrimination

The two theoretical models that have most often been used to explain the potential discriminatory effects of labor issues associated with discrimination are those of the Discrimination-Preference Model and Statistical Discrimination. The Discrimination-Preference model is largely based on the early work of Gary S. Becker (1957) and Kenneth J. Arrow (1973) and encompasses a competitive equilibrium model in which some individuals from one group have a taste or preference for interacting with individuals of a particular group and are willing to sacrifice some amount of income or capital to satisfy their preference (Becker, 1957, 1962, 1993; Arrow, 1973; Bertrand & Mullainathan, 2004; Hamermesh & Biddle 1994; Walcutt et al., 2011). Within the context of the current study, Korean university administrators or hiring personnel might find a higher utility or preference for hiring individuals from within their direct or extended family lineages who possess the administrator's same surname and will hire accordingly to satisfy this preference.

Statistical Discrimination, also known as Imperfect Employer Information (Rothschild & Stiglitz, 1973), is based on the perception that certain traits are correlated with productive characteristics and the evaluating person will develop certain expectations or judgments based on that perception (Walcutt et al., 2011). As applied to surname research, the Korean university administrators or hiring personnel may correlate specific surnames with certain productive characteristics, which would then affect the hiring personnel's predictions of scholastic competence. The general idea behind this theory has received a great deal of attention and support from researchers (Fletcher 2009; Cipriani & Zago, 2005; Hamermesh & Parker, 2003).

Although these two theories will not fully encompass the sources of the surname discrimination nor is it the objective of this study to demonstrate which theory is most applicable to Korean university hiring practices, they do represent a framework that can be applied to the study of the surname discrimination in a practical context like Korea's universities.

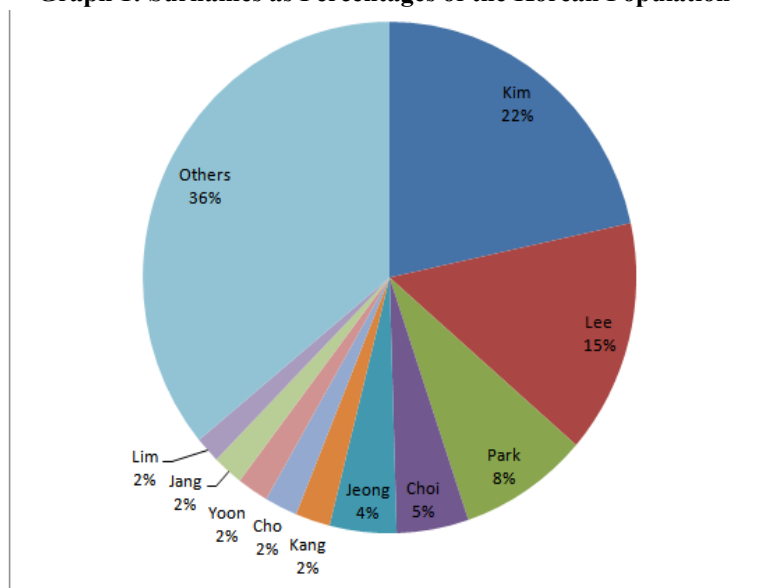
Korean Cultural and Current Regulatory/Business Context Information

Understanding the Korean cultural and the current regulatory or business context of surname discrimination is essential in understanding the results of the analysis as well as understanding this study's methodological approach and hypotheses.

Korean Surname Background

All traditional, ethnic Koreans and many immigrants possess one of the 278 surnames that exist in Korea (Korean National Statistical Office, 2011). Of these surnames, there are sizable percentages of the population that possess the most common ones. Specifically, approximately 45% of the population has Kim, Lee, or Park as a surname and the top 21 surnames account for 79.2% of all citizens (Hwang, 2010; Nahm, 1988). See Graph 1 for a more specific breakdown of surname populations as a percent of the total Korean population.

Graph 1: Surnames as Percentages of the Korean Population



Source: 2010 통계청 <http://kostat.go.kr>

These surnames have implications beyond simple identification purposes. In Korea, as in most cultures, children take the surnames of their fathers. These names and their father's lineages are all attached to "ancestral homes" (Hwang, 2010; Nahm, 1988). Traditionally, through rules stretching back to the Korea's Yi Dynasty that took power in 1392 and even before that in China, men and women with similar surnames and ancestral homes were not allowed to marry. For example, the Kim clan of Gimhae, South Korea has a sizeable 4 million members and no two members of this clan, no matter how many generations removed their relationship was, were allowed to marry. This rule was still in effect until a Korean Constitutional Court decision in 1997 and is still fairly controversial today (Korean Constitutional Court, 2001).

Another implication is derived from the sense of familial responsibility promoted by Confucianism. Under this responsibility, "blood related" family members are bound, to a greater or lesser degree, to support and take care of each other. This has manifested itself in cases of nepotism or preferential hiring practices that have lasted even into contemporary society though these events are becoming rarer under the recent pressures to modernize (Chang & Chang, 1994).

Confucianism

Many practices and traditions in Korea, especially those surrounding surname preferences, are the direct result of Confucianism. Confucianism was adopted by the Korean society in the 14th century and has had a profound influence on the people ever since. The moral thinking of Confucianism is the socio-cultural infrastructure that guides individual behavior in the Far East Asian countries, such as South Korea (Runco et al., 1992; Park et al, 2005). It is viewed to be a broad set of ethical rules and expectations regarding daily life.

Confucianism identifies the moral obligations or ethics by the *wu lun*, the five basic relationships: ruler-subject, father-son, husband-wife, brothers, and friends, and it outlines the many moral obligations and virtues for each of the five relationships (Park et al, 2005, Chang and Chang, 1984). The core of the moral precepts is: affection between father and son, loyalty between sovereign and subject, the distinction between the roles of husband and wife, courtesy of the young for the old, and trust between friends. The Confucian ethical philosophy also emphasizes strict hierarchal order for human relationships based on age and sex, which are linked to the five above relationships. One of the significant ethical attributes is dedication to family which is somewhat extended to include members of a person's family, clan or even region.

Many of these common ties can be identified through their individuals' surnames. This attribute can be exercised through potentially giving preferential treatment to perceived family or clan members identified by their surname (Hwang, 2010).

Korean Hangeul Alphabet

As Hypothesis 3 of this paper is related to the Korean Hangeul alphabet, a short explanation is necessary to increase the comprehension of academics unfamiliar with the Korean language. From early history, Korean scholars made use of Chinese characters for writing, but to promote Korean cultural sovereignty, King Sejong created a written Korean alphabet called Hangeul in 1446 (Kim, 1990). This alphabet is comprised of 24-letters, consisting of 14 consonants and 10 vowels (National Institute of the Korean Language). Similar to the Roman alphabet, Hangeul letters and words can be alphabetized in lists, databases and other constructs.

Modernization of Governmental Regulations and Business HR Practices

The governmental and business environments have undergone considerable changes in the past several decades, taking Korea from an agrarian nation to an economic powerhouse. Especially since the 1997 Asian Financial Crisis, Korea's government and its business sector has made considerable efforts towards modernizing their laws, regulations and business practices. Those policies and practices have especially taken root in dealing with human resource issues to abolish corruption, increase transparency and ensure a more level playing field for workers.

The government has been at the forefront in attempting to make changes to improve the old system. Prime examples of these policies can be found in the government's proactive work to institutionalize gender management principles at both the organizational and operational levels of the national government (Park, 2010). In addition to applying these new principles, new laws have been passed to reform the current system. The Affirmative Action Act was introduced in South Korea in 2006 to increase female employment and correct discriminatory hiring practices (Cho & Kwon, 2010). Other regulatory changes include the establishment of anti-corruption panels and the development and enforcement of an ethical code of conduct. Altogether, these sweeping changes have had a great impact over a wide swath of areas that relate to discrimination and corruption.

The business sector has also tried to implement HR related reforms to both improve efficiency and productivity as well as try to make their policies fairer. These HR policy changes range from Standard Charter's push to move away from a seniority based pay scale to a performance based salary (Oliver, 2011) to firms adopting western HR practices (Bae & Rowley, 2004).

Between the many changes within governmental regulations and the business community in regards to HR reform and modernization, it is felt that the potential impact of various forms of discrimination, including surname discrimination, has been greatly reduced.

METHODOLOGY

The objective of this paper is to investigate the possibility of surname discrimination in the populations of professors at Korean universities as well as estimate the alphabetical effects of surname initials on professor employment. This study started with the collection of the names and other data of professors teaching at four top Korean universities from their institutions' websites. The collection of all data occurred during the June to August 2010 timeframe.

Data Collection

Many universities in Korea provide complete lists of their full time faculty's names, titles, universities, sex and other information on their public websites. The data for this study was directly collected from the websites of four top Korean universities. Use of the professor names was not limited to any specific department or major so as to represent the entire professor population of the schools. The specific Korean universities utilized in this study were Seoul National University, Yonsei University, Korea University and Pusan National University. (Seoul National University, 2010; Yonsei University, 2010; Korea University, 2010; Pusan National University, 2010)

The collected data was then analyzed using SPSS to test the three hypotheses and determine the level of possible surname discrimination found at each university and the collective whole as well as determine whether a surname's initials in either English or Hangul had an impact on professors' employment.

Final Sample

The final population of the Korean professors from the four universities used in this study totaled 1,692 professors with 74 different surnames. All final professor information used contained a complete data set. The full breakdown of professor data by university can be found in Table 1.

Hypotheses

During the course of the study, the following hypotheses were tested.

Hypothesis 1: The proportional percentage of professor surnames at Korean universities will match the national average.

Hypothesis 2: Professors with surnames closer to ABC in the Roman alphabet will be more likely to be employed as professors.

Hypothesis 3: Professors with surnames closer to the characters 'ㅁ', 'ㅂ', 'ㅅ' in the Korean Hangul alphabet will be more likely to be employed as professors.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Respondent Demographics and Profile

The demographics of this sample include 1,692 professors of which 138 are female and 1,554 are male and the majority attended foreign PhD programs. For more information on the professors' demographic backgrounds, see Table 1.

Univ.	Total Profs	Position			Sex		Foreign Univ. PhD
		Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Male	Female	
Busan	256	189	48	19	233	23	124
SNU	547	388	123	36	511	36	466
Yonsei	406	295	66	45	359	47	355
Korea Univ.	483	298	107	78	451	32	363

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was used to address each of the three hypotheses investigated in this study. Specifically, the analysis attempted to determine if the proportional ratio of professor surnames at Korean universities matched the Korean national average to identify the existence of surname discrimination and determine if surname order, in either the Roman or the Hangul alphabets, had an influence on the likelihood of professors with certain surnames to be full time professors.

The analysis for the first hypothesis was initiated by investigating the relationship between the populations of each surname in the general Korean population and those found in the populations of professors at the four selected Korean universities in order to identify unexplained ratio differences that might signify potential surname discrimination. To conduct this analysis, the ratios of surnames on both a national and aggregated university level were determined. The 73 common surname ratios were then compared using both computed t-values and p-values to identify statistical differences and significances.

The top ten most common Korean surnames, based on their percentages in the Korean population, with their corresponding university population ratios, ratio differences, and their t and p-values can be found in Table 2.

Surname	# of Professors	Ratio of Professors	Ratio of Korean Population	Ratio Difference	t_value	p_value
Kim	349	20.63%	21.87%	-1.25%	-0.575	0.57
Lee	277	16.37%	14.98%	1.39%	0.627	0.53
Park	134	7.92%	8.58%	-0.66%	-0.284	0.78
Choi	80	4.73%	4.78%	-0.05%	-0.022	0.98
Jeong	68	4.02%	4.92%	-0.90%	-0.376	0.71
Cho	50	2.96%	2.97%	-0.01%	-0.006	1.00
Kang	46	2.72%	2.58%	0.14%	0.059	0.95
Yoon	38	2.25%	2.09%	0.16%	0.065	0.95
Jang	38	2.25%	2.08%	0.17%	0.070	0.94
Lim	34	2.01%	2.06%	-0.05%	-0.022	0.98

Through analysis of the resulting statistical values, it was shown that there is no significant statistical difference between the Korean national and the aggregated university surname samples as all p-values are greater than 0.05. This insignificance directly supports Hypothesis 1 predicting that the proportional percentage of professor surnames at Korean universities will match the national average.

The hypothesis is further validated when the analysis was extended to look at the populations of professor surnames on an individual university level. The t and p-values found in Tables 3 and 4 also continued to displayed statistical insignificance.

Surname	Ratio of Korean Population	Korea University			Yonsei University		
		Ratio Difference	t-value	p-value	Ratio Difference	t-value	p-value
Kim	21.87%	1.00%	0.249	0.80	-4.21%	-0.930	0.35
Lee	14.98%	1.24%	0.297	0.77	2.43%	0.537	0.59
Park	8.58%	-1.93%	-0.438	0.66	-1.12%	-0.234	0.82
Choi	4.78%	1.66%	0.377	0.71	0.44%	0.091	0.93
Jeong	4.92%	-0.76%	-0.170	0.87	-0.19%	-0.039	0.97
Cho	2.97%	-0.47%	-0.105	0.92	-0.23%	-0.047	0.96
Kang	2.58%	-0.50%	-0.111	0.91	-0.84%	-0.169	0.87
Yoon	2.09%	1.03%	0.229	0.82	-0.60%	-0.121	0.90
Jang	2.08%	-0.42%	-0.092	0.93	0.41%	0.083	0.93
Lim	2.06%	0.23%	0.050	0.96	0.43%	0.087	0.93

Surname	Ratio of Korean Population	Seoul National University			Pusan National University		
		Ratio Difference	t-value	p-value	Ratio Difference	t-value	p-value
Kim	21.87%	-2.24%	-0.583	0.56	2.33%	0.426	0.67
Lee	14.98%	1.54%	0.392	0.69	0.50%	0.086	0.93
Park	8.58%	0.96%	0.235	0.81	-0.65%	-0.107	0.91
Choi	4.78%	-0.56%	-0.134	0.89	-2.80%	-0.448	0.65
Jeong	4.92%	-1.61%	-0.383	0.70	-0.55%	-0.089	0.93
Cho	2.97%	0.33%	0.079	0.94	0.60%	0.097	0.92
Kang	2.58%	1.09%	0.260	0.80	0.99%	0.161	0.87
Yoon	2.09%	0.30%	0.070	0.94	-0.50%	-0.080	0.94
Jang	2.08%	0.67%	0.160	0.87	-0.09%	-0.015	0.99
Lim	2.06%	-0.04%	-0.010	0.99	-1.27%	-0.202	0.84

The second and third hypotheses were also statistically investigated through the computation of a Spearman's rho Correlation Coefficient. These two hypotheses were both related to the alphabetical effects of surname initials on the likelihood of people being full-time professors at the four universities. The second hypothesis was specially related to the alphabetical effects of the professors' initials using the Roman alphabet. The third hypothesis related to the alphabetical effects using the Korean Hangeul alphabet.

The Spearman's rho Correlation Coefficient test measured the statistical dependence between surname initials and professor employment. The analysis for Hypothesis 2 resulted in a correlation of .071 and that of Hypothesis 3 found a correlation of -.075. Both of the correlation results displayed a very high degree of independence between the two variables, thus rejecting any correlation between either Roman or Hangeul initials and professor employment. The analysis results can be seen in Tables 5 and 6.

	N	Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Spearman's rho Correlation Coefficient	73	0.071	0.550

	N	Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Spearman's rho Correlation Coefficient	73	-0.075	0.526

RESULTS

This study addressed three research hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 postulated that Korean universities would possess the same proportional ratio of certain surnames that exists on a national average. Through the analysis of professor surnames from the four Korean universities and their resulting t and p-values, the hypothesis was definitively supported. Accounting for the entire sample population of professors, there were no significant statistical differences between the Korean national and the aggregated university surname sample. This insignificance was supported when each university was analyzed on an individual basis. Overall, the support of hypothesis 1 displays none of the potentially expected cultural effects from any bias based on surname. This implies that either the effects of Confucianism were much less than expected or, more likely, the attempts to modernize regulatory and business policies have achieved at least some of their desired effects in increasing the transparency and fairness of HR departments. The second hypothesis addressed the impact of English surname initials closer to the letter A having a more positive effect on the likelihood of professorship at a Korean university. This hypothesis was rejected having identified that surname initials have no correlation to professors' employment.

Hypothesis three is similar to the second hypothesis, however, it measures the impact of the surname initial based on the Korean Hangul alphabet. This assumption also showed no correlation between initials and employment. Thus, hypothesis three was also rejected.

CONCLUSION

This study examined surname discrimination from the context of Korean universities. Based on the statistical analysis, no evidence was found to indicate surname discrimination in Korea's universities. This situation fully supports the study's primary hypothesis and the assumption that improved; modernized HR policies have mitigated many of the effects of culture on human resource policies.

The analysis completed on the second and third hypotheses postulated that surname initials, whether in English or Hangul, have an impact on professor employment, was rejected. Overall, beyond the affirmation or denial of the research hypotheses, this study has further developed the study of surname discrimination in Korea. This research, plus potential explanations linking it to Korea's culture and HR policies, will provide a more complete foundation for future researchers.

A number of factors might have had a negative impact on the results of this study. One potential negative factor may be that only four universities were sampled. If data from more universities had been collected or if the sample had included more universities from Korea's "cultural heartland", which, anecdotally, are considered to be much more conservative, different

results might have been found. Conducting a larger study could provide a better data set for additional future studies.

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PREDICTING IMPLEMENTATION FAILURE IN ORGANIZATION CHANGE

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ABSTRACT

Failure to successfully implement change initiatives in organizations has long been recognized as widespread, commonplace, and costly. Though estimates of implementation failure rates vary, recent studies find that failure rates may be as high as 93%. Despite the best efforts of researchers in recent decades, high failure rates continue to persist. Neither advances in organizational measures, such as culture or alignment, nor attempts to enhance decision making, nor the addition of change management techniques have led to a dramatic reduction in implementation failure or the attainment of the expected value associated with change initiatives.

Our principal aim in this paper is to suggest an alternative approach that may increase the likelihood of successful implementation of organizational change initiatives and projects. We pursue this aim by developing taxonomy of implementation failure factors and by proposing a methodology for predicting these failure factors.

INTRODUCTION

For over a half century, researchers have studied the dynamics of organizational change in an attempt to help organizations more successfully implement it. However, failure in implementing change initiatives persists in organizations and is still recognized as widespread, commonplace, and costly (Wolf, 2006).

Recent review articles have estimated that failure rates for organizational change implementation range somewhere between 28% to as high as 93% (Candido & Santos, 2008; Bridgeforth, 2000). In his review, Bridgeforth suggests that high reported failure rates have remained essentially unchanged since Greiner's (1967) meta-analysis of change studies reported an average failure rate of 73%. The higher estimates (upwards to 93%) tend to be derived from consulting company reports and executive opinions, although studies of return on investment (ROI) have estimated failure rates of between 60% and 90% (Wong, Chau, Scarbrough &

Davison, 2005). Projects are abandoned about 30% of the time; perceived degree of financial objectives not attained is estimated at approximately 33%; joint ventures are said to fail 61% of the time; failed implementation of advanced manufacturing technology approaches, 86% of the time; reduction of business unit costs and improvement of earnings fail to be realized between 55% and 70% of the time; and perceived total quality management implementations fail at the rate of 41% to 93% (Candido & Santos, 2008). Failure rates in the Project Management and Information Technology literature are similar, with rates reported to range between 50% and 90% (Stephens, 2008; Wong, Chau, Scarbrough & Davison, 2005). Elevated failure rates are also prevalent in the reengineering literature (Grover, Jeong & Teng, 1998). Much is known about (a) how to improve strategic decision making, (b) how to successfully choose a project with a high expected economic return, (c) how to operationalize strategies and projects, and (d) how to apply change management processes to maintain change momentum. Why then do implementation failures persist in such great numbers?

Although there are numerous studies that have examined implementation success and failure, they are inconsistent (a) with respect to their definitions of what constitutes failure, (b) in the criteria they use to judge it, (c) in the industry studied, (d) in the quality of methodology used, and (e) in the unit of analysis (business process, project, strategy, etc). (See Hutzschenreuter & Kleindienst, 2006; Candido & Santos, 2008.) Candido and Santos (2008) acknowledge that true failure rates might be slightly lower than reported because of the high number of perception and estimation investigations; however, they still conclude that failure rates are very high. No one really knows what the true rate of failure is in implementation of projects and strategies and there is no clear model of how to avoid failure (Lally, 2004; Stanislaw & Stanislaw, 1983; Hrebiniak, 2006; Hutzschenreuter & Kleindienst, 2006). Moreover even though some may suggest that certain types of change initiatives are easier to implement than others, no one knows for sure (Candido & Santos, 2008). This may be one reason why many managers believe it is much more difficult to implement a strategy than to formulate one (Zairi, 1995).

In our view the persistence of failure rates despite ongoing research efforts stems from a general absence of a complete systemic view of implementation failure. We believe that this absence causes a lack of common language or 'common currency' that might allow the respective domain experts in decision making, implementation, and change management to communicate and collaborate with one another. We further suggest that an initial step toward developing a common currency is the development of a taxonomy of potential implementation failure factors that could be measured and shared across these related domains. Despite the long history of examining implementation failure, a shared taxonomy does not yet exist—leaving decision making and analysis, implementation of projects and strategy and change management as separate processes performed by independent teams with little interaction. There is literature examining and attempting to categorize failure factors and several studies that have developed instruments to measure at least a subset of them. Our principal aim in this paper is to increase the likelihood of successfully implementing organizational change initiatives by developing a

larger taxonomy of implementation failure factors internal to the organization and by proposing a simple cost-effective methodology for predicting the likelihood of implementation failure based upon these failure factors. Implementation failure herein is defined as either a new project or strategy that was formulated and not implemented, or one that was implemented but with poor results (e.g., missed schedules, expected value not reached; Candido & Santos, 2008; Miller, 1997).

PERSPECTIVES ON WHAT AFFECTS IMPLEMENTATION SUCCESS/FAILURE

Research has yielded a variety of perspectives on the antecedents to implementation success or failure, each with its own theoretical foundations. As an example, Bridgeforth (2009) posits that all change is cultural change. Beer, Eisenstat and Spector (1990) frame the problem in terms of implementation orientation, top-down versus bottom-up. Successful implementation has been investigated as a function of the decision process (Macmillian, 2000); implementation tactics (Lehner, 2004; Kirsch, 2004; Mitchell & Nault, 2007); as a variant of the leadership processes (Carmelli & Sheaffer, 2008); of organizational alignment (Ravishanker, Pan & Leidner, 2009); and as a function of readiness for change (Weiner, Amick & Lee, 2008; Holt, Armenakis, Field & Harris, 2007; Miller, Wilson & Hickson, 2004). Additionally, Bordia, Restubog, Jimmieson and Irmer (2007) discuss the effects that a negative past change management history has on employees. There are also a number of studies that emphasize resistance or willingness to participate (e.g., Sun & Alas, 2007; Alas 2008, 2009).

A few researchers have attempted to develop models of organizational change. For example, Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) identified three factors common to all change efforts: content, contextual, and process issues. *Content issues* refer to the specifics of the change effort: whether it is fundamental or incremental change, episodic or continuous change, etc. *Process issues* refer to the actions taken by change agents during the introduction and implementation of the proposed change such as communication and change management. *Contextual issues*, refers to the pre-existing forces in an organization's external and internal environment: competitive pressure, governmental deregulation, or technological changes (external) or an organization's prior change history, levels of professionalism, attitudes toward change, and resources (internal). Armenakis' and Bedeian's (1999) model treat the decision making and analysis process that occurs before change efforts are initiated as exogenous. Cline (2000) compares many such models and discusses the effects of resistance and organizational alignment on implementation. Lehner (2004), and Waldersee and Griffiths (2003), show that technical and structural changes can often be implemented without prior support of the workforce while behavioral and social changes cannot be implemented by top-down edict to an unsupportive workforce. Saran, Servier and Kalliny (2009) suggest a model of implementation that includes culture, decentralization, differentiation, leadership, job satisfaction and job involvement, but do not provide a predictive

model. Managing implementation of change in organizations, whether it is a project or strategy, is a complex process, with few predictive models to guide the practitioner to success.

Our review of the implementation literature suggests that the following six research and operational perspectives include hypothetical models and actual measures that are intended to predict implementation success or failure, and therefore dominate the recent implementation literature.

Decision making

The most developed form of decision making in organizational change, project development and organizational portfolio management is the area of decision analysis. Extensive models of decision analysis (DA) have been developed (Skinner, 2009) that use statistical analysis to evaluate alternatives, risk, uncertainty, and the value of new information in a decision in formulating a change decision in organizations. Antagonists of DA question its efficacy (Keefer, Kirkwood & Comer, 2004); while protagonists suggest that DA is effective in helping choose the better strategy or alternative (Smith & Winterfeldt, 2004; Schilling, Oeser & Schaub, 2007). Most of the research into the connection of DA to success in organizational change outcomes has been survey-based or simulated (Macmillian, 2000; Keefer, Kirkwood & Comer, 2004). There is limited empirical evidence linking DA to reduced implementation failure (Macmillian, 2000; Nutt, 2008). Schuyler (1997) and Clemen and Kwit (2001) suggest that few studies provide data showing that organizations using DA perform better than companies that do not. While there may be ample unpublished evidence to the contrary—particularly in military and consulting contexts—there is sparse published research showing that DA causes better implementation success. Although choosing alternatives on the basis of expected value has been shown to reduce risk, minimize uncertainty, and increase our understanding of the value of new information, DA may not be sufficient to guarantee implementation success or the attainment of expected value.

Risk Analysis/Assessment

Operational risk analysis and assessment (RA) in organizations has a long history (Bedford & Cooke, 2001; Peltier, 2008) and involves identifying probable threats to an organization and analyzing the vulnerabilities of the organization to these threats. Continued operations of an organization depend on having awareness of potential disasters, an ability to minimize disruptions of critical functions, and the capability to recover operations. RA provides the foundation for the entire recovery planning effort (Wold & Shriver, 1997). Internal risk factors in organizations can be divided into organization risk, decision risk, business risk, financial risk, technical risk, human-resource risk, informational risk and credit risk (Yi, Jiazhen & Qain, 2008). A number of scholars advocate the risk analysis approach, and some present

successful case studies that attribute corporate success in part to risk analysis (Bedford & Cooke, 2001). While there are a number of methodologies designed for probabilistic RA, similar to the literature in DA, there is much written about how to do it and little empirical data showing its effectiveness. The contribution of RA is that it shows the complexity of organizational processes and events and asks managers to examine the relevant risks.

Organizational Culture

That organizational culture (Schein, 1985; van den Berg & Wilderon, 2004) influences firm effectiveness is an assumption implicitly held by many managers and management researchers; however, few empirical studies have provided detailed insight into the relationship (Gregory, Harris, Armenakis & Shook, 2009). Carmelli and Briole (2007) and Johns (2006) have provided reviews of the impact of organizational culture on a number of organizational variables. Ashkansay, Wilderom and Peterson (2004, 2010) provide a review of the measurement of organizational culture. Although there is extensive literature defining organizational culture, measuring its components/constructs, and associating it with numerous components of organizational success and change, there are few studies connecting a reliable and predictive measure of organizational culture to implementation outcomes (van den Berg & Wilderon, 2004; Mallinger, Goodwin & O'Hara, 2009).

Organizational Alignment

Organizational alignment is the relationship between a firm's internal systems and strategies and its organizational opportunities and possibilities (Schneider, Hayes, Lim, Raver, Godfrey & Haung, 2003). Porter (1996) suggests the best way for an organization to achieve competitive advantage is through organizational alignment. Research investigating the relevance of alignment or congruence has found it to be important (Crotts & Ford, 2008), but there is little evidence of alignment having been used to predict implementation success or failure (Barki & Pinsonneault, 2005; Buytendijk, 2006; Dickson, Ford & Upchurch, 2006). Crotts and Ford (2008) describe an instrument measuring alignment which has been used in a number of settings in predicting a firm's performance.

Readiness to Change

Weiner, Amick and Lee, (2008) define readiness for change as the extent to which organizational members are psychologically and behaviorally prepared to implement organizational change. In psychological and structural terms they observed two broad approaches in how authors described readiness, and concluded that most currently available instruments for measuring organizational readiness for change exhibited limited evidence of

reliability or validity. Their review identified seven instruments that had undergone a systematic assessment of validity and reliability (see Holt, Armenakis, Field & Harris, 2007) and four studies that examined organization-level outcomes of readiness for change (including Sen, Sinha & Ramamurthy, 2006; Tan, Tyler & Manica, 2007). Consequently, the area or readiness for change may be the closest to developing a predictive link to implementation failure.

Change management

Some organizations that are aware of the high failure rates use change management (CM) initiatives (Carnall, 2007) to solve problems after implementation has begun (Hughes, 2007; Cameron & Green, 2004). While there is evidence that CM is effective in increasing the success of organization change initiatives, we presently understand little about when, where and how (Balogun & Hailey, 2004; Carnall, 2007; By, 2005). Karp and Helgo (2008) suggest that change management effectiveness is low because leaders underestimate the complexity of change, and focus on tools, strategy and structures at the expense of being attentive to how human beings' beliefs affect organizational change efforts. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, there is no common currency to facilitate the communication of possible causes of failure between decision analysis, implementation control and CM efforts. The ability to timely target CM where it is needed, and to bring the projected costs of such activities more fully into the decision process before actual implementation begins would enhance how CM is used in large project and strategy implementations-lowering costs and possibly increasing implementation success. However, this would require an awareness of what the failure factors are and having a valid means of measuring them.

Attempts to enhance decision making, risk analysis, and change management have not been shown to increase the likelihood of implementation success. The isolated measurement of antecedent organizational factors has not led to better prediction or the prevention of implementation failure. While extensive research has been conducted on decision processes, risk analysis, measurement of organizational culture, alignment, employee readiness, and many other variables that may affect implementation success or failure, there are few studies in which researchers have identified predictors or developed reliable and valid models of implementation outcomes.

MEASURES OF IMPLEMENTATION SUCCESS AND CRITICAL FAILURE FACTORS

Measures of alignment, culture, and readiness with varying degrees of reliability are found in the extant literature. Of the instruments that present possible validity data are Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts & Walker's, (2007) scale that measures change recipients' beliefs as a barometer of the degree of "buy-in," and the scales of both Weiner, Amick, & Lee, (2008), and

Holt, Armenakis, Field & Harris (2007) that measure readiness for change. Other measures include the Dickson, Ford & Upchurch (2006) scale that assesses 42 alignment factors; the Judge and Douglass' (2009) inventory of factors that measures an organization's or an organizational unit's capacity for change; and the Gustafson, Sainfort, Eichler, Adams, Bisognano & Steudel (2003) measure of 18 failure factors, which were developed using Bayesian modeling to quantify experts' subjective estimation of their influence in implementation success. Given the magnitude of failure in organizational change and the breadth of the research investigating change, we were surprised that few have attempted to predict the phenomenon. We suspect, as perhaps others do, that the complexity of predicting implementation failure prohibits the use of traditional survey research methods with multivariate analyses due to the number of variables needing to be measured and the size and complexity of any resulting instrument. There is simply too much to measure.

Identifying a set of critical failure factors may provide a way to circumvent the size and complexity challenge of predicting implementation failure. Wong, Chau, Scarbrough & Davison (2005) define the concept of "critical failure factors" (CFFs) as "the key aspects (areas) where 'things must go wrong' in order for an enterprise resource planning implementation process (ERP) to achieve a high level of failure." Wong, Chau, Scarbrough & Davison (2005) also look at CFFs across the ERP Life Cycle (Markus, Azline, Petrie & Tanis, 2000) suggesting that implementation is a cascading or phased phenomenon. McGuire and Hutchings (2006); Lally (2004); Burke, Kenney, Kott & Pflueger (2001); and Korf (2004) discuss the factors affecting successful implementation of projects. Figure 1 is a summary of many of the studies that we found in our review of the implementation and organizational change literature that examine CFFs. As seen in the figure, the CFFs that have been investigated range from the commonly known (i.e., top management support) to the relatively undefined (i.e., self-interest of employees). CFFs can involve the individuals themselves, the processes and communication in the organization, or the organization itself.

Figure 1: Critical Failure Factors

<i>PROCESS CFFs</i>		<i>ORGANIZATIONAL CFFs</i>	
Goals, Metrics and Rewards		Culture	
No Clear State of Requirements/Goals/Objectives	Decker & McCormack, 2008	Unsupportive Culture - grp & balanced	Brian et al, 2009
No Clear Vision & Objectives	Lalley, 2004	Not flexible/inability to adjust to changes	Decker & McCormack, 2008
Little Role definition & Presence of conflict	Boehm, 2002	Initiative Overload	
No Metrics/Monitoring/Feedback or not aligned	Heneman et al, 2008	History of failed initiatives	Bordia et al, 2007
Rewards not aligned to change	Heneman et al, 2008	Too many competing initiatives	Toolpack, 2011
Decision Making & Planning		Alignment	
Poor decision making	Nutt, 1998	No Alignment - Orgl./Vertical & Horizontal	Bryan et al, 2009

Figure 1: Critical Failure Factors			
<i>PROCESS CFFs</i>		<i>ORGANIZATIONAL CFFs</i>	
Goals, Metrics and Rewards		Culture	
Continual changing customer requirements	Kannan et al, 2008	No Alignment of supply chain	Bryan et al, 2009
Poor Project Management competence/ plan, schedule	Somers & Nelson, 2001	Infrastructure/Structure	
Little user involvement in DM or planning	Iver & Olson, 1984	Inadequate Infrastructure	Lalley, 2004
Overreliance on customization	Wong et al, 2005	Inadequate Resources and Funding	Laaley, 2004
Improper Planning i.e. cost and time estimate	Lalley, 2004	Inadequate CM	Kemp & Low, 2008
Poor Strategy/Project Fit	Floyd & Lane, 2000	Leadership	
Bureaucracy and Politics		Poor leadership (General)	Pinto & Slevin, 1989
Little Interdepartmental cooperation/bureaucracy	Chaos Report, 1994	Leadership Pays Too Much Attention to Financial Issues	Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002
Too much Bureaucracy and Politics	Lalley, 2004	Lack of Support from Leadership	Pelletier, 2006
Knowledge Transfer		Unrealistic Expectations of Leadership	Wong et al. 2005
Lack of Training/poor knowledge transfer	Somers & Nelson, 2001	Lack of Emotional Intelligence	Hill, 2009
Inappropriate CM processes/strategy	Somers & Nelson, 2001	Lack of Change Champions	Chrusiel, 2008
Staffing			
Lack of Competent Staff	Lalley, 2004		
Inadequate Staffing	Keil et al. 1998	PEOPLE CFFs	
Poor IT/ERP system misfit	Wong et al, 2005	Low Care Horizon	
Poor consultant performance	Wong et al, 2005	Turnover of Team/ Leaders	Pelletier, 2006
Not Commercially profitable for the contractor	Lalley, 1984	Don't See the Change as Real/ Not Needed	Toolpack, 2011
Process Issues		Unrealistic Expectations from Management Perceived by Employees	Pelletier, 2006
Processes not in place	Decker & McCormack, 2008	Poor Alignment of People's and Org.'s Values	Pelletier, 2006
Mechanistic processes	Decker & McCormack, 2008	Little Mgt. Support Perceived	Lalley, 1984
Poor Business Process Reengineering	Wong et al, 2005	Little Individual Readiness for Change	Holt et al, 2007
		Low Motivation to Change	
		Interpersonal Resistance	Toolpack, 2011
COMMUNICATION CULTURE CFFs		Too much change coming	Black et al, 2004
Poor Community for Change		Little Motivation to Change	Toolpack, 2011
Little Interdepartmental Cooperation	Somers & Nelson, 2001	Little Buy-in/Passion	Pelletier, 2006
Little Executive Management Support	Boehm, 2002	Large Status Change Expected from Change	Decker & McCormack, 2008
Few Project Champions Perceived	Somers & Nelson, 2001	No Fun/Hard Work Expected	Decker & McCormack, 2008
Lots of Bureaucracy and Politics	Pinto & Slevin, 1989	User Resistance	Wong et al. 2005
Poor Implementation Manager's Reputation	Decker & McCormack, 2008	Low Ability to Change	
Low Commitment/involvement	Wong et al, 2005	Avoidance of Accountability	Decker & McCormack, 2008

Figure 1: Critical Failure Factors			
<i>PROCESS CFFs</i>		<i>ORGANIZATIONAL CFFs</i>	
Goals, Metrics and Rewards		Culture	
Poor Communication Culture		High Need for Control	Sun & Alas, 2007
Poor Communication and connection	Boehm, 2002	High Need for Predictability	Decker & McCormack, 2008
Unrealistic Expectations of Employees	Somers & Nelson, 2001	Little Personal Flexibility	Pelletier, 2006
Conversation/Participation Not Allowed	Decker & McCormack, 2008		
Employees Cannot Express Doubt	Decker & McCormack, 2008		
High Sense of Vulnerability	Decker & McCormack, 2008		
No Clear & Consistent Expression of Vision & Objectives	Toolpack, 2011		
Transparency & Trust			
Prior Negative Experiences	Silwka, 2007		
No Transparency	Decker & McCormack, 2008		
Recent Change of Leadership/Management	Pinto & Slevin, 1989		
Lack of Trust	Waldresee & Griffiths, 2003		

While not exhaustive Figure 1 suggests that there are at least 60 CFFs, including the aforementioned constructs, which fit within our proposed taxonomy for project/strategy implementation. In this figure we have grouped the CFFs into possible categories. Figure 1 does not include a complete synopsis of all research articles focusing on (a) the measurement of resistance, (b) decision making and risk analysis, (c) organizational culture, (d) organizational alignment, and (e) project management. With 17 proposed dimensions and upwards of 60 CFFs, it is evident that predicting implementation success or failure is a complex process. However, we believe that the taxonomy can serve as the basis to develop a predictive instrument for implementation success or failure. It is important to note that we as of yet do not have a parsimonious, predictive powerful theory or a complete taxonomy that explains organizational change (project to strategy) failure across a range of organizational types and situations. This research is needed.

When there is a great deal to measure there is the risk of measuring incompletely, measuring the wrong thing, or measuring unreliably. At present, there are many failure factors that we have identified that are without valid measures. However, it is our assertion that multiple measurements—across many factors—are required to cover the breadth of complexity in implementations and organizational change. A common problem that arises in measuring a multitude of constructs is the length of the survey instrument that is required. Due to time and cost constraints, conducting such an extensive survey is often prohibitive. However, assessing these failure factors might reduce the frequency and ultimate cost of project/strategy implementation failure and enhance decision analysis, implementation, and change management efforts.

A MARKER ANALYSIS OF IMPLEMENTATION FAILURE

We believe that it may be possible to construct a “marker analysis” of implementation failure using employee/manager opinion. Marker analysis—commonplace in genetic screening and health diagnosis—is a technique whereby the sequence of a gene is not directly analyzed, but is inferred through analysis of genetic or other markers. Genetic markers are genetic sequences which allow differentiation of the chromosomal alleles. An allele is an alternative form of a gene (one member of a pair) that is located at a specific position on a specific chromosome (Lamberts & Uitterlinden, 2009). Marker analysis is used because it is quick, it is easy, and because the actual location of the gene is unknown. There are over 2000 articles attesting to the validity of marker analysis in the prediction of disease (see Guttmacher & Collins, 2002; Li et al., 2011; Little, et al., 2011; Al-Delaimy & Walter, 2011; Rosenberger, 2007). Marker analysis has also been shown to be a valid approach in predicting plant insect resistance (Wang, et. al., 2009); artistic ability (Maryn, et al., 2009); the range of animal populations (Dvorak, et al., 2001); as well as a number of other applications (Rosa, et al., 2010; Dai, et al., 2004).

Risk marker analysis has also been useful in predicting the behavioral tendencies of people. Aldarondo and Sugarman (1996) used risk marker analysis to predict the cessation and persistence of wife assault. They made a conceptual distinction between *stable* risk markers (those that are built-in and well learned), which predict an increased likelihood of being violent, and *malleable* risk markers (those that may change over time either as the result of natural processes or interventions), which are associated with the continuation of the violence. Similar conditions exist in organizations—some stable organizational factors lead to a failure in initiating change, and some factors cause a failure of change implementation (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). Little, et al. (2011) describe a simple method for making longitudinal comparisons of alternative markers in a subsequent event - menopause. The method is based on the aggregate prediction gain from knowing whether or not a marker has occurred at any particular age of an individual. An attractive feature of the method is the exact decomposition of the measure into two components: 1) discriminatory ability, which is the difference in the meantime to the subsequent event for individuals for whom the marker has and has not occurred, and 2) prevalence factor, which is related to the proportion of individuals who are positive for the marker at a particular age (Little, et al., 2011). An extension of this concept to organizations can also be found in the risk analysis and assessment literature (Peltier, 2008). Consequently, there is reason to believe marker analysis will work in predicting implementation failure.

Irrespective of the type of research, complexity is often a problem in prediction. Using marker analysis in clinical practice for some diseases, such as diabetes, is still limited by the powerful effects of other modifying genes, environmental influences, lifestyle factors and the continuing change in the knowledge base of the genome (Lamberts & Uitterlinden, 2009). This is also true in organizations and is a primary reason why we propose the adoption of a risk marker analysis approach to organizational implementation and change. Akin to the use of

genetics to predict disease, some organizational constructs are ill-defined or unknown, measurement of all constructs is too costly, and the interaction effects of numerous organizational differences are largely unknown. At this stage and in consideration of these uncertainties, the potential for failure might be more readily predicted using “markers.” The information gleaned from these markers can then be used to guide a more focused analysis and appropriate interventions can be applied strategically where and when needed.

Judge, Thoreson, Pucik & Welbourne (1999) suggest that change success may lie “within the psychological predispositions of individuals experiencing the change.” In studying obstacles to successful implementation, Hutzschenreuter & Kleindienst (2006) review strategy process research and suggest that the behavioral side of implementation appears to matter a great deal. However, we have known for years that people don't do what they say they will in many situations (LaPiere, 1934). This classic study has been replicated countless times with a whole raft of theories unsuccessfully searching for connections between people's attitudes and their behavior. Attitude and behavioral intention haven't served as very strong predictors of actual behavior. Of the seven studies found by Weiner, Amick & Lee (2008) to be valid predictors of employee readiness to change, the majority assessed readiness as respondents' opinion of organizational systems/processes or employee capabilities or commitment, not as behavioral intent. Furthermore, Judge & Douglas (2006) developed a valid eight dimension survey of organizational change capacity using respondents' opinion of organizational systems/processes.

We do not propose that measuring employee's attitudes or behavioral intentions to predict behavior at the individual or group level; rather, we propose that one could measure individuals' perceptions of implementation risk factors at the organizational level—focusing on people, process, culture, organizational capability, and structure factors—to predict implementation failure potential. Surowiecki (2004) argues that large groups of people are smarter than the elite or expert few—no matter how brilliant—and better at solving problems, fostering innovation, coming to wise decisions, even predicting the future. However, he suggests not all crowds are smart. Wise crowds must have 1) a diversity where each person has private information even if it is an idiosyncratic interpretation of the facts; 2) independence where people's opinions aren't determined by the opinion of those around them; 3) decentralization where people are able to specialize and draw on local information; and 4) aggregation where some mechanism exists for turning private judgments into a collective wisdom. We suggest that the use of a confidential survey in which managers and employees provide their best estimate of the implementation failure risks in their organization, meets these criteria. We believe employees are knowledgeable and possess local, specialized information, but may be reticent to speak up publicly. Maintaining confidentiality or anonymity minimizes the potential risks of contamination by the opinions of others or pressures from higher authority. We assert that employees and managers have a vested interest in completing such a survey honestly since any implementation failure could be costly to them personally. Finally, we believe that adopting the

proposed marker analysis approach is a mechanism for turning private judgments into a collective wisdom.

While we know a lot about what causes failure, often it is not known or acknowledged in an organization. And, currently, there is no quick and easy method of predicting implementation failure. Implementation success and failure is too complex. Many of the factors are truly unknown (we often do not know what we do not know), or the managers involved refuse to acknowledge them (avoidance of accountability), or they are known but not discussed due to fear of embarrassment (undiscussable). We feel these issues can be addressed with a “risk marker analysis” method that tests for the existence of CFFs using a less inauspicious measurement method. We suggest that actual failure factors may be inferred and predicted in an organization by measuring employees’ and managers’ aggregate assessments about the presence or absence of the factors which could cause failure of a project or strategy in an organization. This could be performed by project, by strategy, or for the organization as a whole. The analysis could be conducted across time. It could be conducted via survey, blog, or market analysis. Once the marker analysis uncovered a set of potential failure factors, those could be planned for and possibly the severity of each reduced by strategic intervention. More in depth and focused analysis could subsequently be performed using any available valid construct measures.

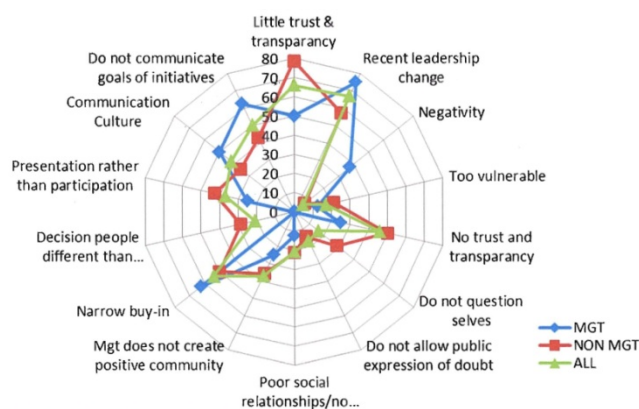
We suggest the simplest operationalization of this strategy is to implement a survey measuring the CFFs (see Figure 1) with questions both managers and employees could answer. Such a questionnaire could be administered using a web-based survey tool with items anchored to a Likert-type scale (“strongly agree” to strongly disagree”). This data collection would be confidential and anonymous, allowing each vested individual to employ his/her unique perspective, independent of other’s opinion, and allow for aggregation by group in order to gain a collective wisdom about potential CFFs in a project or strategy. Figure 2 is an example of these types of questions.

CFF	Question
Hard work/No fun	I don't think people here like all the extra, added work that comes with a new change effort.
IT not in place	It seems like IT never keeps up with new changes here.
Employee resistance	I expect the employees to resist any new strategies we try to implement.
KPIs not aligned to change	The metrics measured in our organization are usually not the ones needed to support change efforts.
Infrastructure not in place	We seem to have the infrastructure to change for the future.
Communication culture	We do not have the time to devote to all these new changes.

The concept of using data at the individual-level to understand organization-level phenomena is present in social network analysis. Social network analysis (Knoke & Yang, 2007) is about understanding how social networks function and how that functioning leads to certain outcomes. Research in a number of academic fields has shown that social networks operate on many levels from families up to the level of nations, and play a critical role in determining the way problems are solved and organizations are run. As an example, Singer (2010) describes how a for-profit patient networking site and data aggregator had come to a conclusion similar to a very expensive clinical study much more quickly and at radically less cost. It is beyond the scope of this paper to explain how social networks function, but it is corollary in why we believe individuals might lead us to the prediction of implementation failure. Not only could it be possible to assess the potential impact of CFFs, but it may be possible to compare social networks (managers vs. workers) in their assessment of failure factors.

Figure 3 is an example of the type of feedback that would result from a survey-based marker analysis of CFFs in organizations. The results of the data analysis would graphically depict which CFFs are present in an organization and where there is a disconnect between managers and employees concerning them. Potential problems impacting implementations, areas of disagreement, or avoidance of accountability for a problem could be surfaced with this analysis. Much needed research about implementation failure and strategy formation in organizations could be done with tools such as these.

Figure 3 – CFF Feedback Mechanism



In this paper we've identified a taxonomy of over 60 possible critical failure factors that place organizational implementation and change initiatives at risk. We believe it is possible for researchers to quickly assess these factors using the concept of risk marker analysis. We have proposed a possible operationalization for this concept. The resultant data can then be used to guide decision analysis, project implementation and change management interventions. The

measurement of failure factors may also act as a common communication vehicle that these related professions can collaborate to prevent the high rates of organizational change failure.

IMPLEMENTATION, TIME, AND COMPLEXITY: A FURTHER ISSUE

As evidenced by the literature on the subject, implementation is a complex undertaking. While a few measures exist that can be used to predict the success or failure of organizational change or strategy implementations at any given point in time, the issue of prediction becomes more clouded when one considers that implementation and change occurs in organizations over time (Carr & Hancock, 2006) and in phases (Ross, 1998). Implementation can be viewed as either a series of cascading thresholds (Hannan, Polos & Carroll, 2003) that must be met (as in a project) or overcome (as in a strategy or change initiative), or even as a chaotic system (Mason, 2008). Implementation is also likely to occur differently across various organizational units. A number of studies suggest that a different, specified focus is required within the various phases of projects (Wong, Chau, Scarbrough & Davison, 2005).

Gladwell (2000) suggests that once the beliefs and energies of a critical mass of people are engaged, conversion to a new idea will spread like an epidemic. He suggests a tipping point occurs at the spot at which enough individuals adopt an idea for the change to become self-sustaining so that the idea cannot die of its own weight and that the organization cannot return to the status quo. Gladwell proposes that a few, specific individuals are more influential than others—through networking, knowledge, and selling—at spreading trends and that “sticky ideas”—those that are memorable, practical, and personal—are more easily spread. Although there is little empirical evidence of tipping points outside of healthcare (Futernick, 2007; Gray, 2005; Repenning, 2002), the topic has become a favorite one among organizational change consultants and theorists. Kim & Mauborgne (2003) state that leaders who create such points in their organizations rely on overcoming certain hurdles. They suggest that *cognitive and resource hurdles* represent the obstacles organizations face in reorienting strategy and *that motivational and political hurdles* prevent a strategy’s rapid execution. Consequently if one could determine the existence of these individuals and their beliefs or motivation relative to CFFs in projects or strategy, it may enhance the ability to create such tipping points across an implementation time line.

While much of this literature on cascading or temporal organizational change—project phases, change thresholds to be overcome, tipping points—is theoretical, there remains much literature outside of organizational theory that shows empirical evidence of such phenomena (Goldenfeld & Kadanoff, 1999; Folke, Carpenter, Walker, Scheffer, Elmqvist & Gunderson, 2004; Scheffer & Carpenter, 2003; Pierson, 2003). We see tipping points occur politically or in markets. An extensive review of this literature augments the argument that in implementing change it would be quite useful to understand more fully the CFFs of implementation. It would also be useful to have efficient, reliable and valid measures of CFFs, and to use these measures

to estimate the height of the various change thresholds to be overcome in terms of effort and financial resources. Such measures would also assist in the understanding of the point at which thresholds or tipping will occur, the differential effects of tipping by project phase, and the effects of employee networking. Finally, CFF measures would afford the estimation and targeting of the change management efforts that are needed to overcome implementation hurdles. To the extent that such data can be used in the first steps of the DA process, better alternatives can be chosen to reduce the apparently high failure rates of implementation efforts or more efficiently target needed CM efforts. This may be a key to enhancing the implementation process in organizations and providing the currency accepted by decision makers, implementers, and CM professionals as a way to communicate what is acceptable to each in their models of practice. This is particularly important to DA and RA which demand rigorous measurement and to CM which often does not offer information statistically.

CONCLUSION

The failure of implementation has been the centerpiece of this article. The high rate of implementation failure has led us to consider the extensive research literature on implementation barriers in search of what that literature can instruct us about increasing the likelihood of successfully implementing organizational change initiatives. In the course of our literature review we have proposed a 'starting' taxonomy of implementation failure factors and a possible methodology for predicting failures and focusing remedial efforts. We believe that a marker analysis of implementation failure factors using manager and employee beliefs about the existence of CFFs could assist in the efforts of DA, RA, implementation, and CM researchers and practitioners alike.

A measure of CFFs could add to the predictive power of DA and RA, enhance implementation and execution excellence, and help target CM efforts. Measuring CFFs early in the decision process will allow DA to fulfill its promise of understanding the full range of possible outcomes, including softer issues. The resulting data on "soft" issues could be quantified and used to modify the strategic alternatives by incorporating items historically overlooked in DA. CFFs would also be included in sensitivity analyses and "tornado charts" for each strategy, just as any other uncertainty would be; thus, those CFFs with the greatest potential to destroy value and/or cause implementation failure could be identified. This understanding can further help organizations choose strategy more wisely and develop change-management efforts targeted at the specific CFFs identified. In addition measuring CFFs may provide a basis for modeling as well as predicting tipping points and change thresholds occurring in a variety of organizational change efforts. Moreover, measuring CFFs periodically as the implementation process proceeds could shed light on progress toward overcoming change thresholds and allowing timely response to emerging challenges. Finally, the inclusion of CFFs should encourage more broad-based thinking rather than partitioned work in organizational change. The

beginning of these possibilities is to show that failure factor marker analysis is feasible and economical.

In our review, we have not considered the effects of external events upon implementation efforts. However, external events such as a hurricane or a sudden rise in the price of oil or some other commodity can and do affect implementation success and failure. They can have greater impact than internal organizational factors such as individual's beliefs and behavior, needed process and infrastructure changes, and the other 'internal' CFFs that are considered here. Given the length of this present review, the impact of external events is a large added variable we have left for a later time.

Strategy and portfolio management of projects should not stop at the decision and leave the implementer—those risking reputation, budget, and career after the decision process—to engage in implementing decisions as a separate end-game divorced from the initial alternative choice. Information about implementations should be gathered and used empirically to help choose alternatives, plan implementation, model future events, and target CM efforts. Similarly, CM should be an extension of the decision—planned, efficient, and effective. However, the basis for this collaboration is a common currency that is accepted and useful in the different professions and phases of organizational change. We believe that a taxonomy of CFFs with an accompanying “marker analysis” moves us toward that shared currency. Furthermore, we argue that change thresholds and tipping points in implementation could be identified and manipulated to the good of the organization with reliable and valid information about people's beliefs concerning CFFs. Believing in the wisdom of the crowd, employees can be used to predict where failure of change implementations will occur. This may provide at least a partial answer to many executives' worries about partitioned work in organizational change, failed implementations, and increased budgets dedicated to failing implementations.

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SOCIAL SKILL IN WORKPLACE MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

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ABSTRACT

The goal of this theoretical paper is to examine the role of social skill in the mentoring process from a career perspective. Drawing on empirical and theoretical evidence, we build on Kram's suggestions to understand the role of social skill in various stages of mentoring relationships. We then examine how both the mentors and protégés' social skill influences the overall mentoring effectiveness especially on dysfunctional mentoring relationships. Our paper provides both theoretical and practical implications for researchers interested in social skill and for firms with mentoring programs.

Keywords: Social skill; mentoring; career success; social exchange theory; dyadic relationships; dysfunctional mentoring relationships

INTRODUCTION

Mentoring is a developmental relationship that involves close interpersonal interactions between a mentor and their protégé and it has become a popular research topic as evidenced by the various meta-analyses summarizing the literature (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, & DuBois, 2008; Underhill, 2005). In general, results from these meta-analyses suggest that mentoring relationships provide positive outcomes for protégés especially in a career setting, such as higher job satisfaction, salaries, and supervisor support (e.g., Eby et al., 2008). Although there is ample research on the benefits of mentoring relationships, limited research is available on the process or factors relating to the cultivation and maintenance of successful mentoring relationships (Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003). Nonetheless, in her seminal work, Kram (1985) suggested that interpersonal skills may influence how mentoring relationships are initiated and developed, although surprisingly, the role of interpersonal skills in a mentoring relationship has received little attention. Therefore, the goal of this theoretical paper is to discuss how interpersonal skills, such as social skill, influence the mentoring process. In doing so, we build on Kram's (1985) suggestions to understand the role of interpersonal skills in mentoring relationships.

Social skill is an individual's ability to successfully interpret and manage social interactions (Witt & Ferris, 2003), and research indicates that it is positively associated with job performance, promotion, salary, and psychosocial adjustment (Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, Blass, & Kolodinsky, 2002). Individuals with strong social skill also tend to experience positive social interactions (Riggio & Zimmerman, 1991). Nonetheless, little is known about whether or how individual social skill influences the workplace mentoring process, although it seems likely that both mentor and protégé social skill influences the costs and benefits of a mentoring relationship.

The idea that social skill influences mentoring relationships may seem self-evident, but we aim to go beyond simply stating the obvious. More specifically, given that mentoring relationships involves costs and benefits we utilize social exchange theory to examine the underlying mechanisms of mentoring relationships. We first provide an overview of mentoring relationships, social exchange theory, and social skill. We then describe how social skill influences mentoring relationships in the initiation and cultivation phase of a mentoring relationship from a dyadic perspective. Finally, we discuss the implications of our propositions for various mentoring topics.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Traditional Mentoring Relationship

Mentoring involves an older, more experienced adult supporting, coaching, and sponsoring a younger individual (Kram, 1985), and research indicates that mentoring leads to positive career outcomes for protégés, such as higher salary and career satisfaction (Eby et al., 2008). In general, protégés receive two broad types of support from their mentors: career and psychosocial (Allen, Eby, O'Brien, & Lentz, 2008; Kram, 1983). The career support includes sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, and protection. Through career support, protégés learn the skills needed for career advancement and are offered the opportunity for challenging and high visibility assignments. The psychosocial support includes role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship. These functions enhance and develop protégés' inner growth, which contributes to higher job satisfaction and self-esteem (Allen et al., 2004).

Kram (1983, 1985) proposed that mentoring relationships consists of four phases: initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition. The initiation phase lasts six to 12 months and involves setting expectations about the relationship. The cultivation phase typically lasts two to five years and it is during this phase which protégés typically receive a wide range of career and psychosocial functions. During the separation phase, the protégé seeks more autonomy and during the redefinition phase, the dyad members begin to see each other as peers. We describe in our paper the role of social skill in the first two phases of the relationship: the

initiation and the cultivation of a mentoring relationship. We focus on these two stages because they appear to be most important for protégés because only relationships that reach the cultivation phase can provide employees with the types of mentoring assistance discussed above.

While it is well understood that protégés tend to benefit from the mentoring process, involvement in a mentoring relationship can also be beneficial for the mentors (Kram, 1985). The benefits for mentors include better job performance, a supportive network, personal satisfaction, and gratification (Allen & Eby, 2003; Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997; Kalbfeisch, 2002; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). However, mentoring relationships are not without costs, which can include a drain of time and energy for protégés and mentors as well as the risk that a poor performing protégé can reflect negatively on the mentor (Ragins & Cotton, 1993; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Given that mentoring relationships involve the exchange of costs and benefits, we draw upon social exchange theory to understand underlying mechanisms that influence the formation of mentoring relationships.

Social Exchange Theory

Blau (1964) described social exchange as an individual's voluntary actions toward another person that are motivated by an expected return from the other person. Unlike an economic exchange in which a contract specifies the exact transactional details in advance, the content of a social exchange is not explicitly specified. Rather, the expectation is that the other person will reciprocate at some point in the future. Another fundamental difference between social exchange and economic exchange is that the former creates feelings of trust and appreciation while the latter does not (Blau, 1964).

Mentoring relationships are social exchanges that provide intrinsic and extrinsic benefits to both protégés and mentors. Intrinsic rewards include attachment, affection, pleasure, satisfaction, and social support, whereas extrinsic benefits include advice, invitations, assistance, or compliance (Blau, 1964; Yukl, 1994). Not surprisingly, individuals, such as potential mentors and protégés, participate in relationships in which they expect to gain greater benefits and incur fewer costs (Homans, 1958). In particular, individuals engage in relationships when they believe both parties will benefit from the relationship in the long run (Blau, 1964). Nevertheless, there is evidence that some mentoring relationships can be ineffective and even harmful to protégés and mentors (Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby, Butts, Lockwood, & Simon, 2004; Scandura, 1998). We theorize that social skill plays a role in influencing the formation and cultivation of a mentoring relationship.

Social Skill

Social skill has been conceptualized as a skill that encompasses the sub-skills to effectively sense social cues, accurately interpret interpersonal dynamics, and flexibly adjust one's behavior to respond to social demands (Hochwarter, Kiewitz, Gundlach, & Stoner, 2004; Lawler & Finegold, 2000; Witt & Ferris, 2003; Wu & Turban, 2009). Although the concept of social skill is not new in the training and the communication literatures, management scholars have just started to study the effect of social skill in career outcomes during the last decade (Ferris, Witt, & Hochwarter, 2001; Hochwarter, Witt, Treadway, & Ferris, 2006; Witt & Ferris, 2003). Social skill or the ability to effective interaction with others allows individuals to present favorable self images, which is important at the relationship development stage. Furthermore, individuals with strong social skill are found to be more likeable and more successful at maintaining intimate, high quality relationships (Riggio & Zimmerman, 1991). Nevertheless, how social skill influences mentoring relationships is not clear. In the next section, we discuss how social skill affects the initiation phase of a mentoring relationship and the dyadic effect of both the protégé and mentor's social skill on the cultivation stage of the mentoring process.

The Direct Effect of Social Skill on Mentoring Formation

We theorize that social skill plays a role in the formation of a mentoring relationship and examine the formation process from a perspective that people with high social skill are more likely to be sought out as mentoring partners. As noted earlier, having a protégé can result in both costs and benefits for mentors. The costs include the time and energy invested in the relationship as well as risks associated with having poor performing protégés, which can reflect poorly on the mentors' judgment and ability (Ragins & Cotton, 1993; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Furthermore, if protégés' are unable to act in a socially appropriately manner, their behavior can result in adverse consequences for mentors, such as a negative reputation and negative social networks (Labianca, Brass, & Gray, 1998). There are also benefits for mentors when engaging in a successful mentoring relationship. First, mentors may become more effective and efficient if they can delegate work to protégés. Second, they can rely on protégés for information and support for further advancement in the organization. Third, the mentors' reputation may be enhanced when their protégés are successful. Last, mentors may gain satisfaction and a sense of accomplishment from sharing their knowledge and helping less experienced colleagues (Bozionelos, 2004; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Based on social exchange theory, we believe that mentors seek relationships with protégés who are expected to provide higher benefits and lower costs. For example, Allen and Poteet (1999) found that mentors tend to choose a protégé based on their perceptions of the protégé's ability or potential, and that the ideal qualities of protégés include listening and communication skills, patience, and

the ability to read and understand others, that is, higher levels of social skill. Thus, protégés with strong social skill are more likely to be sought out by mentors because they are expected to provide greater benefits than protégés with weak social skill.

Conversely, mentors with greater social skill were perceived, by potential protégés, as more proficient in providing mentoring functions and were better liked and respected than mentors with less interpersonal skills (Olian, Carroll, Giannantonio, & Feren, 1988). In particular, such mentors were viewed as more competent and resourceful. In addition, mentors with greater levels of social skill appear to be friendly, which encourages pleasant social interactions with others and can develop a network with a wide range of people. A wide network means more information, resources, and career sponsorship opportunities for protégés, which are important in advancing protégés' career (Burt, 1992; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). Thus, one might expect that mentors with higher social skill are able to provide better career related benefits compared with mentors with lower social skill. Therefore, we theorize that individuals with higher levels of social skill are more likely to be sought out as mentoring partners than individuals with lower levels of social skill.

P1 Individuals (both mentors and protégés) with higher levels of social skill will be more likely to be sought out by others to form mentoring relationships.

Social skill is especially critical in the formation of a *diversified* mentoring relationship. Ragins (2002) defined diversified mentorship as a relationship that involves a mentor and a protégé with different group membership, which may include race and age. Although diversified mentoring relationships typically refer to mentors and protégés who differ in their physical traits, diversity can include both “surface” and “deep-level” characteristics (Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999). Surface-level diversity involves the differences among group members in biological characteristics, while deep-level diversity involves differences among members' attitudes, beliefs, and values. Research shows that mentors tend to choose protégés who are perceived to be similar to themselves in terms of deep-level characteristics, such as values and interests (Allen et al., 1997), and the satisfaction of the relationship increases with perceived deep-level similarity (Ensher & Murphy, 1997). Hence, the ability to identify deep-level common grounds is important in forming a mentoring relationship.

Unfortunately, individuals tend to form their first impressions of others based on surface-level characteristics and act towards the person based on the stereotypes associated with such characteristics (Turban, Dougherty, & Lee, 2002). Stereotypes are often inaccurate, and can negatively influence the perceived deep-level similarity between a potential mentoring dyad (Ragins, 2002). We theorize that social skill is important in helping potential mentoring dyads with diverse backgrounds move beyond surface level differences and uncover shared interests and values. Highly socially skilled individuals are observant and tend to “read between the

lines,” which allows them to attend to deeper aspects of the other person. These individuals are also able to effectively communicate common interests and values to their potential mentoring partners. Therefore, diversified dyads, using their strong social skill, are able to discover underlying similarities and facilitate the formation of a diversified mentoring relationship.

P2 Potential mentoring dyads with high social skill are able to establish deep-level similarity and successfully form a diversified mentoring relationship.

Dyadic Effects of Mentor and Protégé Social Skill

The cultivation phase of a mentoring relationship, which lasts two to five years, is when the dyad members get to know one another at a more intimate level. Protégés’ expectations of their mentors, which are formed earlier, are tested, and the career and psychosocial functions, peak during this phase. Generally, career functions appear first as the mentors provide challenging assignment and sponsorship and as the relationship becomes more intimate, more psychosocial functions are provided (Kram, 1983). Although mentoring relationships typically are formed to help protégés, like all interpersonal relationships, mentoring relationships are subject to difficulties and even relational dysfunctions (Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins, 2008). For example, both mentors and protégés reported that negative experiences in developmental relationships resulted from mismatches within the dyad or difficulties in working with the other dyad partner (Eby et al., 2004; Eby & McManus, 2004). Therefore, research shows that mentoring relationships vary in terms of how effective they are and can range from effective to dysfunctional with marginally effective and ineffective in between (Eby & McManus, 2004; Eby et al., 2004; Eby et al., 2008). We theorize that relational difficulties are more likely to occur when one or both dyad members have low social skill. More specifically, we examine the mentors and protégés’ social skill and discuss theoretically how various combinations of social skill can influence the overall effectiveness of a mentoring relationship.

An effective mentoring relationship takes place when mentors provide appropriate mentoring functions to their protégés and both parties have developed a trusting relationship. To achieve an effective mentoring relationship, both mentoring partners need to be able to effectively interact with each other; hence, a high-high social skill combination is needed. Mentors with higher levels of social skill are able to develop deeper interpersonal relationships by being a good listener and supporter (Riggio & Zimmerman, 1991), which is important for fostering relationship bonds. In addition, highly socially skilled mentors are able to provide protégés with interactions that are lively, engaging, and interesting. As for protégés, highly socially skilled protégés know how to effectively express their career needs and manage interpersonal differences, thus are able to seek higher amounts of mentoring assistance than protégés with lower social skill. Therefore, we theorize that a highly socially skilled mentoring pair is capable of building a more trusting, enduring, and pleasant relationship.

P3 An effective mentoring relationship is more likely to develop when both the mentor and the protégé have strong social skill.

A marginally effective relationship occurs when a mentoring relationship is “teetered on the edge between being effective and ineffective,” such as when a protégé’s performance is below expectations or when a protégé is unwilling to learn from their mentor (Eby & McManus, 2004, p. 259). Because this type of relationship is largely affected by protégés, we theorize that marginally effective relationships are more likely to occur when a protégé has low social skill. As stated earlier, protégés with low social skill are less able to “read between the lines” and pick up essential non-verbal and verbal cues from their mentors in terms of when they should enter or leave a social situation or what they should say to an important client or manager. Therefore, protégés with low social skill might not be able to reap all the benefits from a mentoring relationship and meeting the expectations from their mentors. Protégés with low social skill, who are unwilling to learn, are also less likely to know how to disguise their reluctance to learn or engage in impression management in front of their mentors. They may even act in an inappropriate manner towards their mentors’ guidance, which can potentially turn the relationship into ineffective or even dysfunctional. Therefore, we propose a low-high social skill combination because highly socially skilled mentors know how to deal with an insensitive or non-performing protégé in a polite manner and are able to maintain a somewhat functional relationship despite their protégés’ deficiencies.

P4 A marginally effective mentoring relationship is more likely to develop when a protégé with low social skill is paired with a mentor with high social skill.

Ineffective mentoring relationships can take place when a person has positive intentions toward another person but has difficulty in personal interactions (Scandura, 1998). Although this type of relationship can be influenced by both mentors and protégés, we theorize that ineffective relationships are more likely to occur when a socially skilled protégé is paired with a mentor with poor social skill. Mentors’ social skill plays a critical role in ineffective relationships because mentors determine the amount of mentoring provided to a protégé. In particular, mentors with low social skill are less able to identify the need of their protégés, which can lead to low levels of mentoring assistance offered to the protégés. In addition, these mentors are not able to accurately receive and decode verbal and nonverbal messages from their protégé, which can create misunderstanding. Thus, mentors with low social skill are more likely to develop difficulties in the relationship and severely limit the mentoring functions provided to their protégé. We theorize that it is critical for these mentors to have socially skilled protégés because these protégés can prevent the already ineffective relationship from becoming dysfunctional by responding to their mentors in a positive or neutral manner. Thus, a high-low social skill combination is proposed.

P5 An ineffective mentoring relationship is more likely to occur when a high socially skilled protégé is paired with a low socially skilled mentor.

A dysfunctional relationship can result from destructive relational patterns or interpersonal difficulties (Eby et al., 2008). Although the causes of a dysfunctional relationship are multifaceted, we expect that mentors' and protégés' social skill may be one possible factor. In particular, we theorize that social skill influences dysfunctional relationships by causing interpersonal problems, such as interpersonal conflicts, and that interpersonal conflicts are more likely to develop when mentors and protégés both have poor social skill. Protégés with lower social skill may seek assistance from mentors at the wrong moment and in a socially inappropriate manner, such as being aloof or too aggressive. The inappropriate behavior can irritate mentors and reduce the subsequent mentoring assistance provided to the protégé. Low socially skilled mentors, on the other hand, are less able to provide developmental assistance in an effective manner and have lower sensitivity toward their protégés' needs, which can lead to disagreement and even conflicts. In addition, their insensitive and possibly offensive interactions can create a negative spiral that leads to anger and resentment. Thus, we theorize that dyads with low social skill, although a rare occurrence, are likely to lead to a dysfunctional mentoring relationship.

P6 A dysfunctional mentoring relationship is more likely to develop when both the mentors and the protégés have low social skill.

To recap, social skill is critical in both the development and cultivation phases of a mentoring relationship. In particular, mentoring dyads' social skill influences the perceived cost and benefit and the overall effectiveness of the mentoring relationship.

DISCUSSION

Though there is a large body of knowledge relating mentoring to career outcomes, the dynamic processes by which mentoring relationships are initiated and developed are not well known. In an attempt to instigate such research we discussed how social skill influences the formation and the cultivation stages of mentoring relationships. We theorized that both protégés and mentors' social skill influences the extent to which they are viewed as attractive partners and especially when the mentoring dyads have diversified backgrounds. We also proposed that both mentoring partners' social skill influences mentoring relationships and examined how different social skill combinations affect mentoring effectiveness. We believe this paper contributes to the literature by (1) combining the social skill and mentoring literatures to further understand how individual characteristics influence mentoring outcomes; (2) exploring Kram's suggestion to examine the influence of social skill in the cultivation of

mentoring relationships; and (3) highlighting the dyadic perspective of relationships, which is relatively rare in the mentoring literature.

As discussed in our paper that the selection of mentoring partner is important because of the costs associated. In particular, having a non-performing protégé can drain a mentor's time and energy and having an ineffective mentor can lead to unpleasant consequences for protégés. Hence, potential mentoring partners should observe each other's interpersonal skills before starting a mentoring relationship, whether it is a formal or informal mentoring relationship. Although informal mentoring relationships tend to be more effective than formal mentoring relationships, research shows that formal mentoring is better than no mentoring (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; for a review see Wanberg et al., 2003). Furthermore, some evidence suggests that how the formal mentoring program is designed impacts protégé benefits and that a formal mentor program "is only as good as the mentor it produces" (Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000, p. 1192). Therefore, on a practical note, we suggest that firms may want to train participants (both mentors and protégés) in social skill. In addition, researchers might attempt to conduct a field experiment to examine whether training in participants' social skill impacts the benefits of the mentor relationship for both the protégé and the mentor.

In addition to informal and formal mentoring, there is a third type of mentoring called developmental networks. Developmental networks refer to relationships that exist in network form (Higgins & Kram, 2001). Compared to the traditional mentoring relationship, which is typically a one-to-one dyadic relationship, developmental network relationships are in the form of one-to-many relationships, and involve a protégé and a group of developers who provide developmental assistance to the protégé (Higgins & Kram, 2001). Developers can include peers, subordinates, family members, friends, supervisors, and senior employees who either work in the same organization as the protégé or outside of the organization. A developmental network perspective conceptualizes protégés as having the autonomy to select, initiate, develop, maintain, and manage a network of developers who are within or outside of the protégé's organization (Higgins, 2000; Higgins & Thomas, 2001; Ibarra, 1993, 1995). As such, the developmental network perspective is considerably broader than the traditional conceptualization of mentoring and we believe that mentors' and protégés' social skill is extremely important in cultivating and maintaining effective developmental networks. Given the space constraint we do not provide as much detail, but our intent is to stimulate more research on the role of social skill in developmental relationships and networks.

More broadly, we hope that our paper encourages more research into the role of individual differences, beyond demographics, in influencing mentoring relationships. Much of the research examining individual differences in mentoring research has examined demographic characteristics such as gender, race, and age (Noe, Greenberger, & Wang, 2002), and there is a surprising dearth of research examining individual differences such as social skill and personality characteristics (Wu, Turban, & Cheung, 2007). As noted by Wanberg and her colleagues (2003), employees' ability and skills influence their experiences as protégés and

mentors, although, to date, there is little research in this area. We agree with Wanberg et al. (2003), who stated that research into protégé and mentor individual differences should be a research priority, and we hope that our paper provides some guidance to scholars interested in conducting such research.

In summary, the management of workplace mentoring relationships is important as research shows that mentoring leads to positive career outcomes (Allen et al., 2008). Thus, by examining the role of interpersonal skills, such as social skill, we contribute to the understanding of the dynamic of mentoring process. In particular, we extend the management literature by examining the role of social skill in mentoring relationships from a dyadic perspective, which is critical since mentoring involves the dynamic interactions of both the mentors and protégés. We hope that this paper will stimulate and encourage more research to study the effects of individual differences in mentoring relationships, and especially from a dyadic perspective.

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LAWSUITS WALK IN ON TWO FEET: THE BULLY IN THE WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT

Bullying in the workplace is alive and well in these tough economic times. Bullies are predators; they are controlling, and they are dangerous. Bullies come in every race, age, religion and gender. Even though there isn't a workplace bullying law yet in the United States, bullying exposes an employer to potential legal liability, such as negligent hiring and negligent retention. In addition, there are direct and indirect costs which can total up to 43.4 billion a year. Lawsuits don't just happen; they walk into your organization on two feet.

INTRODUCTION

"Cruelty, like every other vice, requires no motive outside of itself; it only requires opportunity."

George Eliot

The word "bully" often conjures up images of elementary school and the tough kids on the playground we all tried to avoid. But bullies are not just confined to schoolyards; they are now in the workplace (Sweeney, 2007). For generations, schoolyard bullies have tormented children. And many of these bullies eventually get jobs. But workplace bullying is complex because the victim does not always fall into a protected class or category and because there is a wide range of behaviors, from subtle to physical (Angel, 2010). In addition, bullying seems to be alive and well in these tough economic times, with many organizations unwilling to let go of bullies who have good technical skills or organizational knowledge or tenure. Add to that, many bullied employees are afraid to report workplace bullying for fear of losing their jobs. Because of record unemployment, the perfect storm has been created for bullies to thrive and continue with their tyrannical behavior (McCullough, 2011). This paper will give a definition of bullying; delineate the number of people involved; describe bullies and their targets; discuss the legal ramifications; detail the costs of bullying in the workplace; and describe what organizations can do to eliminate bullying and thus reduce their legal liability.

DEFINITION

Bullying is domestic violence where the abuser is on the payroll (Casey, 2010). Many managers belittle, isolate, intimidate and sabotage employees. Some tyrannical managers scream and send out scathing e-mails. But often, an oppressor uses a subtler, and easily covered, collection of behaviors. These actions could include purposely leaving a worker out of communications so s/he can't do her/his job well, mocking someone during meetings and spreading malicious gossip about their target. The acts may seem trivial, but as they build up over time, the ramifications can be monumental (Patrecca, 2010). Bullying can be verbal or non-verbal, direct or indirect, general or specific. Whatever form it takes, it is always undermining, humiliating, excluding, and shaming of other people. It can be intentional or unintentional. When intentional, the intended impact is one of hurting others. When it is unintentional, people have a lack of awareness of the impact of bullying behavior on others. Either way, the impact of bullying behavior on people is always devastating and often long lasting (Townend, 2008).

Number of People Involved

- 60 percent of bullies are men; 40 percent are women
- 57 percent of targets are women; 43 percent are men
- 74.7 percent of women targets were bullied more by bosses than men
- When the bully is a woman, 71 percent of targets are women and 29 percent are men.
- When the bully is a man, 53 percent of the targets are men and 47 percent are women

(Lieber, 2010).

Workplace bullying is a widespread problem; 37 percent of U.S. workforce members report being bullied at work; this amounts to an estimated 54 million Americans, which translates to nearly the entire population of the states of Washington, Oregon, California, Nevada, Arizona, and Utah (Wiedmer, 2010).

Bullies/Targets

Bullies, as children, often were victims at home and thus became bullies out in the world. They tend to be insecure individuals who project their insecurities and inadequacies onto others, as opposed to dealing with them in some constructive fashion. They are predators. They are controlling. They are dangerous. Ironically, workplace bullies do not necessarily target those less competent or less skilled than themselves. Often, it is quite the opposite. One of the complexities of bullying is that it occurs vertically and horizontally in the organizational

hierarchy, including, on occasion, upward hierarchical bullying (Dalton, 2007). Recent brain-scan research has shown that bullies are wired differently. When they see a victim in pain, it triggers parts of their brain associated with pleasure. As a function of their insecurities, bullies often target highly competent individuals who they perceive as a threat to their own authority. Bullies appear to be driven by the classic zero-sum game belief that there is a finite amount of praise, rewards, and so forth to be shared; they want, and believe they deserve, it all. Bullies believe that by pushing others down, they elevate themselves (Dalton, 2007).

Bullies come in every race, age, religion, and gender. Some of their varied characteristics are being controlling, impulsive, explosive, self-centered, insensitive to the needs of others, perfectionists, passive-aggressive, impatient, and extremely critical and nitpicking (Lieber, 2010). Managers inclined to bullying are most likely to lash out at their subordinate targets when operating in highly chaotic and disorganized workplaces (Sidle, 2009).

Targets, on the other hand, are reported to be better liked, had more social skills, possessed higher emotional intelligence, and were appreciated by colleagues, customers, and management (bullies excluded) for the warmth and care they brought to the workplace (Wiedmer, 2010). Nevertheless, numerous studies document that targets of bullying experience physical symptoms, such as fatigue, sleep difficulties, clammy hands, dry mouth, headaches and concentration deficiencies. They are also at higher risk of cardiovascular disease, hypertension, and weakened immune systems, higher diastolic and systolic blood pressure, higher use of sleeping drugs and sedatives than non-bullied employees. Targets also experience mental and emotional symptoms, such as fear, depression, anger, and guilt (McKay, Ciocirlan & Chung, 2010). Some targets even are driven to suicide.

LEGAL RAMIFICATIONS

There is a fine line of distinction between bullying and harassment. Harassment can be viewed as a subset of bullying. While both types of behavior involved degrading, intimidating and insulting the victim, harassment is discriminatory behavior that targets demographics such as gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, religion or disability. While bullying sometimes is conducted on such demographic grounds, bullying is primarily aimed at intimidating victims on the basis of the latter's workplace abilities but it may include discriminatory behavior. This distinction implies that harassment can be fought legally, while there are no laws against bullying, at least in the United States. Bullying is often more difficult to identify, as it is more subtle, less, direct, and uses psychological tools to a larger extent than harassment (McKay, Ciocirlan, & Chung, 2010).

Even though there isn't a workplace bullying law yet, bullying exposes an employer to potential legal liability on several fronts. Bullying can lead to lawsuits based on claims of negligent hiring, negligent retention, a hostile work environment or discrimination. Bullying also can lead to workers' compensation claims for stress and emotional injuries. If bullying

results in physical violence, then assault and battery claims also may surface. In any of these claims, it is no defense that the bully is an “equal opportunity” bully who treats everyone in a demeaning way (Angel, 2010).

Over the past decade, 16 U.S. states have attempted (several of them up to five times) to pass an antibullying legislation. The Healthy Workplace Bill scored its largest victory in May 2010, after the New York State Senate passed a bill that would allow workers to sue for physical, psychological, or economic harm due to abusive treatment on the job (Lieber, 2010).

Some management employment lawyers like to say that “lawsuits don’t just happen; they walk into your organization on two feet.” Potential bullies can be screened out in the hiring process with extra attention to certain behaviors and prior experiences of the applicant. The hiring team should keep in mind that applicants should be prescreened not only for job skills and experience, but also for personal traits and skills (Lieber, 2010).

Costs

Organizations incur both direct and indirect costs as a result of bullying. Direct costs include paid sick leave, absenteeism, and costs associated with the use of employee assistance plans where available. Indirect costs include productivity losses and costs of hiring and training new employees. There are also the extra costs associated with overtime, either because the bully required targets to work overtime or because co-workers had to work more to make up for the work that should have been done by the absent target. Organizations also incur subtle costs associated with the deterioration of work climate and atmosphere (Wiedmer, 2010).

In addition, approximately 25 percent of targets and 20 percent of witnesses resign because of a workplace bully. Assuming an organization has 1,000 employees, if 25 percent are bullied and 15 percent of those quit as a result, their average “desk/replacement cost” is \$20,000, which comes to an annual cost of \$750,000. Add to those figures two witnesses per bullied employee, with 20 percent of affected employees quitting, and that analysis quickly subtracts \$1.2 million from the bottom line. Thus, a single workplace bully can easily cost an organization approximately \$2 million per year (Lieber, 2010). Not surprisingly, expenses related to bullying can be significant. In fact, The International Labor Organization has estimated costs for interpersonal violence, which includes bullying, in the United States ranging from \$4.9 to \$43.4 billion (Stagg, 2010).

What Can Be Done

What can organizational leaders do proactively to prevent bullying from happening in the first place, instead of merely reacting to it after the fact (Sidle, 2009)?

First, employers must understand the risks and costs associated with bullying so that they are motivated to address it. Second, they must incorporate an anti-bullying message into their

culture through written policies and training. Third, they must educate managers and supervisors to prevent bullying and to properly address it when it occurs (Angel, 2010). Fourth, it is important for bullies to change their behavior. Bullies need to acknowledge their disruptive actions and the consequences on others. Effective strategies for bullies may include counseling, mentoring programs, disciplinary meetings, and anger management techniques (Cleary, et. al., 2009). And finally, to eradicate workplace bullying, organizations must make it clear that respect is a core corporate value. This culture must start at the top levels of senior management (Lieber, 2010).

“Treat people as if they were what they ought to be, and you help them to become what they are capable of being.”

Johann Wolfgang von Goethe

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WHEN DOES BREACH OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL- CONSUMER PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT AFFECT THE EMPLOYEE'S DESIRE TO STAY?

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the relative influence of direct versus indirect breach of psychological contract on employee commitment to the organization and employee job satisfaction. Data were obtained from 332 employees of a national hotel chain based in the western United States. Results indicate that both direct and indirect breach of psychological contract explain variation in each of our dependent measures. However, we found that breach of the direct psychological contract was more valuable in explaining variation in reported organizational commitment. Breach of the consumer psychological contract, on the other hand, proved more important when explaining variation in reported job satisfaction.

INTRODUCTION

A search of the PsychInfo database reveals that over the last twenty-five years approximately two hundred articles have been written with an explicit focus on the notion of psychological contract. This indicates a great deal of interest on the part of social scientists in this construct notion. In fact, this idea of a psychological contract existing between employee and employer has an intellectual heritage dating back to Rousseau's early work in 1989, and can be conceptually traced even further back to Schein in 1965.

This body of work is impressive and has contributed greatly to our understanding of how employees perceive their work circumstances. However, this vast work has been limited to what we will call the direct psychological contract, or that psychological contract which develops between the employing organization and the employee. Absent in this literature is a recognition of indirect contracting by which obligations to other stakeholders (e.g., customers) may influence the work experience and intentions of employees. We believe that the breach of such indirect obligations on the part of the organization (the consumer psychological contract) may be as important as the breach of the implicit psychological contract between employer and employee.

This vicarious perception of psychological contracting parallels findings in other areas of the organizational behavior literature. For instance, Greenberg (1996) determined that individuals vicariously develop a sense of organizational justice. Similarly, Butterfield, Treviño and Weaver (2000) demonstrated that one develops an understanding of the organization's

ethical culture vicariously. We believe capacity to extrapolate vicarious experience will prove equally important to the psychological contracting literature.

As such, the main purpose of this study is to examine the relative influence of direct and indirect breaches of psychological contract as perceived by employees on organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Although there is a large and growing literature that examines the effects of perceived psychological contract breach (Robinson, 1996; Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Robinson and Morrison, 1998; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994), this is the first empirical study of the direct versus consumer psychological contract breach. It is our hope that this study will accomplish three ends: 1) demonstrate the importance of consumer psychological contract breach on employees; 2) encourage the field to begin a search for other such stakeholder forms of psychological contracting; and 3) help researchers further mitigate the destructive consequences of perceived breaches to both direct and consumer psychological contracting.

OVERVIEW

For centuries scholars have emphasized the importance of fulfilling commitments, particularly one's promises. In fact, notable philosophers have declared it our duty to fulfill the commitments we make to others (Kant, Ross). Indeed, they have argued, that the loss of trust ensuing in a world in which promises mean nothing, make it virtually impossible to live out an orderly life. In recent decades, the changing workplace relationships have muddled what individuals can expect from their affiliation with an organization. As a result, an extensive amount of research has been directed toward these expectations that form in the nature of a psychological contract.

The psychological contract is comprised of the implicit and explicit promises that have been shaped by the organization in terms of the exchange agreement between individuals and the firm (Rousseau, 1995, 2001, 2004). Unlike "social" contracts, which are comprised by broadly based beliefs about the obligations of those within a culture, or the "normative" contract, which is a sharing of beliefs among more than one person about the organization's commitments, the psychological contract is crafted at the individual level of analysis involving one's personal beliefs regarding the promises that have been made. These perceived commitments become fundamental understandings about what will (or should) happen in the future. As with all contracts, they allow the parties to plan out their work lives, allocate their resources accordingly, to support their personal interests and to anchor their economic expectations. In other words they have a "transactional" value. However, work related psychological contracts also involve relationships with friends, mentors, supervisors and others that assist us in identifying who we are, locating where we stand and where we wish to go. Consequently, they also have a "relational" value (Rousseau, 1995). These two dimensions of the psychological contract influence how people perceive and respond to contractual breach (Rousseau, 1995).

Research in psychological contracts has been active and diverse in recent years. Although a comprehensive review of this literature is not possible here, a broad perspective of the general direction of the field can be construed. By far the highest concentration in research has occurred in attempting to understand the moderating and mediating factors between a breach of contract and specific employee undesirable behavioral outcomes. Researchers have also considered,

albeit to a much lesser extent, factors that either undermine or strengthen the psychological contract.

For example, Orvis et al. (2008) determined that the workers conscientiousness moderated behavioral and attitudinal responses to contract breach. These researchers found that employees with lower levels of conscientiousness reacted more negatively to a perceived breach by intending to leave, reducing loyalty and experiencing lower job satisfaction (Orvis, Dudley, & Cortina, 2008). In contrast, those with higher levels of conscientiousness reduced their level of performance. In considering the possibility of serious workplace deviancy, scholars have tested the relationship between a contract breach and desire to seek revenge (Bordia, Restubug, & Tang, 2008). A contract breach did increase desire for revenge and in turn increased workplace deviance. One's level of self-control moderated the latter relationship such that higher levels of self control reduced deviant behavior. Contractual breach and hostility are also related and have been found to be moderated by organizational justice practices and labor market factors (Tunley & Feldman, 1999).

In terms of more direct relationships, age has been determined to be a factor in the relationship between contractual breach with trust, and organizational commitment (Bal, 2008). This study found that the relationships between contract breach and trust and commitment were stronger for younger workers, however, the relationship between breach and job satisfaction was stronger for older workers. Trust has been a focus of interest to some of those researching psychological contracts. Atkinson (2007), for example, found relationships between various bases for trust and the psychological contract. Moreover, there is a direct relationship between breach of psychological contract and organizational citizenship behavior (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002). Cropanzano (2001) sees that justice attributions rest on the tenets of the psychological contract. If a psychological contract breach occurs it becomes by default, unfair. In addition, the type of justice violation (distributive or procedural) can be determined by the type of psychological contract (transactional or relational) that has been formed with the organization (Aycan & Kabasakal, 2006).

Studies aimed at understanding how psychological contracts are strengthened have, not surprisingly, found that mutuality and reciprocity in perceived contract relationships are positively related with productivity (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). In addition, employee ownership can create convergent psychological contracts such that there is a clearer vision of the contracts tenet and a stronger understanding of what constitutes a violation (Rousseau, 2004).

Of particular interest for the present projects is Rousseau's (2001) seminal paper detailing the role of promises in the formation of the psychological contract. Rousseau believes that the contract is "promise based" which over time takes on the form of a relatively stable cognitive schema representing what the contract is. Promises can be conveyed either through speech or through witnessing actions in pertinent contexts. However, interpretations of actions have been generally limited to those such as incentive systems, organizational policies and training programs. In other words, these actions have a direct link to the individual's formulating the psychological contract between one's self and the organization.

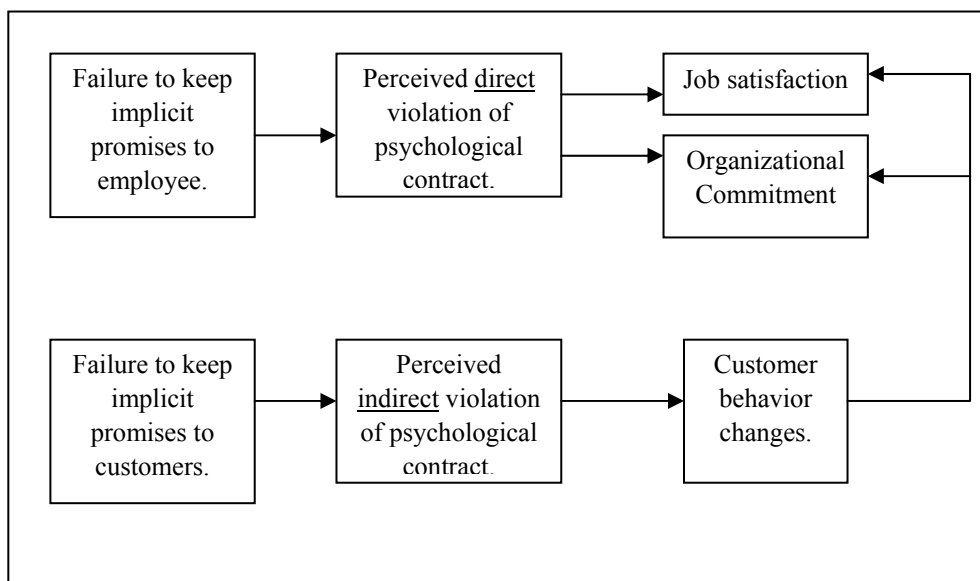
For the purposes of this study, we draw upon this definitional foundation for psychological contract formation and breach and use this perspective in combination with the model proposed by Robinson and Morrison (1997, 2000). In their article (2000), they leverage

this “promise based” notion of psychological contract, but emphasize the subjective nature of its formation and breach (pg.526). Specifically, they argue that not only is it often difficult to figure out whether a psychological contract was actually broken, it is often difficult to determine whether it was truly established in the first place.

Regardless of whether a psychological contract has been established in a manner that can be objectively verified, or not, the reactions to perceived breach are real and well established in the literature (e.g., see Robinson, 1996; Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994; Sutton, & Griffin, 2004; Zhou, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). According to Robinson and Morrison (2000), sources of contract breach include reneging and incongruence. They define reneging as occurring when “agents of an organization recognize that an obligation exists, but knowingly fail to meet that obligation (pg.526).” Incongruence, on the other hand, occurs when the “employee and organizational agent(s) have different understandings about whether a given obligation exists, or about the nature of the given obligation (pg. 526).”

Clearly, reneging in the psychological contract sense will likely only occur in the employee-employer relationship. However, it occurs to us that incongruence may occur not only between the employee and the employer, but also between other individuals involved in exchange relationships with the organization. An example would be customers—particularly customers of service-based businesses that involve repeated experience with the organization. It seems reasonable to expect that customers in such an environment might also form, or misunderstand obligations of the organization that are part of their contractual exchange. In this sense, there is another form of psychological contracting that occurs (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Direct Versus Consumer Psychological Contract Breach



As can be seen in figure 1, our interest is in the effect that an employee's perception of breach of each of these two types of psychological contract may have on employee behaviors. For clarity, in this study we refer to the psychological contract created between the employee and organizational agent(s) as the *direct psychological contract*. We refer to the psychological contract formed between the customer and the organization/agent(s) as the *consumer psychological contract*. We acknowledge that the language may not be ideal at this time, but have chosen the "direct" versus "indirect" language to reflect the perspective of the employee on each form of perceived breach.

Consistent with Robinson and Morrison (2000), the employee may be positioned to perceive implicit promises to the customer, as well as to themselves. As such, they are positioned to perceive incongruence in the consumer psychological contract, as well as to experience renegeing and incongruence in the direct psychological contract. A pattern of breach in any of these cases is expected to cause increased vigilance (see Robinson & Morrison, 1997, 2000, for detailed discussion) on the part of the employee. Increased vigilance should then increase the probability of perceiving breach of psychological contract.

For the above stated reasons, we developed this study to determine:

1. Whether consumer psychological contract violation is perceived by employees.
2. The relative influence of direct versus consumer psychological contract breach on employee attitudinal outcomes.

METHOD

Sample and procedure

The data for this study was collected over a nine week period. During this time, a survey was administered to 381 employees of a nationwide hotel chain. Respondents were given time out of their workdays in order to fill out the survey at computerized workstations set up in eight human resources offices spread across the western United States. The sample contained a wide cross-section of employees from executives in upper-management to housekeeping and food and beverage staff. The measure of salary versus hourly pay was used as a surrogate for managerial position; herein, 47.7% (168) were paid hourly and 52.3% (184) were salaried employees. Respondent age groups (by decade) were spread relatively evenly with no group exceeding 30% of the sample and also no group dropping below 20% of the sample. Of the 381 people surveyed, 60.5% (213) were female.

Of the 381 employees who completed the survey, 49 failed to complete one or more items on the survey instrument, leaving us with 332 completed surveys or a yield of 87% usable surveys for analysis.

We measured two dependent variables: job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Independent variables collected included promise-keeping measures used to identify both direct and indirect breaches of psychological contract as perceived by the employee. Finally, data was collected on several control variables that have been previously shown to influence levels of our dependent measures. These include gender, age, how the individual is paid (e.g., hourly or

salary), length of employment, satisfaction with wages, adequacy of benefits, and availability of adequate hours.

One limitation faced in conducting this study was the hotel's limitation on the number of questions we were allowed to ask employees. In essence, the hotel chain facilitated the data collection by providing time and place for employees to complete the survey, but they limited the duration of the imposition with this constraint. As such, space as well as validity needed to be considered in selecting measures of our dependent variables.

ANALYSIS

In both analyses presented, we employed stepwise regression. Criteria for entry and removal were as follows: Probability of F-to-enter $\leq .050$; Probability of F-to-remove $\geq .050$.

Dependent Variables

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using Andrews and Whitney's (1976) Satisfaction with Job Facets Scale. In studies assessing the reliability of this measure, coefficient alphas ranged from .79 to .81 (McFarlin & Rice, 1992; Rentsch & Steel, 1992; Steel & Rentsch, 1995, 1997). Additionally, Rentsch & Steel (1992) found that the Andrews & Whitney measure correlated highly with overall satisfaction scores from the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. Items include, "How do you feel about your job?" All items are measured on a 7-item Likert-type scale ranging from 7 = delighted, to 1 = terrible.

Organizational Commitment

To assess organizational commitment, we utilized the Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1982) Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. This questionnaire is a nine-item shortened version of the original fifteen-item organizational commitment questionnaire developed by the same authors in 1979. Items in this questionnaire include, "I am proud to be working for this organization," and "I feel very little loyalty to this organization (reverse scored)."

Reliability of this measure has been well-established in the literature with coefficient alphas ranging from .74 to .92 (Aryee, Luk, & Stone, 1998; Cohen, 1995, 1996; Dulebohn & Martocchio, 1998; Huselid & Day, 1991; Jones, Scarpello, & Bregmann, 1999; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Mathieu & Farr, 1991; Mossholder, Bennett, Kemery, & Wesolowski, 1998; netemeyer, Burton, & Johnson, 1995; Somers & Casal, 1994; Thompson & Werner, 1997; Wahn, 1998; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

Cohen (1996) demonstrated through confirmatory factor analysis that this measure is empirically distinct from job satisfaction. This work supports the similar finding of Mathieu and Farr in 1991.

Independent Variables

Perceived contract breach

Survey respondents were first queried in open-ended questions about the issues that their hotel promises to guests and to employees. The respondents were then asked about the extent to which the firm kept these promises. The responses were facilitated by a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by “not at all” and “completely.”

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and zero-order correlations for all variables are in Table 1. Our analyses include our two dependent variables, two independent measures (one each for perceived direct contract breach and perceived consumer contract breach), and seven control variables. Of the control variables, our greatest concern was with length of employment, satisfaction with wages, and availability of adequate hours. Each of these might ostensibly incline and individual to perceive greater breach of psychological contract. For instance, an employee who had been with the company for a longer period of time might also have more opportunity to perceive breach of contract. Similarly, an employee who perceived that their wages were inadequate or unfair might be more inclined to perceive contract breach.

		Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.	Job Commitment	4.23	0.97	1.00										
2.	Job Satisfaction	5.04	1.00	0.52	1.00									
3.	Keeps promises to employee	4.58	1.65	0.39	0.42	1.00								
4.	Keeps promises to customer	4.99	1.32	0.36	0.54	0.53	1.00							
5.	Gender	1.39	0.49	-0.05	-0.07	0.06	0.10	1.00						
6.	Age Group	3.37	1.19	0.11	0.10	0.01	0.17	0.11	1.00					
7.	Pay type	1.52	0.50	-0.07	-0.02	-0.03	-0.13	0.13	0.18	1.00				
8.	Years worked for company	3.09	1.53	0.03	0.05	-0.02	0.05	0.05	0.38	0.23	1.00			
9.	Adequacy of wages	5.33	1.53	-0.04	0.04	0.03	0.06	0.13	0.10	0.05	-0.10	1.00		
10.	Adequacy of benefits	5.38	1.65	0.08	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.07	0.22	0.05	0.02	0.49	1.00	
11.	Adequacy of hours	5.40	1.51	0.03	0.19	0.14	0.13	-0.09	0.09	-0.11	-0.08	0.44	0.35	1.00

Relationship between direct and consumer contract breach and organizational commitment

Table 2 presents results from the stepwise regression analysis in which the dependent variable was organizational commitment. The R-Square for full model is .183, with an adjusted R-Square of .178. Thus, keeping promises to employees and guests explains nearly 18 percent of

the variation in reported organizational commitment. Being perceived as having kept promises to employees explained 14.7 percent of the variation in employee commitment. Keeping promises to the guests explained an additional 3 percent of the variation.

As can be seen in Table 2, only two independent variables proved significant in explaining variance in organizational commitment. These were the two promise keeping variables that accounted for direct and consumer breach of psychological contract.

Variable	B	SEB	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1: Keep promises to employee	.228	.030	.387***	.147	
Step 2: Keep promises to employee	.161	.034	.273***	.178	.031
Keep promises to customer	.159	.043	.216***		
*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001					

Relationship between direct and consumer contract breach and job satisfaction

Table 3 presents results from the stepwise regression analysis in which the dependent variable was job satisfaction. R-Square for full model was .341 with an adjusted R-Square of .333. The full-model explained one-third of the variation in self-reported job satisfaction. In this case, being perceived as having kept promises to the guests explained 29 percent of the variation in job satisfaction. Being perceived as having kept promises to the employees explained an additional 2.7 percent of the variation. Males were slightly less likely to be satisfied with their jobs than were females, accounting for 1.4 percent of the variation in job satisfaction. Finally, the degree to which available hours were satisfactory was significant and explained an additional 1 percent of the variation in job satisfaction.

Only two independent variables proved significant in explaining variance in organizational commitment. These were the two promise keeping variables that accounted for direct and consumer breach of psychological contract.

Variable	B	SEB	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1: Keep promises to customer	.405	.035	.538***	.287	
Step 2: Keep promises to customer	.329	.040	.437***	.312	.025
Keep promises to employee	.117	.032	.193***		
Step 3: Keep promises to customer	.337	.040	.447***	.325	.013
Keep promises to employee	.118	.032	.195***		
Gender	-.244	.093	-.120**		
Step 4: Keep promises to customer	.330	.040	.438***	.333	.008
Keep promises to employee	.112	.032	.185***		
Gender	-.223	.093	-.109*		
Available hours	.069	.030	.104*		
*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001					

DISCUSSION

This study explores the relative influence of direct versus consumer breach of psychological contract on organizational commitment and job satisfaction. As expected, both forms of psychological breach significantly explained variation in both dependent variables. Though both forms of psychological contract breach are significant in explaining variation in organizational commitment and job satisfaction, their importance is reversed. Thus, being perceived as keeping promises to your employees is more critical in explaining their self-reported commitment to the organization. However, keeping promises to customers proved to be more important in explaining job satisfaction.

Though it was our intent with this study to explore the relative influence of these two different breaches of psychological contract, we found this explanatory reversal to be surprising upon first review. With time to reflect upon this result, we suggest that it may be explained by the different causal pathways through which each type of perceived breach operates.

If the employer keeps their promise to the customer, the customer is happier which increases the number of positive customer-employee interactions and decreases the number of negative customer-employee interactions. This increase in positive on-the-job interactions and corresponding decrease in negative on-the-job interactions should naturally enhance the job experience resulting in higher job satisfaction.

Similarly, if the employer keeps their promises to the employee, the employee is likely to experience more positively met work expectations and fewer negatively met work expectations. This should lead to an increased desire to stay with the current employer and conversely, a reduced desire to depart. One might also view this as increasing the risk of a less-positive work situation should one change jobs, thus increasing the perceived risk associated with job change.

When both psychological contract pathways are considered, it makes sense that keeping promises to customers, in the absence of keeping promises to employees would still positively enhance the work environment but not the desire to stay with the employer (assuming the employee is there for practical purposes, rather than just experience). Similarly, keeping promises to employees would deal with the practical side of the implied work contract and perhaps make the employee more interested in staying, but would not necessarily enhance the work environment in the absence of keeping promises to the customer.

Theoretical Implications

We view this work as a starting point to a new stream in the psychological contracting literature. The results of this study indicate that both direct and consumer psychological contract breach have attitudinal consequences for employees. While both independent measures (i.e., direct and consumer psychological contracting) explained variation in our dependent variables (i.e., organizational commitment and job satisfaction), the relative importance differed dramatically. Breach of the direct psychological contract was much more important in explaining employee commitment to the organization. Breach of the consumer psychological contract proved more valuable in explaining employee job satisfaction.

Based upon these results, we believe that the relative influence of direct versus consumer contracting needs further study using other employee related outcome variables. Similarly, the results cause us to wonder what the relative influence of direct versus consumer psychological contract breach has on the perceived experience of the customer.

Additionally, the Robinson and Morrison models (1997, 2000) provide a rich theoretical platform upon which to generate testable hypotheses related to the influence and causal action of consumer versus direct psychological contract breach.

Practical Implications

For practitioners, our results indicate the importance of understanding the indirect influences of failing to meet or exceed the expectations of employees and customers. There is spillover between these violations—at least from the customer to the employee (though it is reasonable to expect spillover in the opposite direction, as well).

The psychological contract represents expectations that have been established either explicitly or implicitly in the mind of employee and customer. Additionally, the employee perceives a set of explicit and implicit expectations between organization and customer. Breaching the psychological contract formed between the organization and the employee will decrease their commitment to the organization, and likely result in increased turnover if the pattern is pervasive. Breaching the psychological contract with the customer will likely result in an increase in the number of unpleasant interactions experienced by the employee, resulting in decreased job satisfaction.

This conclusion places an onus on organizations and their agents to be aware of the expectations they are creating with both customer and employee. Managing the perception of promises made and kept benefits the organization and the employee.

CONCLUSION

To date, this study represents the first explicit attempt to examine the relative influence of direct versus consumer breach of psychological contract. Our findings demonstrate that both forms of breach have consequences for employee commitment to the organization and employee job satisfaction. However, we find that while breach of the direct psychological contract is more pertinent to explaining variation in employee reported commitment to the organization, it is breach of the consumer psychological contract that is more important when explaining variation in reported job satisfaction.

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WHAT ARE THE EFFECTS OF PSYCHOPATHIC TRAITS IN A SUPERVISOR ON EMPLOYEES' PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS?

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ABSTRACT

Psychopathy, a construct with roots in forensic psychology, has recently been applied to the corporate context (Babiak, & Hare, 2006; Babiak, 2007). The goal of this study is to determine whether there is a relationship between supervisor's score on a measure of psychopathy and employees' psychological distress. One hundred and sixteen employees from a branch of a large Canadian financial institution have scored their supervisor on a psychopathy measure (B-Scan-360 psychopathy subscale; Babiak, & Hare, in press) and have completed a self-measure of psychological distress (General Health questionnaire-12; Goldberg & Williams, 1991). Results from regression analyses indicate that supervisor psychopathy predicts employees' psychological distress. The present results highlight the importance of screening for problematic personalities such as psychopathy for selection and promotion.

INTRODUCTION

Increasingly, organizations are becoming more and more concerned about the “epidemic” state of mental health problems in the workplace. The World Health Organization has stated that depression is the leading cause of disability worldwide (World Health Organization, 2000). They also predict that, by the year 2020, depression will reach second place in the “global burden of disease” ranking. This means tremendous costs both for the individuals and for working organizations internationally. Prevention of the problem is difficult since researchers are still at the early stage of understanding the factors underlying psychological distress in the workplace. The identification of which factors cause an employee to experience psychological distress will certainly involve personal (stress management, personality, family) and organizational variables (workload, working hours). One factor, managerial behaviour, has yet to be studied extensively, but the few studies that have examined this element are unanimous: Poor management behaviour can lead to psychological distress in employees. Hogan & Hogan (2001) report that one of the reasons for studying managerial incompetence is that “bad managers make life miserable for

those who must work for them, and there is virtually nothing subordinates can do to defend themselves, except to suffer in silence.”

Organizations often search for employees who are charismatic, confident, have the ability to make difficult decisions, and the capacity to present an ostentatious vision of the future (Babiak, Neumann & Hare, 2010). Although, at face value, these abilities may correspond well with attractive traits assumed to be required by managers and leaders of organizations, these abilities are also descriptive of problematic personality features (Babiak, & Hare, 2006). Arguably the most dangerous of these problematic workplace personalities is psychopathy (Hare, 1999), a construct with roots in forensic psychology that has recently been applied to the corporate context (Babiak, 2007). Psychopathic employees can have a negative effect on other employees, as well on the organization itself, making it important to have an assessment instrument that will assist in employee selection and promotion (Babiak & Hare, 2006). Babiak and Hare (in Press) have built a 360 measure of corporate behavior that includes a subscale measuring psychopathic traits.

Objectives

The objective of this paper is to present results of the relations between scores on the B-Scan Supervisor (Babiak, & Hare, in Press) and self-ratings of employee psychological distress (General Health questionnaire-12; Goldberg & Williams, 1991). To our knowledge, this is the first study to measure the impact of psychopathic traits in supervisors on employees' psychological distress.

METHOD

After the purpose and voluntary confidential nature of the project had been described (i.e., to measure the impact of different types of personalities on workplace behavior / mental health), 136 employees and managers of large financial institution in Quebec were invited to complete a number of self-report questionnaires regarding personality and an array of industrial-organizational variables. Of these, 116 agreed to participate (response rate of 85.3%). They completed an on-line survey through Survey Monkey. The survey was conducted during work hours, and took approximately 45 minutes to complete. The employees filled-out an evaluation of the psychopathic traits of their immediate supervisors with the use of the B-Scan-360 (Babiak & Hare, in press), a measure of corporate psychopathy, in addition to a self-report measure of psychological distress in addition to a self-report measure of their own psychological well-being (General Health Questionnaire-12; Goldberg & Williams, 1991).

MEASURES

Supervisor psychopathy measure: The B-Scan is a new 360 degree measure of corporate behaviour. It presents a subscale measuring psychopathy in the workplace (Babiak, & Hare, in press) based on the Hare Four-Factor Psychopathy Model, derived from the PCL-R (Hare, 2--3), the instrument referred to as the “state of the art” (Fulero, 1995) and the “gold standard” (Acheson, 2005) for the assessment of psychopathy. The B-Scan 360 has been validated by the authors (for information on the validation of this instrument, please contact the first author). The psychopathy subscale consists of 20 items which asks respondents to rate how descriptive each item is of their immediate supervisor (i.e., disagree strongly to agree strongly). Examples of items include the following: “is insincere”, “seems to enjoy being disruptive at times”, “can make a joke out of anyone”. A factor analysis has identified four factors each including 5 items. These factors are: Factor 1 =Manipulative/Unethical ($\alpha = .78$); Factor 2 = Callous/Insensitive ($\alpha = .81$); Factor 3 = Unreliable/Unfocused ($\alpha = .75$); and Factor 4 = Intimidating/Aggressive ($\alpha = .78$).

Employees’ psychological distress: Measured by 12 items related to psychological well-being from the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12; Goldberg & Williams, 1991). The GHQ-12 has been found to have great validity coefficients for individuals in the workforce (Makowska, Merecz, Mościcka, Kolasa, 2002). The items include: “I think of myself as worthless,” “I have been unable to concentrate,” and are rated on a 4 point Likert-type scale ($\alpha = .75$).

RESULTS

Results indicate that employees’ psychological distress was positively correlated with the B-Scan Supervisor total score ($r = .30, p < .01$) and with the score on Factor 1 (Manipulative/Unethical) ($r = .20, p < .05$), Factor 2 (Callous/Insensitive) ($r = .26, p < .01$), and Factor 4 (Intimidating/Aggressive) ($r = .28, p < .01$). Regression analyses demonstrate that B-Scan-Supervisor total score significantly predicts employees’ psychological distress ($R^2=.34, \beta = .26 p < .05$).

DISCUSSION

Babiak and al. (2010) report that the profile of an “ideal leader” is a concept hard to define and executives tend to rely on their “gut feeling” to judge this complex attribute. More importantly, these authors continue on stating that “unfortunately, once decision makers believe that an individual has future ‘leader potential’, even bad performance reviews or evaluations from subordinates and peers do not seem to be able to shake their belief.” (Babiak and al., 2010).

The present results highlight the importance of screening for problematic personalities such as psychopathy for selection and promotion. The present findings also stress the importance of focusing not only on some of the abilities organizations are looking for when hiring or promoting a manager but on the behaviors they wish to avoid in order to prevent affecting employees' psychological well-being.

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CREATING A CULTURE AND CLIMATE OF CIVILITY IN A SEA OF INTOLERANCE

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ABSTRACT

Promoting tolerance could be seen as a key weapon in battling prejudice but it seems that the definition of tolerance appears to be changing. The classical definitions of tolerance defined that others can be entitled to their opinions and have the right to express them even though one may disagree with them, one can live in peace with such differences. In recent years, however, some consider tolerance to mean that all ideas and practices must be accepted and affirmed and that an appreciation of differences can be considered the ultimate virtue. This new definition alienates many who value equality and justice and limits the effectiveness of diversity initiatives that teach tolerance. The authors offer authentic tolerance as an alternative, incorporating respect and civility toward others in the workplace, not necessarily approval of their ideas and practices. “Authentic tolerance” (civility) could result in improved teamwork and organizational goal attainment.

INTRODUCTION

Bill Watterson created a well-known comic strip titled Calvin and Hobbes describing the raucous antics of a 6-year-old boy, Calvin, and his real-only-to-him stuffed tiger companion, Hobbes. In that comic strip Watterson (1996) describes the six-year-old hero giving a lame defense for not doing the right thing and denies that moral value provides any meaning for philosophically sophisticated people like him (p. 129). Hobbes, Calvin’s conscience-cum-tiger, however, raises some doubts about Calvin’s notion of tolerance.

In this paper, like Hobbes, the authors express some concerns about tolerance as currently advocated and address this controversial concept and its part in contemporary American society. Lickona (2002) defines tolerance as “the ability to accept the values and beliefs of others,” (p. 1). This definition of tolerance poses a dilemma: how can individuals be asked to accept all people’s values and practices when they may believe some of those ideas and behaviors wrong? How, for example, can one ask supporters on opposite sides of the abortion and homosexuality debates to accept the validity of each other’s perspectives?

Consider the case of Carrie Prejean. As a contestant in the 2009 Miss USA Beauty Pageant, openly gay pageant judge Perez Hilton questioned her views on gay marriage. When

she replied that she believed that marriage should be between a man and a woman, Mr. Hilton called Ms. Prejean “the B word” on his popular blog and said he would have liked to call her something stronger (Hilton, 2009). Other gay activists took a more measured and civil approach. For example, Rich Tafel (2009) of the gay advocacy group the Log Cabin Republicans said:

“I think it was a perfectly acceptable question. And though I completely disagree with her, I think her response was perfectly fine, too. Calling this woman an unprintable name, as Perez Hilton did, is indefensible. All of us have a belief system, whether it is informed by our faith or a secular worldview. The freedom to share those even unpopular positions is what makes this nation great. In my hundreds of debates for gay rights with Christian conservatives, I was often subject to mean and personal attacks and at times was concerned for my safety. As the tide turns in favor of gay equality, what a sad victory it will be if we become the new bullies. The crime here is not that people have opinions we disagree with. The crime is treating those who disagree with us with the same incivility that they treated us to.”

Another example involves President Barack Obama speaking of another ideological tension when he delivered the commencement address at Notre Dame University in spring, 2009 amid much public controversy and protest demonstrations. Some “pro-life” persons thought that the president should not be invited to speak at a Catholic university because his “pro-choice” position on abortion contradicts Church doctrine. Many also objected to the university awarding him an honorary degree. President Obama devoted a section of his address to the protests—not on the merits of one abortion position over another but rather on public discourse; i.e., on how Americans should engage in public debate on issues with which they fundamentally disagree. President Obama observed that while opposing views would and should be presented with passion and conviction, they could be done “without reducing those with differing views to caricature (Obama, 2009).” Then he suggested a model: “Open hearts. Open minds. Fair-minded words (Obama, 2009)” in the context of “... friendship, civility, hospitality and especially love” (Obama, 2009). These words are remarkably consistent with our concept of authentic tolerance.

Even raising questions about the dogma of such experts can be problematic as Harvard University president Lawrence Summers discovered after he simply speculated about differences in scientific ability between men and women (Mansfield, 2006) resulting in his forced resignation. According to Bennett (1994) these illuminati are “found among academics and intellectuals, in the literary world, in journals of political opinion, in Hollywood, in the artistic community, in mainline religious institutions, and in some quarters of the media” (p. 26). They could be more powerful than their numbers would normally allow because they might be considered trend setters and opinion makers in areas such as moral values, political principles, and fundamental ideas. These cognoscenti can often be perceived as imparting important truths when they write articles and books, give speeches, make movies, and report stories. They often interpret events that define the permissible and the impermissible, the acceptable and the unacceptable, the preferred and the disdained; in short, they are the filter through which many Americans are informed about events. Hunter (2006) believes the power of these pundits can be

made even greater by the public's inability to challenge their stark, oftentimes uncompromising rhetoric and reframing of issues, as well as access to large audiences of TV reporters, paparazzi, or others with direct connections to the media.

Respect should be accorded to the person. Whether his or her ideas or behavior should be tolerated might be an entirely different issue. Tolerance of persons must also be distinguished from *tolerance of ideas*. Tolerance of persons requires that each person's views get a courteous hearing, not that all views have equal worth, merit, or truth. Rejecting another's ideas should not be equated with disrespect for the person. The view that no person's ideas can be any better or truer than another's can be considered irrational and absurd. It would be inappropriate to tolerate such things as racism, sexism, or hate speech. This view can be considered consistent with renowned psychotherapist Albert Ellis' (2004) concept of unconditional other-acceptance which declares that one is not required to "... tolerate the antisocial and sabotaging actions of other people.... But you always accept *them*, their personhood, and you never damn their total *selves*. Ellis (2004) believes that you tolerate their *humanity* while disagreeing with some of their *actions*" (p. 212).

Issues such as these often can be based upon differing religious beliefs. Even the most ecumenical of faiths view other religious beliefs as incompatible with their own and hold that there can be eternal consequences for accepting the legitimacy of other religious' truth claims. For instance, many Christian parents believe that encouraging acceptance of belief systems that deny Christ's divinity risks their children betraying God and earning damnation. Roberts and Lester (2006) believe Orthodox Muslim parents could feel similarly about education that encourages children to accept the legitimacy of beliefs that deny the centrality of Muhammad's revelation and behavior to human experience.

Should we accept, appreciate, and embrace all differences? Should everyone be required to endorse, affirm, and celebrate the following diverse beliefs, values, and conduct in the name of tolerance?

1. The Holocaust did not happen.
2. "In God We Trust" should be removed from our currency.
3. Condoms should be available to school children starting in about the 5th grade.
4. Involuntary female circumcision or any procedure involving the partial or total removal of the external genitalia should be permitted for cultural, religious, or other non-therapeutic reasons.
5. People with HIV/AIDS should be sterilized to help prevent the spread of the disease through sexual activity.
6. Unions only suck up membership fees from workers and make unrealistic demands on companies causing them to go bankrupt; for example, the auto industry

Several researchers (Murphy, 1997; Roberts and Lester, 2006) suggest that tolerance could be universally recognized by both critics and supporters as central to the liberal tradition. Many of the above statements might be considered abhorrent to some people but should such disagreement mean that those who oppose the above values and conduct are prejudiced, hateful,

bigoted, and intolerant? Probably not, since not *all* beliefs, behavior, or both, must be endorsed but only those principles, sentiments, ideas, and political attitudes approved by the shrill, intrusive cultural and political intelligentsia with their aura of self-assured moral and intellectual superiority within the liberal tradition.

Businesses increasingly globalize their operations which require workers to be able to interact with fellow workers, suppliers and customers from around the globe. In addition, increased employee diversity in the workplace calls for management and workers to be able to work together to achieve common goals and objectives despite different cultural backgrounds and personal beliefs. The workplace of today calls for tolerance and understanding without necessarily accepting other beliefs contrary to our own.

We address the controversial topic of tolerance by beginning with a brief history of tolerance, including its role in diversity training. We then identify three definitions of tolerance: the classical view of *tolerance as endurance*, the neo-classical definition of *tolerance as acceptance*, and our proposed understanding of *tolerance as civility*. In the next section, we review the concept of intolerance and then offer a discussion on the value of authentic dialogue. Finally, we conclude with a summary that emphasizes respect and dignity of all persons rather than required acceptance and endorsement of all attitudes, beliefs, and opinions, action, conduct, and practices, tastes and sensibilities, or whole ways of life.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Historical Background

Although held in high regard by Locke (1689), Voltaire (1763), and Mill (1859), the concept of tolerance often lacked widespread acceptance. Colesante & Biggs (1999) provide the example of early Western religious scholars St. Augustine and St. Thomas Aquinas who viewed tolerance as a vice that can corrupt society and harm innocent people. Likewise, a value system that enjoyed near universal support in the United States for a number of years described a good person to be “trustworthy, loyal, helpful, friendly, courteous, kind, obedient, cheerful, thrifty, brave, clean, and reverent” (Boy Scouts of America, n. d.)—but not tolerant. Believing in and practicing the Boy Scout values, even if not a Scout (or male) would often be highly correlated with being a citizen of excellent character and comportment.

Oberdiek (2001) states that tolerance can be considered “indispensable for any decent society—or at least for societies encompassing deeply divergent ways of life” (p. 23) characteristic of many Western cultures. Highly homogenous societies may be able to dispense with tolerance or greatly reduce its centrality but most of the world cannot. According to Mandela and Robinson (2001) tolerance often can be recognized today as an especially important characteristic in pluralist, multicultural communities seeking to be free of oppression, violence, indignities, and discrimination.

Hallemeier (2006) suggests tolerance might also be considered essential or a highly desirable quality in U.S. society and one of the few non-controversial values today (Kreeft, 2007). Many people insist that in a world burdened by injustice, inequality, homophobia, racism, xenophobia, patriarchy, and related bigotry that the best solution to address these evils could be to demonstrate a greater degree of tolerance (Outcome Document of the Durban Review Conference, 2009). Within the last generation tolerance rose to the apex of America's public moral philosophy and today many believe a good, moral person to be tolerant (Tolerance.org, n. d.) and that such tolerance can be a virtue essential for democracy and civilized life. Lickona (2002) offers that the absence of tolerance could be considered the root of much evil: hate crimes, religious and political persecution, and terrorism.

Many consider tolerance so important that a museum dedicated to tolerance can be found in Los Angeles (Museum of Tolerance, 2006) as well as a Tolerance Center in New York (n. d.). Each provides a powerful selling point for any theory or practice that can claim it. Vogt (1997) believes that nowhere can this be more evident than in the prominence given tolerance in education and training programs addressing issues of multiculturalism, inclusion, and diversity.

Diversity Training

According to Lansing and Cruser (2009), diversity training today could be considered so important that it may be found as a common topic now incorporated in nearly every major collegiate and graduate business program. Diversity training can also be found in the workplace. For instance, an industry report on training in the United States prepared by the widely circulated practitioner-oriented *Training* magazine, indicated that 72 per cent of responding companies offered some form of diversity training (Galvin, 2003) while the Society for Human Resource Management found that 67 per cent of U.S. organizations provided multicultural training program initiatives (Esen, 2005).

When teaching about differences in an ever more diverse world among the most salient questions in an era of accelerated globalization could be how different cultures, nationalities, ethnicities and races can coexist peacefully in an increasingly borderless world. The answer offered by many diversity training professionals is teaching *tolerance*. In such developmental efforts today one commonly hears that individuals should recognize and acknowledge such differences and be inclusive and open to them. Trainees will often be told to value, endorse, affirm, and celebrate differences and advised to appreciate, respect, and accept diverging opinions, practices, and ways of life to create a climate of *tolerance*. Some authors, such as Schlesinger (1992) warn that excessive emphasis upon the differences between Americans could produce a Balkanization of American society. Workshop participants are frequently told that everything should be considered different—not better or worse—but equal, and that a person's view should be considered wrong automatically if it rejects the equal legitimacy of all views.

Indeed, Dubos (1981) suggested that “Human diversity makes tolerance ... a requirement for survival” (p. 115).

It can be noted that promoting and advocating tolerance continues to be taught extensively and its endorsement can be central to many organizational diversity and multicultural training initiatives and found to be widespread (Clements & Jones, 2008; Wildermuth & Gray, 2005). When entering “diversity training in the workplace” and “tolerance” in the Google search engine some 182,000 hits registered illustrating tolerance as a key component of inclusion and multicultural training (Diversity Training in the Workplace, 2009). Additionally, *Teaching Tolerance Magazine* showcases innovative tolerance initiatives across the country (*Teaching Tolerance Magazine*, n. d.). Benjamin (1996) states that in higher education we are told that diversity training should emphasize “tolerance ... and respect for differences in appearance, values and attitudes, perspectives, assumptions, and conduct” (p. 155).

Meanings of Tolerance

Weissberg (2008) argues that tolerance seems to have developed a change in definition over the years from the obligation not to tolerate the immoral to the requirement of accepting the legitimacy of the morally different; from tolerance as enduring the odious to tolerance as nearly blank-check acceptance of a myriad of differences. This could be considered consistent with Apel’s (1997) proposal to distinguish the more traditional concept of tolerance, or, in his terminology, “negative tolerance,” from the newer concept of “positive tolerance” (p. 199). Apel (1997) further maintained that negative tolerance with its emphasis on obligations to refrain from interfering with other people’s traditions or opinions as not enough within a pluralistic, multicultural society and that we have a moral responsibility to “support people in their pursuit of their ideals of life” (p. 204). To avoid such clearly prejudicial wording, the terms “classical” and “neo-classical” tolerance are used in this paper.

Classical Definition of Tolerance

Classic tolerance derives from the term’s Latin roots—*tolerare* or *tolerantia*—the first the verb meaning to endure, the second the noun denoting forbearance (Weissberg, 2008). Sullivan, Marcus, and Piereson (1982), for example, define tolerance as the “willingness to ‘put up with’ those things that one rejects” (p. 2) and a readiness to permit the expression of ideas or interests one opposes. In other words, something repugnant allowed to exist without significant action on the part of those offended. The classical definition involves recognition that a civil society must include a willingness to bear with people whose ideas and practices are not merely different, but believed to be wrong.

The classical definition of tolerance incorporates the idea that everyone can be entitled to their own opinion and that people should recognize and respect others’ beliefs, practices, etc.,

without necessarily agreeing, sympathizing or sharing in them and to bear with someone or something not especially liked. In this view, individuals accept the right of others to hold differing opinions (have different practices, and be different than themselves)—while not accepting their behavior as right for themselves or society. Within the classical understanding, tolerance entails enduring someone or something not especially liked. The classical definition of tolerance includes an element of grudging forbearance (Fallacy of Positive Tolerance, n. d.). Oberdiek (2001) views tolerance as best captured by the slogans of “Live and let live,” “You go your way, I’ll go mine,” or “To each his own” (pp. 29-30).

Classic tolerance simply means the ability to hold on to one’s convictions while accepting the right of others to hold on to theirs. Tolerance cannot be described as indifference or acquiescence but rather, recognition of difference. Tolerance does not have to do with accepting another person’s belief, only his or her right to have that belief. It could be considered similar to Voltaire’s famous words (cited in Guterman, 1963) “I detest what you write, but I would give my life to make it possible for you to continue to write” (p. 143). Thus, classical tolerance differentiates between what a person thinks or does, and the person himself or herself.

Neo-Classical Definition of Tolerance

Today, some reject the classical definition of tolerance because it does not go far enough—according to Oberdiek (2001) only a half measure. What might be needed, these critics argue, would be to move beyond tolerance as classically understood toward a positive appreciation of and an unqualified agreement with differences: a shift from forbearance to acceptance. Therefore, more recent understandings of tolerance suggest that individuals should fully welcome and unambiguously endorse others’ alternative ways of feeling, thinking, and acting (Oberdiek, 2001). The neo-classical definition of tolerance asks citizens to be open-minded and empathetic toward a virtually endless parade of differences; asking them to work sympathetically to build institutional and cultural arrangements that will accommodate different ways of life. Gadamer (1975) believes a “fusion of horizons” (p. 273) necessary.

Interestingly, it appears that the graciousness implied in the “appreciate differences” brand of tolerance can be selective with only those residing on the political spectrum’s left side deserving acceptance and celebration. For example, while gays and civil rights groups are generally applauded, one might typically find silence when it comes to fundamentalist Christians or the military. Such a one-sided interpretation of neo-classical tolerance often engenders the very divisiveness it proposes to eliminate.

Rather than a begrudging endurance implied in the traditional definition of tolerance, the “appreciate differences” brand of tolerance includes a duty to approve and embrace diverse beliefs, customs, and behaviors (McDowell & Hostetler, 1998; Odell, n. d.; Weissberg, 2008)—accepting the odious despite the odium. Tolerance today can be considered largely redefined by those seeking to broaden what it means to endure, while diminishing that defined as offensive

and distasteful in the hope of achieving legitimacy for those perceived as unfairly marginalized, stigmatized, under-appreciated, or otherwise disdained. Some consider the new tolerance to simply reflect a natural evolutionary process. Using homosexuality as an example (although applicable to disdained ethnic/racial groups), society advanced from killing homosexuals to criminalizing homosexuality, to treating it as a psychological disorder, to just accepting it as a repugnant condition to embracing homosexuality as perfectly normal.

Weissberg (2008) believes that this new interpretation of tolerance requires affirming the rightness of the nonconventional and nontraditional; bearing the objectionable replaced by “venerat[ing] the objectionable” (p. 126). In the UN’s decision to declare 1995, “The Year of Tolerance.” The U.N. mistook toleration for affirmation. In the declaration the U.N. defined tolerance as “respect, acceptance and appreciation of the rich diversity of our world’s cultures, our forms of expression and ways of being human...It involves the rejection of dogmatism and absolutism ...” (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 1995).

In a religious context such homogenization exhortations led to claims that all religions have the same basic teachings and that there are many ways to be saved. However, for many Christians such thinking denies the central role accepting Christ plays in salvation. Similarly, a Muslim would betray his faith if he were to accept the view of Jews and Christians that Muhammad is not a true prophet. The henotheistic belief supports the possibility of worshiping one deity without denying the worship of other deities as central to Hinduism. This belief in henotheism renders Hindus unable to accept the legitimacy of truth claims made by monotheistic religions that only one God exists and considers worshiping several deities idolatrous. Roberts and Lester (2006) believe such conundrums have led some to attempt to reduce religion to the Decalogue and the Golden Rule and ignore the role of practice, sacraments, and sacred space and time which form the core of many Christian and non-Christian forms of religion. Indeed, why hold attachments to anything since nothing could be better than anything else? In a world where such deeply rooted practices can be perceived as “arbitrary” any choice might be no better than any alternative and thus easily interchangeable. Such a world can be considered one of indifference where nothing can be worth defending rather than one of equality. Equality, however, does mean that one must be urged to accept the objective value of different beliefs for everyone and those individuals should be encouraged to recognize the subjective force other beliefs hold for their adherents.

Newly fashioned tolerance, as promulgated today, often raises suspicion of the idea that something may be offensive and rejects the idea that one can be free to express such distaste. To evaluate something as questionable or wrong and publicly say so can be considered intolerant, insensitive, and offensive. Few ideas or behaviors can be opposed, regardless of how gracious, without inviting the charge of being hateful or insensitive, or some other harsh accusation. Neo-classical tolerance goes beyond respecting a person’s right to think and behave differently, and demands that practically every nontraditional value claim and personal practice be made

morally legitimate. Helmbock's (1996) definition of tolerance suggests "...that every individual's beliefs, values, lifestyle, and perceptions of truth claims are equal" (p. 2). Thus, not only does everyone have an equal right to his or her beliefs, but all beliefs are equal. All values are equal. All lifestyles are equal. According to McDowell & Hostetler (1998) all truth claims are equal. In a world that holds all values inherently equal and a proclaimed hierarchy only reflects power, not demonstrable worth, why should one embrace capitalism over socialism or Islam in favor of Judaism or the Democratic Party instead of the Republican Party?

DISCUSSION

Intolerance

In the lexicon of today's tolerance pedagogues, respecting an individual means accepting and approving their ideals (beliefs, behaviors, and practices). Weissberg (2008) believes that to argue otherwise could invite charges of engaging in "mean-spirited, right-wing polemic endorsing hatefulness" (p. xi). Indeed, one of the worst things that can be said of a person today might be calling someone intolerant. Calling someone intolerant helps demonize a particular social, ethnic, cultural, or religious group, and faulting their worldview as the most basic, primary cause of their perceived prejudice. There can be a litany of words and phrases that like bullets from a machine gun are shot in rapid fire reflexively to attack the character and motivations of others using slander, intimidation, and pejorative personal statements: bigoted, dictatorial, narrow-minded, and inflexible. Indeed, those who have firmly-held beliefs can be considered legalistic individuals with non-negotiable doctrinal convictions, deserving, in some cases, to be terminated from their job.

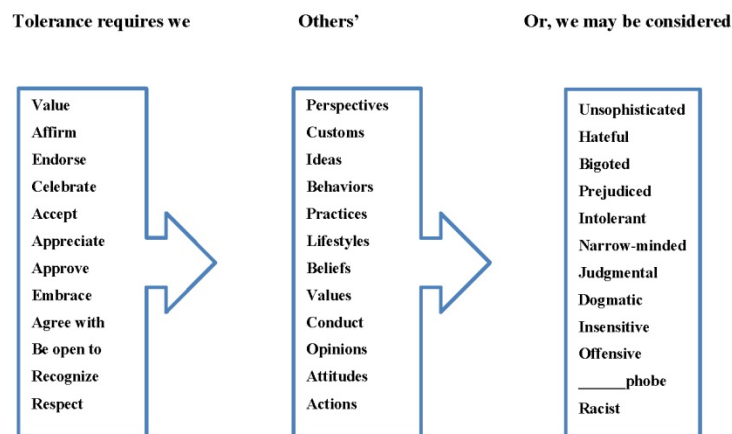
Henle and Holger (2004) describe what AT&T representatives seemed to have thought when they fired Albert Buonanno after he refused to agree to portions of the company's employee handbook that he believed violated his religious beliefs. All employees were required to sign a written acknowledgment that they had received AT&T's new employee handbook and sign a "Certificate of Understanding." The certificate contained a statement that the employee signing it "agreed with and accepted" all of the terms and provisions of the handbook, including its policies and rules. The handbook contained a provision that "each person at AT&T Broadband is charged with the responsibility to fully recognize, respect and value the differences among all of us," including "sexual orientation." However, Mr. Buonanno's strongly held religious beliefs regarding the homosexual lifestyle prevented him from condoning or approving the practice of homosexuality. Buonanno shared his concerns with his immediate supervisor and informed him that he had no problem declaring he would not discriminate against or harass people who were different from him, including homosexuals but he could not sign the statement, because it contradicted his sincerely held religious beliefs. Mr. Buonanno stated, "As a Christian, I love and appreciate all people regardless of their lifestyle. But I cannot value homosexuality

and any different religious beliefs” (p. 155). AT&T informed Buonanno that they would terminate his employment should he refuse to sign the certificate. He declined to sign the document and AT&T immediately terminated his employment. Mr. Buonanno then sued AT&T resulting in an award of \$146, 260 in damages (see *Buonanno v. AT&T Broadband LLC*, 2004). According to Hudson (2004) employers may not force employees to adopt beliefs that may be inconsistent with employees’ religious beliefs and that “Employees shouldn’t be forced to forswear their religious values in the name of tolerance” (p. 1C).

Even in institutions committed to academic freedom and diversity of viewpoints just raising questions about such dogma can be problematic, as Harvard University President Lawrence Summers discovered when he mused in 2006 at a closed-door economics conference that innate differences between men and women might explain in part why more men than women reach the top echelons in math and science (Mansfield, 2006). Many denounced Summers for even surfacing such a question (not an assertion of belief) followed quickly by a no confidence vote by his faculty resulting in his speedy resignation.

To better manage diversity in organizations and to promote inclusiveness, many multicultural training programs today offer the tolerance as acceptance model as an antidote to discrimination, prejudice, and bias in the workplace. Unfortunately, such tolerance means that people should apply behavior as noted in figure 1; i.e., participants are asked to do one or more of the verbs listed in column 1 regarding others’ column 2 happenings and that if they don’t; then those participants may be considered one or more of the names listed in column 3. As an example, a participant may be told that if they do not appreciate or approve of gay and lesbian lifestyles they are judgmental, dogmatic and/or a homophobe.

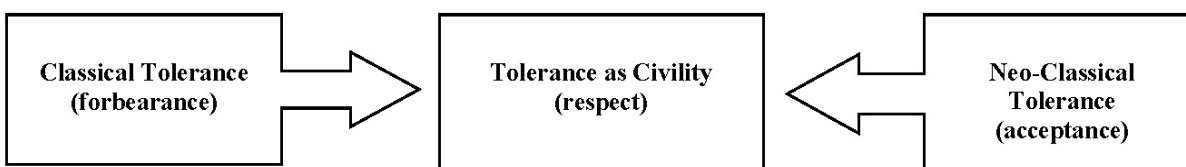
Figure 1: Activities encouraged at many multicultural training workshops either implicitly or explicitly



Authentic Tolerance: The Value of Civility in Dialogue

Authentic tolerance, somewhere between the classical and neo-classical parameters, involves treating people with whom we differ, neither with appreciation, acceptance, or endorsement but with civility, dignity, and respect even as we recognize that some conflict and tension is inevitable (see Figure 1). Individuals, we feel, should be shown basic respect as human beings even if they hold beliefs that others may not value. Like Ury (1999), we believe “tolerance is ... showing respect for the essential humanity in every person” (p. 127). People do not lose their dignity because they believe implausible, even offensive, things.

Figure 2. Authentic tolerance relative to classical and neo-classical tolerance



We argue for civility toward others with whom we disagree—a civility that includes respect for others and the approval of others as a basic object of moral concern. Civility permits conflict and criticism of others’ beliefs and practices, but it limits the ways in which this conflict can be pursued based on respect for the person. For criticism to be civil, it cannot be blind, based on stereotypes or debase opposing viewpoints but rather requires knowledge and basic concern for the identity and voice of others. Fowers and Davidov (2006) suggest civility also introduces risk to one’s convictions since authentic dialogue involves an openness to others which in turn requires the willingness to allow others to call one’s own deepest beliefs and commitments into question as points of view when compared and questioned. Roberts and Lester (2006) also argue that respect can be considered a mutual quality that requires both sharing things that are important and listening to what could be considered important to others. Active engagement characteristic of authentic dialogue promotes the mutual trust that provides the foundation for social cooperation and flourishing in democratic societies. When individuals can be conditioned to be persuaded by sloganeering rather than by rational discourse, they become prepared to be taken in by any smooth talker and could lose their freedoms at the hands of charismatic tyrants.

Briefly, classical tolerance involves forbearance of others and their ideas while neo-classical tolerance preaches appreciation and acceptance of others’ ideas, behavior and beliefs. Authentic tolerance, or what we refer to as civility, involves respect and dignity of individuals without necessarily agreeing with or accepting their practices or values. Key components include dialogue and openness to others.

The richest form of dialogue should not be construed as merely an exchange of information, but rather a process in which the participants actively question their own perspectives and include the other as a partner in their cultural self-exploration and learning (Richardson, 2003). Dialogue involves self-exploration as much as learning about the other, the articulation of one's own previously implicit values and assumptions as much as learning what might be valued by the other. This kind of exchange can lead to greater self-understanding as well as a thoughtful consideration of another's perspective. It can also help one recognize and begin to address inconsistencies, tensions and blind spots in one's heritage. This kind of dialogue can be a productive way to question the values and standards of one's cultural community in light of another viewpoint. At its best, dialogue can be challenging and enriching and it results in greater clarity about and sometimes alterations in one's own worldview. Such dialogue introduces profound possibilities for self-examination and transformation in ways that members of diverse groups understand: what might be good for them, what might be praiseworthy, and how to bring that goodness into being. Cortina (2008) offers that such a procedure may provide a partial antidote to higher levels of incivility seen in our national culture today.

Of course, some may hold certain beliefs or practices so unacceptable that might be unwilling to enter a dialogue with those who keep them. Even so, the temptation to reflexively categorize alien customs and practices as contemptuous or immoral must be resisted. Such a judgment may reflect the limits of our own horizon, rather than the truth of someone else's point of view. Covey (1989), in his highly successful text, *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*, referred to a similar concept when he suggested, "seek first to understand, then to be understood" (p. 235). This habit can be similar to empathy and can be intended to improve communication by suggesting that individuals listen with the intent to understand the others' perspective; not listen solely with the intent to reply.

Cortina (2008) states that authentic tolerance (civility), emphasizing respect and charity, could be considered the simple etiquette of public life and can be seen as an antidote to a U.S. culture increasingly characterized by incivilities. Authentic tolerance (civility) allows differing views to have an equal right to exist, although not necessarily an equal share in truth. These are different issues. Indeed, the view that holds all values equal and immune from criticism might be intolerant of the view that moral judgments can be made. Authentic tolerance does not excuse individuals from resolving conflicting claims to truth. Can it be intolerant to claim the sun as the center of our solar system because others might think the earth to be the center of the solar system? Should scholars be considered intolerant when they believe one hypothesis true and another false?

Authentic tolerance recognizes the rights of other humans to both have and express their opinion. If individuals can learn to respect the rights of all human beings to have and express their understanding of reality, whether they agree with them or not, then everyone will be one step closer to living in a truly charitable world. Tolerance might also be called "civility" and can be equated with the word "respect." People can respect those who hold different beliefs by

treating them courteously and allowing their views a place in community discourse. Persons may strongly disagree with their ideas and vigorously contend against them in the public square but still display respect for individuals despite their differences.

Individuals can be authentically tolerant without accepting another person's beliefs. Tolerance does not mean accepting another person's belief, only his or her right to have that belief. Individuals should be inclusive of people but not necessarily personally incorporate their beliefs and behaviors. We should listen to and learn from all but we are not obligated to agree with everyone or accept their viewpoints. It can be considered a disservice to all when believing that tolerance, respect, charity and dignity imply never saying or doing anything that might upset someone. Indeed, Barrow (2005) goes so far as to say that those who protest that they are being offended by our interpretation "one of the supreme self-serving acts. Barrow (2005) offers that taking offence, when it means treating one's personal hurt as grounds for punitive response, involves a refusal to show tolerance, to allow freedom or to play fair—for why should you be allowed to say what you want, when others are denied that right by you" (p. 273)?

Authentic Tolerance in Other Cultures

The conceptualization of authentic tolerance presented here can be supported by Eastern and African thinking. Asian societies, particularly countries like China, Japan, and South Korea, stress building harmonious interpersonal relationships through avoidance of conflict and compliance with social norms. Jiang (2006) found the atmosphere of harmony in the teachings of Confucius for whom tolerance implies *harmony without conformity*. Lo (2006) states that a true Confucianist or Confucianism-inspired person would graciously show tolerance for differences in beliefs and values for the sake of harmony based on benevolence and love but not necessarily feel obligated to accept and endorse such beliefs and values. Similarly, Kani, (2006) describes the concept of *ubuntu* and how it has become woven into the fabric of African society. Ubuntu represents a collection of values for treating others with harmony, respect, sensitivity, dignity, and collective unity simply because of a person's humanness. The ubuntu value system provides a framework of how people should treat others and values a collective respect for everyone in the system.

An imperative delineated from the above can be that it remains important to treat others as family, i.e., with kindness, compassion, and humility. Indeed, Mangalisco (2001) noted that "Treat[ing] others with dignity and respect ... is a cardinal point of *ubuntu*. Everything hinges on this canon, including an emphasis on humility, harmony, and valuing diversity" (p. 32).

We offer these African-and Asian-based principles to be clearly consistent and present a strong argument for authentic tolerance. As such, there could be important implications of authentic tolerance for cross-cultural managerial practice. Managers in charge of multinational firms with operations in African or Asian countries would be well-advised to take heed of the

proposed concept of authentic tolerance and develop their corporate diversity programs accordingly.

What society calls for cannot be considered endurance of the odious nor acceptance of the objectionable but rather civility in debate and deliberation over different and often opposing points of view that allow for diverse perspectives to be shared, for complex issues to be discussed thoughtfully, and for challenging topics to be explored without resorting to invective and personal attacks. The founders of our nation valued the kind of gentle behavior all too often absent from our current public conduct. There exists a clear historical record showing George Washington studied civility. As a teen, Washington copied into a school workbook “110 Rules of Civility & Decent Behavior in Company and Conversation.” The first of Washington’s rules of civility said, “Every action done in company ought to be done with some sign of respect to those that are present” (Washington & Brookhiser, 1971, p. 1). Civility should not be considered a philosophical abstraction but rather, a code of decency to be applied in everyday life. Civility can be considered important because it helps bring about social cooperation and essential for bridging social capital to operate in modern society.

Billante and Saunders (2002) surveyed the growing literature on civility and suggested three elements that together constitute civility. The first element is respect for others, or in Shils’ words (1997) “Civility is basically respect for the dignity and the desire for dignity of other persons” (p. 338). Similarly, Calhoun (2000) sees civility as “the common language for communicating respect for one another” (p. 255). The second element is civility as public behavior towards strangers. This is similar to Carters’ (1998) view that “civility equips us for everyday life with strangers ... we need neither to love them nor to hate them in order to be civil towards them” (p. 58). The third element is self-regulation in the sense that it requires empathy by putting one’s own immediate self-interest in the context of the larger common good and acting accordingly (Billante & Saunders, 2002).

Good people will sincerely disagree and the issues that divide us by their very nature impassion us. We can, however, disagree without demonizing the person with whom we disagree. In civility we affirm the dignity and essential worth of the other person, even when the other person expresses ideas we find disagreeable. Tolerance in civil discourse involves the respectful exchange of information, values, interests, and positions, and can be considered a necessary predicate for creative problem solving and democratic governance that involves communicating in ways that will foster dialog, conversation, and legitimate debate. Tolerance does not require people to change their values, but provides an environment where all points of view can be heard and acknowledged and free from vitriolic attacks. Tolerance involves acceptance and affirmation of others even as we disagree with their beliefs, values, or ways of conduct. Opposing others’ plans and ideas should not mean whipping up personalized attack-based hysteria. We understand that not all issues can find compromise solutions or common ground (e.g., abortion) but that does not justify engaging in harsh, vilifying, and over-the-top rhetoric.

Unfortunately, the recent plunge to new depths of *incivility*—insensitive, impolite, disrespectful, or rude behavior directed at another person that displays a lack of regard for that person (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001)—appears to have quite the opposite effect as increasing levels of boorishness steal dignity, humanity, and empathy from people. Incivility can often be found in society and in the workplace, and many believe it to be a serious and worsening problem (US News/Bozell Survey 1996). Pearson and Porath (2005), for example, found that 10% of approximately 800 sampled U.S. employees report witnessing incivility daily; 20% claim to be targets of workplace incivility at least once per week. Across studies of 9,000 employees, Pearson and Porath (2009) found that 96% of sampled employees experienced, while 99% witnessed incivility in the workplace. In August, 2010 Rasmussen Reports found 69 percent of Americans believe their countrymen are “becoming more rude and less civilized.” A more comprehensive April 2010 poll by Weber Shandwick revealed that 94 percent of respondents considered the general tone and level of civility in the country to be a problem. Nearly three-quarters of respondents believe the level of incivility increased over the past few years (Rodriguez, 2011).

This level of discourteousness fueled the creation of several civility improvement institutes including the Workplace Bullying Institute (n.d.), the Civility Institute (n.d.) at Johns Hopkins University, and the newly created National Institute for Civil Discourse (NICD; n.d.), established in February, 2011 at the University of Arizona. The NICD, with honorary chairs Presidents George H. W. Bush and Bill Clinton, stands as a national, nonpartisan center for debate, research, education and policy generation regarding civic engagement and civility and constructive engagement in public discourse where discussion and vigorous debate can take place in a polite manner. One of the key goals of the institute assists in connecting people with diverse viewpoints and offers a venue for vigorous and respectful debate while allowing for structured dialogue and deliberation. This approach ensures all points of view are expressed and heard, and although does not expect people to change their values or perspectives, inspires the search for more informed and creative decision-making. We believe that tolerance understood as civility can be a useful tool utilized by the NICD.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Tolerance once meant that a person must be willing to put up with behaviors they found objectionable. Then it came to mean not judging such behaviors but rather respect them. Today, it could mean celebrating them. Researchers (Lickona, 2002; McDowell & Hostetler, 1998) increasingly question the rhetoric of the currently defined tolerance in its neo-classical definition. If diversity training and awareness programs designed to promote social understanding (inclusion, affirmation, and harmony) in a pluralistic world should continue to do the good work of confronting and eliminating unlawful and immoral discrimination and prejudice, then a key

tool in such programs, teaching tolerance emphasizing acceptance of, agreement with, and endorsement of all beliefs and behaviors, must receive a more considered evaluation.

Authentic tolerance as incorporating dignity and respect for individuals without necessarily sharing in or accepting others' beliefs and behavior must supplant the classical and neo-classical views. Individuals can be authentically tolerant without the requirement to internalize others' thinking or convictions. Inclusiveness should not demand that differences be denied. Authentic tolerance employs respect and civility for persons since every person possesses inherent value, but does not require adopting another person's belief, only affirming his or her right to have that belief. It does not require us to accept what we tolerate or pass by what we tolerate in respectful silence. It strongly encourages us to explore the terrain between forbearance and acceptance, exploring possibilities of mutual understanding and accommodation along the way.

We support the idea of a truly pluralistic society where differing views have an equal and legal right to exist but not a society where ideologically driven interest groups require all to accept their worldviews, where disagreement can be misconstrued as bigotry, stupidity, and hatred, and where tolerance simply means forced acceptance. We are reminded of the words of noted English philosopher William Rowe who said: "... those who are most eloquent in demanding freedom for their own views and practices are the first to deny freedom of thought or action to their neighbours" (1930).

We hold a vision of a world that features cultural sensitivity, mutual understanding and affirmation, inclusion, social justice; and the reduction and elimination of prejudice, inequality, discrimination, and oppression—without forced acceptance and agreement associated with the neo-classical definition of tolerance, and without the endurance and forbearance incorporated in the classical meaning of tolerance. We agree with Dubos (1981) that social evolution proceeds most rapidly when different cultures and groups "... come into close contact with each other and thus can exchange information and goods, even though each retains its originality," (p. 116) and would expand his words by advocating approaching others with respect, dignity, and charity due them as human beings. In an intolerant world, rational dialogue gives way to argument by insult. It could be easier to hurl an insult—"you intolerant bigot"—than to confront the idea and either refute it or be changed by it. Today in some cases, tolerance actually reflects intolerance. When thoughtful principled arguments can be refuted by insults or speculation about hidden motives, rational discourse breaks down.

Weissberg (2008) suggests that those attending diversity workshops that encourage tolerance should respectfully engage trainers regarding their definition of tolerance and to question interpretations that imply that participants should appreciate all differences and "accept everything" (p. x). We agree with Bennett (2001) that "Properly understood, tolerance means treating people with respect and without malice; it does not require us to dissolve social norms or to weaken our commitment to ancient and honorable beliefs" (p. 138). Such an understanding of tolerance, what we refer to as authentic tolerance or civility can enhance diversity training

program effectiveness and can be a valuable approach to addressing inclusion in organizations and institutions. Tolerating or respecting people, however, must never be confused with accepting all their ideas and practices.

Tolerance as civility will require new measures of tolerance. As usually defined by social scientists, tolerance refers to the willingness to extend basic rights and civil liberties to persons and groups whose viewpoints differ from one's own (Gibson & Bingham, 1982) and typically can be measured by items such as Stouffer's (1955) support for "a communist making a speech in your community." People can be labeled intolerant provided that they advocate any restriction of political acts that are otherwise permissible under law. Our view of tolerance suggests that more appropriate measures of tolerance may be derived from the growing literature in psychology and sociology addressing civility and incivilities.

The authors offer a three-part prescription for workplace tolerance. First, managers need to develop an understanding that tolerance does not mean acceptance. Individuals do not have to discard strongly held personal beliefs, whether based on religion or some other criteria and replace them with beliefs which some could consider unacceptable. Second, employees generally should tolerate the views of others, at least to the extent of non-discrimination. Discriminatory practices can not only be morally wrong, but in addition open businesses up to legal issues. Finally, just as European leaders acknowledge the failure of multiculturalism in their countries business leaders must recognize that in order to achieve common goals, workers must practice tolerance and civility toward one another.

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NATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED WORKPLACE DISCRIMINATION ON THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS OF GAY AND LESBIAN PROTÉGÉS

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this paper was to the mentoring relationships of gay and lesbian protégés and the effects workplace discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation (hereafter perceived workplace discrimination) may have on the relationships. Perceived workplace discrimination was found to be an obstacle to obtaining a mentor in the United States but not in Canada. The amount of psychosocial support received by protégés was found to be affected by an interaction of perceived discrimination and nationality. Mentors in the United States were reported to provide less psychosocial support and Canadian mentors more.

INTRODUCTION

Gay men and lesbians, at 4 –17 percent of the workforce, are a larger group than many other minorities (Gonsiorek & Weinrich, 1991) yet there is very little research on gay and lesbian issues in the workplace. This study examines the effects of perceived workplace discrimination on the likelihood of the formation of informal mentoring relationships of gay and lesbian protégés and on the amount of psychosocial support reported by those in mentoring relationships. It is hypothesized that perceived workplace discrimination acts as a barrier to gaining informal mentoring relationships for gay and lesbian employees. It is also hypothesized that perceived workplace discrimination will be associated with a decrease in the amount of psychosocial support in mentoring relationships heterogeneous with respect to sexual orientation and that it will be associated with an increase the psychosocial support in mentoring relationships homogeneous with respect to sexual orientation.

Mentoring

Mentoring is defined as a senior person guiding a junior person in an organization and aiding in the junior person's development. Mentors usually have more advanced experience and knowledge (Kram, 1985) and occupy higher power positions (Ragins, 1997) than their protégés. The value of mentoring experiences for protégés has been widely studied since Kram's seminal

work two decades ago (e.g. Kram, 1983; 1985). Mentoring relationships serve two functions: career functions and psychosocial functions (Kram, 1983). The career functions are elements of the mentoring relationship that assist the protégé in preparation for career advancement. These functions include providing sponsorship, coaching, protection, exposure, and challenging work to the protégé. The psychosocial functions assist in the protégé's development of a sense of competence, sense of identity, and work-role effectiveness through role modeling, counseling, acceptance and confirmation, and friendship.

A heterogeneous mentoring relationship involves a mentor and a protégé who do not share the same group memberships associated with power differences in organizations (Ragins, 1995). Largely because of sex and race stratification within organizations, majority members are more likely to be in homogeneous mentoring relationships with other majority members and minorities in heterogeneous mentoring relationships (Dreher & Cox, 1996; Thomas, 1990). Dreher and Cox (1996) and Thomas (1990) examined mentoring relationships that are heterogeneous with respect to sex and/or race.

Empirical research indicates that perceived or actual mentor-protégé similarity is positively related to the amount of mentoring received (Burke, McKeen & McKenna, 1993; Dreher & Dougherty, 1997; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Thomas, 1990). This phenomenon is explained by the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), which suggests that perceived and actual similarity influences the perceptions of shared identity and liking between two individuals. Although Byrne's (1971) original research referred to similarity in attitudes, more recent research has extended these findings to include similarity in demographic characteristics (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Liking, perceived similarity, and psychosocial and career support each contributed significantly to protégés' satisfaction with their mentor; each is an important contributor to a successful mentoring relationship, contributing significant amounts of variance in protégé satisfaction (Ensher & Murphy, 1997).

Heterosexism

Heterosexism has been defined as valuing heterosexuality as superior to and/or more natural or normal than gay and lesbian sexual orientations (Morin, 1977). Heterosexism focuses on heterosexual privilege and draws attention to the constancy of the experience and not just episodic violence and harassment (Herek & Berrill, 1992). Examples of institutionalized organizational heterosexism include the lack of policies that prohibit discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation and failure to provide gay and lesbian employees benefits equal to those provided to heterosexual employees. For the purposes of this research, institutional heterosexism will be referred to as heterosexism and individual heterosexist behaviors in the workplace will be referred to as perceived workplace discrimination.

Highly heterosexist organizations have been characterized by an absence of protective legislation, the absence of supportive organizational policies and practices, workgroup

composition of majority heterosexuals, and workgroup composition of majority males and each of these organizational heterosexism variables was significantly related to perceived workplace discrimination (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). Organizational heterosexism has been shown to be significantly related to lower job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational self-esteem, and high turnover intentions (Button, 2001; Ragins & Cornwell, 2001, Waldo, 1999) for gay and lesbian employees.

Higher levels of organizational heterosexism and the presence of perceived workplace discrimination will reduce the likelihood of gay men and lesbians disclosing their sexual orientations (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001) to other gay men and lesbians as well as heterosexuals (Wood, 1994). Gay and lesbian employees are more likely to disclose sexual orientation when they perceive a more affirming organizational climate (Griffith and Hebl, 2002). This affirming climate is signaled by and enacted through organizational policies and practices supportive of gay and lesbian employees (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). These supportive policies and practices have also been shown to be associated with reduced reports of perceived discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001).

Most gay men and lesbians can choose the degree to which their sexual orientations are seen to be readily-detectable or underlying through identity management strategies of avoidance, counterfeiting, or integration (Wood 1994). Many gay men and lesbians are inhibited from forming interpersonal relationships with others in the organizations for fear of disclosure of their sexual orientations (e.g. Wood, 1994; Badgett, 1996; Day & Schoenrade, 1997). Gay men and lesbians may even actively shun other gay men and lesbians for fear of disclosure “by association” (Wood, 1994; Ellis, 1996). Fear of workplace discrimination inhibits relationship formation making informal mentor/protégé dyads for gay men and lesbians less likely to be formed. There may also be hesitation on the part of mentors to become involved with protégés of the same sex but different sexual orientations (i.e. heterosexual male mentor and gay male protégé) if the sexual orientations are known or suspected. This would be somewhat analogous to the sexual tension that can exist in cross-gender mentoring dyads (e.g. Ragins & Cotton, 1991). If sexual orientations are not known or suspected (i.e. there is a presumption of heterosexuality), gay men or lesbians in cross-gender mentoring dyads would be subject to the same sexual tensions. In the mentoring relationships that are with protégés of the same sex but different sexual orientations, not only may the mentor be subject to the possibility of sexual innuendo or rumor about the nature of the relationship as with cross-gender relationships but such innuendo or rumor would entail speculation about the sexual orientation of the mentor.

The stigma (Goffman, 1974) associated with gay men and lesbians is different than the stigma attached to many other groups. Stigma by association is possible with sexual orientation. Heterosexuals who associate with gay men and lesbian may be assumed to be gay or lesbian by others. This “courtesy” stigma, obtained by associated with gay men and lesbians (Herek & Capitanio, 1996), is proposed as an additional barrier for gay and lesbian protégés finding mentors. The greater the perceived workplace discrimination, the more concern there is

associated with sexual orientation. Qualitative studies have found that gay employees are excluded from mentoring and networking relationships, which impair their opportunities for advancement in the organization (Friskopp & Silerstein, 1996; Wood, 1994). Perceived workplace discrimination, therefore, is proposed to be a barrier for gay men and lesbians to obtaining an informal mentor. The above reasoning, therefore, suggests the following hypothesis:

H₁: *The likelihood of the presence of an informal mentor for gay and lesbian employees will be inversely related to the level of perceived workplace discrimination.*

It is proposed that perceived workplace discrimination will moderate the amount of psychosocial support in both heterogeneous and homogeneous mentoring relationships but in very different ways. Gay and lesbian protégés experiencing greater perceived workplace discrimination will need more psychosocial support to help them cope with the discrimination. In homogeneous mentoring relationships, the gay or lesbian mentor will be in a position to provide the additional psychosocial support. In heterogeneous mentoring relationships, there is the same increased need for psychosocial support but without the relevant similarity between the members of the dyad. In heterogeneous mentoring relationships, perceived workplace discrimination will inhibit the relationship building process that is integral to the provision of psychosocial support. In these relationships, therefore, psychosocial support will be negatively related to the level of perceived workplace discrimination. Taken together, I predict an interaction between perceived workplace discrimination and the nature of the mentoring relationship such that psychosocial support will be positively related to perceived workplace discrimination, when the relationships are homogenous with respect to sexual orientation and negatively related to perceived workplace discrimination, when the relationship is heterogeneous with respect to sexual orientation. The above reasoning suggests the following hypothesis:

H₂: *There will be an interaction effect for perceived workplace discrimination and the nature of the mentoring relationship (heterogeneous/homogeneous) on the amount of psychosocial support (i.e. the association between perceived workplace discrimination and psychosocial support will be positive for protégés with gay or lesbian mentors and will be negative for those with heterosexual mentors).*

METHODOLOGY

The survey conducted was accessible on-line and not email based. The sampling frame was developed through the use of gay and lesbian groups' websites, list serves and chat rooms. These organizations were approached to request providing a link to this survey's URL. The

survey was also promoted on-line through unmoderated list serves and chat rooms. The sampling frame was also increased by snowball sampling.

Measures

Perceived workplace discrimination was measured using Ragins & Cornwell's (2001) modified Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory (James, Lovato, & Cropanzano, 1994). The Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory modified for sexual orientation includes items such as: "Prejudice against gays and lesbians exists where I work" and "At work I am treated poorly because of my sexual orientation". I inadvertently dropped three items from the scale resulting in a 12-item scale. A 5-point Likert scale with *Completely Disagree* and *Completely Agree* as anchors was used. For this study, principal component analysis yielded a single factor with an eigenvalue of 6.88 accounting for 57.3% of the variance (coefficient alpha of .93).

Presence of a mentor was assessed by asking respondents, "During your career, has there been a person who has taken a personal interest in you and your career? Someone who has guided, sponsored, or otherwise had a positive and significant influence on your professional career development? In other words, have you ever had a mentor?" Responses indicating the presence of a mentor were coded as 1; those indicating no mentor were coded as 0.

Psychosocial support was measured using Noe's (1988) 10-item Mentoring Functions Scale, assessing the extent to which psychosocial support was provided by the mentor as reported by the protégé. Respondents were asked to indicate on a 5-point Likert scale the extent to which their relationship with their mentor was described by each of the statements (1 = *to a very slight extent*, 5 = *to a very large extent*). Sample items of psychosocial support include "My mentor has kept feelings and doubts I shared with him/her in strict confidence" and "My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as an individual". I obtained a coefficient alpha of .86.

Demographic/Individual Characteristics were measured using single item measures. The characteristics included sex, age, ethnicity, sexual orientation, educational levels, income, province, territory or state in which they worked, industry in which they worked, and job tenure. Respondents were asked the degree of disclosure of their sexual orientation in the workplace on a 4-item scale ranging from *No One* to *Everyone*.

For respondents from the United States, the presence of protective legislation was determined by the state of residence reported by the respondents and the statewide anti-discrimination laws and policies reported by the civil rights organization, Human Rights Campaign. At the time of the data collection, 14 states provided protective legislations against discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation, as did all provinces and territories of Canada. A 6-item scale developed by Ragins & Cornwell (2001) was used to assess the supportiveness of organizational policies and practices for gay and lesbian employees. The scale includes the following items: Does your organization: 1. *have a non-discrimination policy that includes*

sexual orientation? 2. include sexual orientation in the definition of diversity? 3. include awareness of gay/lesbian/bisexual issues in diversity training? 4. offer same-sex domestic partners benefits? offer gay/lesbian/bisexual resource/support groups? 5. welcome same-sex partners at company social events?

Responses indicating the presence of the supportive policy were coded as 1; the absence of the policy as 0, and *Don't Know* was coded as missing. The items were then summed to create an overall scale of organizational policies and practices with values ranging from 0 to 6 with 0 representing the absence of all listed policies and practices and 6 the presence of all. Ragins and Cornwell (2001) report a coefficient alpha for this variable of .82. I obtained a coefficient alpha of .78.

To measure the sexual orientation composition of the work group, respondents were asked about the sexual orientations of their co-workers. They were given a 4-point scale with *0-25% gay or lesbian* and *75 - 100% gay and lesbian* as anchors and a *Don't Know* option which was coded as missing data. To measure the gender composition of the work group respondents were given a 4-point scale with *0-25% women* and *75 - 100% women* as anchors and a *Don't Know* option which was coded as missing data.

Protégés were asked whether the protégé and mentor both work in the same organization, to determine if the relationship was internal or external; and whether the organization, the protégé, or the mentor initiated the mentoring relationship to determine whether the mentoring relationship was formal or informal. The analysis is limited to internal mentoring relationships to ensure that both mentor and protégé are exposed and responding to the same potential barriers to mentoring relationships within the protégé's organization.

Protégés were asked if their mentors were aware of their sexual orientation. Protégés were asked for characteristics of their mentors, which included sex, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and whether the mentor had supervisory responsibility over the protégé. Protégés were also asked how sure they were about their mentors' sexual orientations using a 4-point scale with *Completely Sure* and *Not Sure At All* as anchors.

RESULTS

The sample consisted of individuals who self-identified as gay men or lesbians, who live in Canada or the United States, and who reported being employed. Individuals reporting that they were unemployed, retired, or self-employed were eliminated from this analysis. The sample consisted of 479 individuals, 326 gay men and 153 lesbians.

Confirmatory factor analysis was used to assess how well the scale items used to measure organizational policies and practices, perceived workplace discrimination and psychosocial support loaded onto their respective constructs. These analyses were conducted using AMOS 4 (Byrne, 2001). The results indicated a reasonably good fit to the data with χ^2 (df, 350) = 931.50, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .06, NFI = .97, CFI = .98. All items loaded significantly on their respective

constructs with all critical ratios greater than 5.42, well exceeding the 1.96 required for significance at .05. Coefficient alphas for the scales are as follows: organizational policies and procedures .78, perceived workplace discrimination .93, and psychosocial support .86.

To test hypothesis 1, logistic regressions were performed with an interaction term of *Discrimination x Canada* and with an interaction term of *Discrimination x United States*. The presence of transsexual co-workers was the only significant predictor of having an informal mentor ($p < .05$), changing the odds of having one by 3.682. The logistic regression interaction term of *Discrimination x United States* revealed that perceived workplace discrimination ($p < .05$) was a significant predictor of the odds of having an informal mentor. Having an informal mentor was associated with lower levels of perceived workplace discrimination. Each additional unit of discrimination changed the odds of having an informal mentor by a factor of 0.536. In the United States subsample, the odds of having an informal mentor are reduced by perceived workplace discrimination whereas the odds of having an informal mentor is unaffected by perceived workplace discrimination in the Canadian subsample. Hypothesis one was supported for the United States, but not the Canadian, subsample.

To test hypothesis 2, the interaction terms *Discrimination x Canada* and *Discrimination x United States* were regressed on psychosocial support. Both interaction terms were significant: *Discrimination x Canada* ($\beta = .41, p < .01$) and *Discrimination x United States* ($\beta = -.22, p < .05$). The results of the regression employing the interaction term *Discrimination x Canada* revealed that job tenure ($\beta = -.58, p < .001$) and the number of supportive policies and practices ($\beta = .75, p < .001$) were significant predictors of psychosocial support. Mentor being supervisor ($\beta = .21, p < .10$) was a marginal predictor of psychosocial support. The results of the regression employing the interaction term *Discrimination x United States* revealed that disclosure of sexual orientation to mentor ($\beta = .22, p < .05$) was a significant predictor of psychosocial support. Higher psychosocial support was significantly associated with protégé disclosure of sexual orientation to the mentor.

For the United States subsample, psychosocial support decreased as perceived workplace discrimination increased and for the Canadian subsample psychosocial support increased as perceived workplace discrimination increased and as the number of supportive policies and practices increased.

DISCUSSION

Perceived workplace discrimination was an obstacle to obtaining a mentor in the United States subsample but not in the Canadian subsample. In the United States subsample, both heterosexual and gay or lesbian mentors provided less psychosocial support to their gay and lesbian protégés as organizational heterosexism (measured by perceived workplace discrimination) increased. In contrast, in the Canadian subsample, both heterosexual and gay or lesbian mentors provided more psychosocial support to their gay and lesbian protégés as

organizational heterosexism increased. It seems that mentors in the United States were responding to the fear of courtesy stigma and misinterpretation of the relationship whereas mentors in Canada were responding to the increased need for psychosocial support.

Although seminal mentoring research was conducted in Canada (Burke, 1984), most since has been conducted in the United States. Perhaps one of the most important findings of this study is to stress the hazards in assuming that research done in the United States is generalizable elsewhere, especially research that involves sexual orientation or other social issues such as gender, race, religion – all cultural issues on which Canada and the United States are increasing divergent (Adams, 2004). This could further reduce the generalizability of findings and theory developed through research conducted in the United States in other countries in the future.

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RELATIONSHIPS AMONG INDIVIDUAL GREEN ORIENTATION, EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT TO THE GREEN MOVEMENT, AND ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF JAMAICA AND THE UNITED STATES

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ABSTRACT

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

INTRODUCTION

In this research, we consider how employees' perceptions of the organization's commitment to the "green" movement are related to individual green orientation, organizational culture, and organization performance in two cultures: US and Jamaica. A stimulus for our work has been widespread recent discussion of the need to shift attention in Quality Management programs to issues of *sustainability*, a concept that is central to the green movement.

The Green Movement

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

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

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

During this unsettled period, one important set of questions centers upon consumers, who, themselves are employees as well, and the issue of determining the extent of their commitment to the green movement. We have recently (Li, Hartman & Zee, 2009) reported our initial work to design a scale to measure commitment to the green movement. Our emphasis was on development of an instrument which would tap the key concerns of the green movement. Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, points out that the Green Movement originated from Green Politics, a *political ideology*. Greens, the supporters of the green movement, advocate green politics and place a high importance on ecological and environmental goals. The greens share many ideas with the Ecology movement. Conservation movements, environmental movements, feminist movements, the peace movement, and social justice are the issues they focus upon as well. We reported encouraging initial findings, which suggest that the instrument can be used to examine consumer/employee commitment.

Environmental friendliness and sustainability are the major concerns of green products, green manufacturing and service, and green organizations (Liu & He, 2005). All of the green activities, such as reducing waste, using harmless materials, and providing organic food can be placed under the umbrella of greening. Providing a clean, ethical and safe environment to human beings and all creatures is the goal of green movement, and is one which potentially requires the efforts of all the people, industries and governments on the earth (Grewe 2002; Holden 2004; Patulny & Norris, 2005; Tiemstra, 2003).

Organizational Culture and Sustainability

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

Centering on quality practices, recent in-depth discussion by Zairi (2002) can illustrate what is being considered:

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

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

Systematic Study of Cultural Differences

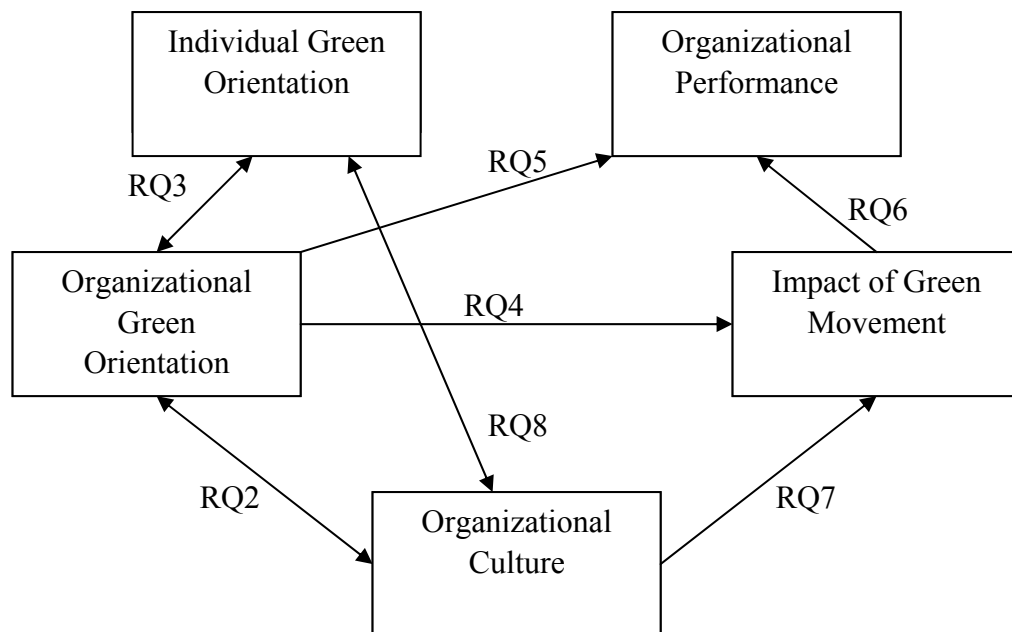
The systematic examination of cultural differences has its origin in Hofstede's (1983) original study, where four dimensions of culture were identified: uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, and power distance. The idea is that these are underlying dimensions that can be used to systematically distinguish one culture from another. In turn, cultural differences may lead to differences in the way the economy, organizational environments, and the workplace operate. Of interest to this research is the prospect that, in differing cultures, there may be differences in how Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) is implemented and in satisfaction with ERP and the implementation. These ideas have recently been examined in China (Huang, et al., 2006; Liang, Xue, Boulton & Byrd, 2004; Martinsons, 2004; Poon & Yu, 2010; Soh, Kien & Tay-Yap, 2000; Wang, Klein & Jiang, 2006) and there has been limited study in Europe (Van Everdingen, Van Hillegersberg & Waarts, 2000). Reports suggest a general pattern of identifying cultural differences impacting adoption. The apparent emphasis on the study of China is understandable, given the importance of that area's importance as a growing economic engine (Wang et al, 2006). In our study, we examine cultural differences between an emerging culture – Jamaica – and the United States, a leader among developed countries.

In this research, we consider how employee perceptions of their own and the organization's commitment to the "green" movement and employee perceptions that the organization has implemented perceptions of outcomes. We examine differences that may be occurring between Jamaica and the United States. In this study, we develop eight research questions to explore the possibilities.

Figure 1 shows the linkages we expect and relates linkages to the corresponding research questions. Our first research question suggests that organizations in two different cultures would have different levels of individual green orientation, organizational green orientation, organizational culture, organizational performance, and impacts of the green movement (Research Question 1 labeled as RQ1 in Figure 1). We also believe that organizations with more desirable organizational cultures should be more supportive of the green movement (Research Question 2 labeled as RQ2 in Figure 1). Furthermore, employees' personal green orientations should be related to or affected by the green movement within the organization (Research Question 3 labeled as RQ3 in Figure 1). Additionally, as organizations become more green-oriented, the organization itself will be seen as "doing better" in general and the impact of the green movement will be seen as more positive (Research Questions 4 and 5 labeled as RQ4 and RQ5 in Figure 1). We also believe that as the organization is "doing better," the employees will perceive the impact of the green movement to be even better (Research Question 6 labeled as RQ6 in Figure 1). Finally, we expect that organizational culture is related to the impact of the green movement and will be shaped by employees' individual green orientation (Research Questions 7 and 8 labeled as RQ7 and RQ8 in Figure 1).

- Research Question 1:** Organizations in the United States and in Jamaica will have different levels of individual green orientation, organizational green orientation, organizational culture, organizational performance, and impacts of the green movement.
- Research Question 2:** Organizational Green Orientation is related to Organizational Culture.
- Research Question 3:** Organizational Green Orientation is related to Individual Green Orientation.
- Research Question 4:** Organizations that are described by employees as higher in Organizational Green Orientation will also report more positive feelings about the impact of the green movement.
- Research Question 5:** Organizations that are described by employees as higher in Organizational Green Orientation will also report more positive feelings about the organization's performance.
- Research Question 6:** Organizations that are described by employees as higher in Organizational Performance, they will also report more positive feelings about the impact of the green movement.
- Research Question 7:** Organizational Culture is related to employees' feelings about the impact of the green movement.
- Research Question 8:** Organizational Culture is related to Individual Green Orientation.

Figure 1 Research Model



METHODOLOGY

Subjects of the Current Study

Subjects in the US sample were approximately 323 managers from a wide variety of industries in the South. There were approximately 25.7% of these managers from the healthcare industry, 13.9% from utilities, 8.7% from manufacturing, and 8.4% from retail. They were roughly 57.3 % male and 42.7% female with an average age of 41.26 years (Table 1). These managers had an average of 20.64 years working experience with 11.11 years in management positions. 35.9% of the subjects are employed in a company that has more than 500 employees, 8.7% of the subjects work in a company that has 251 to 500 employees, 19.5% of the subjects work in a company that has 51 to 250 employees and 35.9% of the subjects work in a company that has less than 50 employees.

Subjects in the Jamaican sample were approximately 345 managers. There were approximately 23.5% of these managers from the utility industry, 16.5% from education, 10.7% from Manufacturing, 7.2% from financial services, and 7% from technology. Of the 345 Jamaican managers, they were roughly 43.9 % male and 56.1% female with an average age of 36.9 years. These managers had an average of 16.02 years working experience with 6.75 years in management positions. 51.3% of the subjects are employed in a company that has more than 500 employees, 13.8% of the subjects work in a company that has 251 to 500 employees, 22% of the subjects work in a company that has 51 to 250 employees and 12.9% of the subjects work in a company that has less than 50 employees.

		USA	Jamaica
Gender	Male	185 (57.3%)	151 (43.9%)
	Female	138 (42.7%)	193 (56.1%)
	Valid N (list wise)	323 (100.0%)	344 (100.0%)
Number of Years	Age	41.26	36.90
	Working Experience	20.64	16.02
	Managerial Experience	11.11	6.75
	Valid N (list wise)	317	330
Number of Employees	Over 500	116 (35.9%)	175 (51.3%)
	251-500	28 (8.7%)	47 (13.8%)
	51-250	63 (19.5%)	75 (22.0%)
	Less than 50	116 (35.9%)	44 (12.9%)
	Valid N (list wise)	323 (100.0%)	341 (100.0%)

Subjects responded to a survey asking about their perceptions and experiences about green movement, quality management, and organizational culture in their own firms. In this study, we will concentrate on the relationships among perceptions of support for the organizational green movement, organizational culture, organizational performance, and the impact of green movement.

Industry of your organization^a

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Manufacturing	28	8.7	8.7	8.7
Utilities	45	13.9	13.9	22.6
Health Care	83	25.7	25.7	48.3
Financial Services	4	1.2	1.2	49.5
High Technology	10	3.1	3.1	52.6
Government	19	5.9	5.9	58.5
Retail	27	8.4	8.4	66.9
Education	19	5.9	5.9	72.8
Other	88	27.2	27.2	100.0
Total	323	100.0	100.0	

a. country = US

Industry of your organization^a

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Manufacturing	37	10.7	11.0	11.0
Utilities	81	23.5	24.1	35.1
Health Care	20	5.8	6.0	41.1
Financial Services	25	7.2	7.4	48.5
High Technology	24	7.0	7.1	55.7
Government	16	4.6	4.8	60.4
Retail	9	2.6	2.7	63.1
Education	57	16.5	17.0	80.1
Other	67	19.4	19.9	100.0
Total	336	97.4	100.0	
Missing System	9	2.6		
Total	345	100.0		

a. country = Jamaica

Instrument

Organizational Green Orientation

In this study, we developed survey questions to measure the Organizational Green Movement. The instrument asks the respondents to indicate how important for the organization to design, produce, and promote environmentally friendly goods and services, reuse or refurbish components, provide a safe workplace, preserve employees' well-being, and make ethical and socially responsible decisions. As Table 2 indicates, we obtained a two-factor solution with 71.61% of the variance explained in the case of the Organizational Green Orientation items. We have labeled Factor 1 as "Green Products/Services" and Factor 2 as "Green Workplace."

Table 2 Factor Analysis on Organizational Green Orientation

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component	
	1	2
Produce environmentally friendly goods and services	.880	.133
Design environmentally friendly goods and services	.904	.134
Reuse or refurbish a product's components	.727	.292
Promote environmentally friendly causes and products	.780	.301
Provide a safe and healthy workplace for employees	.222	.818
Preserve employees' physical and emotional well-being	.168	.804
Make ethical and socially responsible decisions	.200	.800

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.717	53.097	53.097	3.717	53.097	53.097	2.847	40.667	40.667
2	1.296	18.514	71.611	1.296	18.514	71.611	2.166	30.944	71.611
3	.568	8.109	79.720						
4	.506	7.227	86.947						
5	.447	6.382	93.329						
6	.299	4.278	97.607						
7	.168	2.393	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Individual Green Orientation

In this study, we developed survey questions to measure the Green Orientation at the personal/individual level. The instrument includes questions on individual's participation on daily green activities such as recycling papers and plastic, using energy-efficient and eco-friendly products, and buying organic food. In addition, there are questions on individual's belief and value towards the green movement. We obtained a three-factor solution with 50.66% of the variance explained in the case of the Individual Green Orientation items. We have labeled Factor 1 as "Green Actions", Factor 2 as "Green Consciousness" and Factor 3 as "Green Belief." Table 3 provides the items and shows the results of our factor analysis.

Table 3 Factor Analysis on Individual Green Orientation**Rotated Component Matrix^a**

	Component		
	1	2	3
Recycle paper, plastic, or aluminum products	.582	.334	.157
Drive a hybrid or electric car	.630	.096	.002
Install low-energy lights in your home	.269	.481	-.281
Look for the products with the green recycling sign	.744	.155	-.154
Use the eco-friendly, reusable shopping bag	.747	.137	-.089
Buy organic food	.647	.098	-.027
Turn off lights and equipment(s) when not in use	-.005	.798	-.021
Follow the green-building guides for building a home	.627	.278	-.056
Look for "Energy Star" when purchase an appliance	.513	.357	.066
Purchase eco-friendly cleaning products	.714	.044	-.228
Bank at an eco-friendly bank	.560	.065	-.175
Run your home on renewable energy	.629	.209	.070
The city or state should provide an ability to recycle	.238	.641	-.029
It is inconvenient being "green"	-.076	-.094	.931

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.951	35.366	35.366	4.951	35.366	35.366	4.277	30.549	30.549
2	1.127	8.049	43.415	1.127	8.049	43.415	1.717	12.263	42.811
3	1.015	7.249	50.664	1.015	7.249	50.664	1.099	7.852	50.664
4	.919	6.566	57.230						
5	.811	5.792	63.021						
6	.758	5.417	68.438						
7	.734	5.245	73.683						
8	.707	5.049	78.732						
9	.620	4.427	83.159						
10	.577	4.122	87.281						
11	.497	3.548	90.829						
12	.486	3.473	94.302						
13	.411	2.935	97.236						
14	.387	2.764	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Organizational Culture

Based on previous research (Fok et al., 2000, 2001; Hartman, Fok & Zee, 2009), we measured the Organizational Culture by constructing a series of paired opposite items which asked whether the organization's climate should be described as open vs. closed, soft vs. tough, competitive vs. collaborative, and the like. Table 4 below provides the items and shows the results of our factor analysis. We obtained a two-factor solution in the case of the Organizational Culture items and have labeled Factor 1 as "TQM Culture" and Factor 2 as "People-Friendly Culture." 49.64% of the variance was explained by these two factors.

Table 4 Factor Analysis on Organizational Culture**Rotated Component Matrix^a**

	Component	
	1	2
Open	.676	-.292
Soft	-.307	.459
Collaborative	-.018	.679
Informal	.039	.665
Team-oriented	.663	.090
Decentralized	.127	.618
Participative	.693	-.098
Quality-oriented	.748	.061
Innovation-promoting	.787	.019
Proactive	.829	.081

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.364	33.641	33.641	3.364	33.641	33.641	3.355	33.550	33.550
2	1.600	15.999	49.640	1.600	15.999	49.640	1.609	16.090	49.640
3	.943	9.433	59.073						
4	.833	8.332	67.405						
5	.759	7.585	74.991						
6	.716	7.158	82.149						
7	.566	5.665	87.813						
8	.501	5.014	92.828						
9	.445	4.454	97.282						
10	.272	2.718	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Impact of Green Movement

The instruments included items such as “Provide better products,” “Provide better services,” “Have better relationship with customers,” “Have better relationship with suppliers,” “Have better reputation,” “Provide better working environment,” “Increase profits,” “Reduce costs,” and “Improve productivity.” Factor analysis produced a single-factor solution and we named it “Benefits of Green Movement.” 64.88% of the variance was explained by the factor.

ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE

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

designed to identify organizations, which are performing in an exceptional manner and include criteria for identifying excellence. We used the Baldrige criteria in the form of a scale, which asks respondents to provide their perceptions about their organizations along Baldrige lines. The resulting scale has been used and reported in previous research (Fok, et al., 2000, 2001; Hartman, Fok & Zee, 2009). The instrument included are items such as “Overall, my company is performing well,” “Overall, morale in my company is high,” “Overall, I am satisfied with the use of technology in my company,” and the like. Factor analysis in this study indicated that one factor was present. We named the factor as “Organizational Success.”

RESULTS

Our first research question suggested that organizations in the United States and in Jamaica would have different levels of organizational and individual green orientation, organizational culture, organizational performance, and impact of green movement. As shown in Table 5, the MANOVA (Multivariate Analysis of Variance) results are significant with a p-value of .000, which implies that organizations in United States were significantly different from organizations in Jamaica, and that subjects reported different levels of organizational and individual green orientation, organizational culture, organizational performance, and impacts of the green movement. Among the nine factors, we found that “Green Products/Services”, “Green Actions”, “Green Belief”, “TQM Culture”, and “Organizational Success” are statistically significant at the levels of .000. For “Green Products/Services”, the mean factor score of Jamaican organizations (.201) is greater than that of United States organizations (-0.195). The results imply that the Jamaican respondents have stronger belief that those in Jamaican organizations are inclined to develop green products or services than American respondents evaluating their organizations. For “Green Actions”, the mean factor score of Jamaican sample (0.327) is greater than that of American sample (-0.322). For “Green Belief”, the mean factor score of American sample (0.207) is greater than that of Jamaican sample (-0.218). The results suggest that respondents in the Jamaica perceive themselves to have higher level of green practices than those in the United States; however, individuals in the United States perceive themselves to have higher level of green awareness than those in Jamaica. For “TQM Culture”, the mean factor score of Jamaican organizations (.185) is greater than that of United States organizations (-.208). The result implies that Jamaican organizations achieve higher level of teamwork, quality-oriented and innovation promoting than those organizations in the United States. For “Organizational Success”, the mean factor score of United States organizations (.390) is greater than that of Jamaican organizations (-.363). The results suggest that American respondents have stronger belief that American organizations achieve higher level of organizational performance/success than those organizations in Jamaica.

Table 5 Summary of MANOVA results – U.S. vs. Jamaica (RQ1)

Multivariate Tests^b

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.003	.196 ^a	9.000	590.000	.995
	Wilks' Lambda	.997	.196 ^a	9.000	590.000	.995
	Hotelling's Trace	.003	.196 ^a	9.000	590.000	.995
	Roy's Largest Root	.003	.196 ^a	9.000	590.000	.995
country	Pillai's Trace	.302	28.404 ^a	9.000	590.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.698	28.404 ^a	9.000	590.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.433	28.404 ^a	9.000	590.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.433	28.404 ^a	9.000	590.000	.000

a. Exact statistic

b. Design: Intercept+country

Dependent Variable	Significance
Green Products/Services	.000**
Green Workplace	.161
Green Actions	.000**
Green Consciousness	.374
Green Belief	.000**
TQM Culture	.000**
People-Friendly Culture	.372
Benefits of Green Movement	.481
Organizational Success	.000**

The F tests the effect of U.S. vs. Jamaican organizations. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

** F test is significant at the 0.05 level.

Our second research question examines the relationship between Organizational Green Orientation and Organizational Culture. Table 6 provides the results of our correlation analysis. We found only one pair of significant relationships in the United States sample but no significant relationships in the Jamaican sample. “Green Workplace” has a significant correlation with “TQM Culture” which implies that as United States organizations embrace culture that focuses on quality, team, and being proactive, they also are trying to develop a workplace that is environmental friendly and safe to the employees.

Table 6 Pearson's Correlation Matrix- Organizational Green Orientation, Individual Green Orientation, Impact of Green Movement, and Organizational Performance (RQ2 to RQ5)

USA							
	Green Actions	Green Consciousness	Green Belief	TQM Culture	People-Friendly Culture	Benefits of Green Movement	Organizational Success
Green Products/Services	.403**	NS	NS	NS	NS	.359**	NS
Green Workplace	NS	.278**	NS	.139*	NS	NS	.187**

Jamaica							
	Green Actions	Green Consciousness	Green Belief	TQM Culture	People-Friendly Culture	Benefits of Green Movement	Organizational Success
Green Products/Services	.413**	.208**	NS	NS	NS	.387**	.117*
Green Workplace	NS	.109*	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS

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

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

NS = not significant.

Research Question 3 investigates the relationship between Organizational Green Orientation and Individual Green Orientation. We found two pairs of significant relationships in United States organizations and three pairs of significant relationships in Jamaican organizations. The results are shown in Table 6. In the US sample, "Green Products/Services" has a significant and positive correlation with "Green Actions" at the 0.01 level. The relationships imply that individuals with higher levels of green practices report their organizations produce more environmentally friendly goods and services. In addition, "Green Workplace" has a significant and positive correlation with "Green Consciousness" in the US sample. This suggests that the US employees with higher levels of self-green awareness report a stronger belief that their organizations develop a workplace that is environmental friendly and safe to the employees. These observations are also true among Jamaican respondents. The Jamaican sample has one more significant relationship than the US sample. "Green Products/Services" is also found to be significantly correlated with individuals' "Green Consciousness." The relationships imply that Jamaican respondents with higher levels of green awareness report that their organizations produce more environmentally friendly goods and services.

Research Question 4 suggested that organizations with higher level of green orientation would be reported by the employees to have more positive feeling about the impact of the green movement. We found the same pair of significant relationships in United States organizations and in Jamaican organizations. The results are shown in Table 6. "Green Products/Services" has significant and positive correlations with "Benefits of Green Movement" in both United States

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

Research Question 5 suggested that organizations with higher level of green orientation would have received more positive feelings about the organization’s performance. The results are shown in Table 6. In the US sample, the relationship between “Green Workplace” and “Organizational Success” is significant at the 0.01 level. The relationship is positive which implies that as the United States organizations show more concern in developing a workplace to be more green-oriented and environmental friendly, and pay more attention to safety concerns, the organizational performance is perceived by the employees to be higher. We found one pair of significant relationship in the Jamaican organizations. “Green Products/Services” and “Organizational Success” have a significant and positive relationship, which suggests that when organizations develop more “green” products/services or use more “green” material in the production, the organizations would also report higher levels of performance.

Research Question 6 suggested that organizations with higher level of organizational performance would be reported by the employees to have more positive feeling about the impact of the green movement. As shown in Table 7, we found that “Benefits of Green Movement” has a significant correlation with “Organizational Success” in both United States and Jamaican organizations. The relationships are positive and imply that both United States and Jamaican organizations with higher levels of performance/success would also be reported by their employees to have positive feelings about the impact of the green movement.

Table 7 Pearson’s Correlation Matrix - Impact of Green Movement, Organizational Culture, and Organizational Performance (RQ6 and RQ7)

USA			
	TQM Culture	People-Friendly Culture	Organizational Success
Benefits of Green Movement	.255**	.204**	.258**

Jamaica			
	TQM Culture	People-Friendly Culture	Organizational Success
Benefits of Green Movement	.379**	NS	.454**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
 NS = not significant.

Our seventh research question examines the relationship between Organizational Culture and Impact of Green Movement. We found two pairs of significant relationships in United States organizations. Both “TQM Culture” and “People-Friendly Culture” have significant correlations with “Benefits of Green Movement”. The findings indicate that as the organizational cultures are more quality-oriented and employee-friendly; the employees see more positive

impacts from the green movement. Only one pair of significant relationships in Jamaican organizations is found. “TQM Culture” has a significant relationship with “Benefits of Green Movement,” implying that in the organizations studied, respondents believe that cultures which emphasize quality and innovation do provide overall green benefits, such as provide better products and services; have better relationships with customers, suppliers, and employees; increase profits, reduce costs, or improve productivity.

Research Question 8 investigates the relationship between Organizational Culture and Individual Green Orientation. The results are shown in Table 8. There is only one pair of significant relationship in United States organizations. “TQM Culture” has a significant relationship with “Green Belief.” The relationship implies that the organizational cultures are more quality-oriented; the employees would have higher level of green awareness. We find one pair of significant relationships in Jamaican organizations. “People-Friendly Culture” has a significant correlation with “Green Actions” which suggests that organizations, which are more employee-friendly, will have employees report higher level of green practices.

Table 8 Pearson’s Correlation Matrix – Individual Green Orientation and Organizational Culture (RQ8)

USA		
	TQM Culture	People-Friendly Culture
Green Actions	NS	NS
Green Consciousness	NS	NS
Green Belief	.112*	NS

Jamaica		
	TQM Culture	People-Friendly Culture
Green Actions	NS	.123*
Green Consciousness	NS	NS
Green Belief	NS	NS

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

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

NS = not significant.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In this research, we examine whether there are differences between the US and Jamaican organizations in employee perceptions of and reactions to the “green movement.” Our MANOVA results found significant differences between the US and Jamaican organizations in five aspects: Green Products/Services, Green Actions, Green Belief, TQM Culture, and Organizational Success. The American organizations had significantly higher scores in Individual Green Belief and Organizational Success than the Jamaican organizations. The

Jamaican organizations, on the other hand, scored higher in Green Products/Services, Individual Green Actions, and TQM Culture. Note, however, it is inconsistent with the common notion that Jamaica, perhaps in its concern for rebuilding its economy, would be more willing to tolerate more violations of pollution requirements than other countries.

We next examined the linkages among Individual Green Orientation, Organizational Performance, Impact of the Green Movement, Organizational Culture, and Organizational Green Orientation, as show in Figure 1, for the US and Jamaican organizations. In general, patterns of relationships were similar for the two cultures. The findings suggest that despite the perceptual differences between the two cultures in five aspects, perhaps the underlying relationships among Individual Green Orientation, Organizational Performance, Impact of the Green Movement, Organizational Culture, and Organizational Green Orientation are quite similar. The findings suggest that, perhaps, the cultural gap is narrowing and that critical thought patterns are becoming increasingly similar. Further study would be required to connect this narrowing of the cultural gap to the economic transition and the changes in institutional environments.

These findings may have implications for management. This research suggests that when employees, regardless of their cultures, believe that their organizations are committed to being green, a number of positive feelings will result. Specifically, they will report feeling more positive about the organization, its products and, by implication, its management. Yet, anecdotally, at least, it appears that many organizations are doing little to keep employees informed of their efforts to support the green movement. More and better information appears to have the potential to bring about positive results. It may be useful for organizations to begin by polling their employees – anonymously, if need be – to determine whether these individuals feel positively about the organization’s efforts. Where problems are found, corrective actions should be undertaken and where poor communication is to blame, efforts to clarify what is being done will be needed.

Are the US organizations less supportive of the green movement than Jamaican organizations? On a superficial level, at least, organizations with cultures that would be expected to emphasize care and concern would also be expected to be supportive of the green movement. Study measuring concrete organizational actions - rather than perceptions could be useful in supporting whether differences are *real*.

This research has shown some significant difference between the US and Jamaican organizations in employee perceptions about the organization and the green movement. The potential implications for firms seeking to do business in Jamaica and the U.S. are encouraging in that these findings suggest that the basis for cross-cultural understanding are improving, albeit slowly and incrementally. The implications for future research in this vein are rich in possibility, calling for continuing studies including examinations of regional differences within and between the two countries, exploration of alternative scenarios, and the development of alternative hypotheses.

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HOLDING THE HELM: EXPLORING THE INFLUENCE OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ON GROUP CREATIVITY, AND THE MODERATING ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING CULTURE

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ABSTRACT

This review will explore the moderating effects of organizational learning culture (OLC) on the relationship between transformational leadership (TFL) and group creativity (GC). Research has indicated some effect of TFL on creativity. However, there are empirical and theoretical reasons to believe that this effect may be intensified by an organizational culture that promotes continuous, valuable learning. The review will investigate various components of TFL, and offer propositions on their influence on group creativity, as well as the interaction between organizational learning culture and TFL that affects group creativity. A conceptual model and suggestions for future research in the field will also be provided.

Keywords: transformational leadership, group creativity, organizational learning culture

“The organizations of the future will increasingly depend on the creativity of their members to survive. Great groups offer a new model in which the leader is an equal among Titans. In a truly creative collaboration, work is pleasure, and the only rules and procedures are those that advance the common cause” (Bennis & Biederman, 1997).

INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades, researchers have been keenly interested in the enhancement of creativity in groups (Baruah & Paulus, 2008). In this era of modernization, technological advancements, and changing markets, the increased use of creativity and innovation is not just a popular topic, but a necessary focus. Groups are the building blocks of organizations, and therefore, the success of organizations depends on the ability of groups to perform their tasks effectively (Choi & Thompson, 2005) and produce creative solutions to maximize organizational competitiveness. Innovation capacity is an imperative so that organizations keep their competitive edge and survive (Miguel, Franklin, & Popadiuk, 2008).

Creativity can be promoted through effective leadership, especially transformational leadership (TFL). TFL behaviors, like the communication of an inspirational vision,

encouragement and consideration, operational autonomy/freedom, challenge, and support for inventiveness and originality, mimic some of the factors associated with innovation and creativity in organizations (Elkins & Keller, 2003). Waldman and Bass (1991) mentioned the importance of TFL at different phases of the innovation process, and Jung (2000) found creativity in groups to be higher under transformational leadership, with participants in the TFL condition generating significantly greater numbers of unique ideas than their counterparts in the transactional leadership condition.

Creativity can also be encouraged through an organizational culture that endorses learning. Learning is seen as a purposive quest to retain and improve competitiveness, productivity, and innovativeness (Dodgson, 1993). Eisenbeiss, van Knippenberg, and Boerner (2008) found that TFL and support for innovation related positively to team innovation only in a climate of excellence. The results also revealed a significant interaction between support for innovation and climate for excellence, implying that the relationship between support for innovation and team innovation is moderated by climate for excellence. Support for innovation reflects TFL behaviors, and team innovation is relevant to group creativity. In fact, Jung (2000) alluded to creativity inducing innovation. Also, high climate for excellence is pertinent to OLC because a commitment to learning helps foster excellence. Purington, Butler, and Gale (2003) discussed Rockwell Collins, a leading provider of innovative communication and aviation electronics solutions, and explained that in order for a company to achieve its desired level of excellence, it needs to focus on becoming an authentic learning organization.

TFL is a style of leadership that helps to generate positive change or “transform” organizations through mutual engagement of both leaders and employees. This article will explore one of the possible “transformations” of TFL, namely group creativity (GC). It also suggests that organizational learning culture (OLC) would aid organizational transformation stemming from increased creativity, which in turn, generates further transformation. Thus, TFL, OLC, and GC all play a role in the transformation of the organization.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Since its debut, transformational leadership has received a great deal of attention. TFL was pioneered by Burns (1978), who defined it as a reinforcing process between the leader and the follower, elevating them to higher planes of motivation and morality. TFL was developed further by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1995). It is a concept that embraces mutual engagement while attempting to achieve a common goal. It transforms followers and organizations through the promotion of selfless ideals that encourage performance beyond expectations.

TFL includes four components, namely idealized influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC) (Bass, 1985; Bass, 1997; Bass & Riggio, 2006). II encompasses charisma, and is associated with the leader’s personification of a role model/exemplar. IM refers to the transformational leader’s articulation of an enticing and meaningful vision to be shared and targeted. IS involves the encouragement of followers to think inventively and challenge the status quo, and IC includes concern for the followers’ needs.

TFL has been found to contribute to organizational success in many ways. Keller (1992) discovered that TFL predicted higher project quality and enhanced budget/schedule performance, and Waldman and Atwater (1992) determined that TFL was positively related to project effectiveness. TFL was found to be related to increased organizational performance (Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007), increased employee motivation (Bono & Judge, 2003), and increased employee commitment, loyalty, and satisfaction (Bass & Riggio, 2006). A significant positive relationship was also discovered between TFL and creativity (Sosik, Avolio, & Kahai 1998; Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009). This paper will further the research concerning TFL by considering its contribution to GC, and investigating the moderating effect of a culture of organizational learning.

GROUP CREATIVITY

In the psychological literature, the concept of creativity usually refers to the production, by individuals or groups, of ideas and solutions considered not only original and innovative but also useful and appropriate (Amabile, 1996; Sternberg & Lupart, 1999). The potential of groups to engage in rich exploration, discovery, and innovation in various fields has motivated many researchers, leaders, and field practitioners to promote and study group creativity (e.g., Shneiderman et al., 2006).

An overwhelming amount of the literature argues that groups are bad for creativity (Paulus, Nakui, & Putman, 2006) in that they appear to reduce motivation to share divergent ideas out of concern for peer evaluation of member's ideas. The classic research on groupthink showed that groups may hinder the sharing of perspectives that go against the dominant group view (Janis, 1982). There is also a propensity for groups to exchange information or ideas that they have in common rather than unique information (Stasser & Birchmeier, 2003). This may be particularly true of group members who tend to be uncomfortable or anxious in groups (Camacho & Paulus, 1995).

Groups can also have a positive influence on creativity. The main proponents of GC have been associated with innovation in organizations (Paulus, 2003). Osborn (1963) began in the 1940s to promote group brainstorming as a useful technique for generation of novel and innovative ideas. Stein (1974) discussed group factors in his volume on stimulating creativity, and group processes were given a central role in the theory of organizational creativity by Woodman, Sawyer, and Griffin (1993). The greatest enthusiasm for group creativity can be found among those who promote teamwork and collaborative learning (Agrell & Gustafson, 1996; Bennis & Biederman, 1997; Kayser, 1994; West, 2002).

Although work teams and collaborative learning have become popular fixtures in organizational and educational contexts, the research basis for the efficacy of work teams and collaborative learning is still somewhat weak (Paulus, 2000; Paulus & Paulus, 1997). In recent years, there has been increasing acknowledgment of the importance of social and contextual factors in creativity (Paulus, 2003). Amabile (1983, 1996) noted the role of a variety of social factors such as mentoring, modeling, family influences, and social rewards. Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby, & Herron (1996) developed a model of creativity that emphasized the central

role of intrinsic motivation and the impact of organizational contexts on this type of motivation. This paper will explore GC from a leadership and organizational learning perspective.

ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING CULTURE

A learning organization promotes continuous and effective learning in the organization, and enhances organizational capacity through the learning process (Senge, 1990). The learning organization has a culture that results in the enhancing of organizational abilities and the improvement of performance levels through effective management and the application of created knowledge (Song, 2008). Miguel, Franklin, and Popadiuk (2008) posited that organizational knowledge creation is based on organizational learning. In a learning organization, people are continually discovering how they create their reality, and how they can change it (Senge, 1990). Therefore, a learning organization proactively fashions its future, and therefore, the culture of a learning organization is conducive to creativity.

There are seven dimensions of a learning organization: continuous learning, inquiry and dialogue, team learning, empowerment, supportive or strategic leadership, embedded system, and system connection (Yang, Watkins, & Marsick, 2004; Song, 2008) Most of these are pertinent to TFL and/or GC. For example, the provision of continuous learning opportunities for employees reflects the IC component, and also provides a foundation upon which creativity can be built. Inquiry and dialogue support IS, and promote group discussion for exchanging ideas during the creative process. Team learning embraces the principle of cooperation and collaboration, which enables successful group efforts and creative outcomes. Empowerment reflects IM, in terms of the conceiving and articulating a collective vision It also envelops GC since it grants group members the needed autonomy and authority to pursue new ideas to fill the gap between the present and the future.

OLC enables an organization to anticipate and adapt to the dynamics of a changing environment (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). The authors explained that this culture emphasizes the open exchange of information and ideas in ways that facilitate learning and its creative application. Such a culture is vital in promoting GC. Leaders should adopt an approach that endorses group collaboration and team learning so that GC can be fostered.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

Dynamic Capabilities theory refers to an organization's ability to create, reshape, and assimilate knowledge, skills, and abilities to keep pace with and stay ahead of the competition in an ever-changing milieu, which requires swift, if not immediate reaction, as well as innovation. The theoretical framework was developed by Teece, Pisano, and Shuen (1997), who advocated this approach as especially relevant in a world of innovation-based competition. There are three categories of dynamic capabilities: processes, positions, and paths (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997): organizational processes shaped by the assets that the organization possesses (positions), and molded by the evolutionary paths available to the organization.

Since the dynamic capabilities framework highlights the creation and development of competencies, it is pertinent to organizational learning and the formation and maintenance of an

organizational culture that encourages learning. Processes, the first dynamic capabilities category, refer to the way things are done in the firm, or what might be referred to as its routines, or patterns of current practice and learning (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997). The dynamic capabilities approach is concerned with a firm's capabilities that allow it to create new knowledge and to disseminate it throughout the organization in an attempt to isolate those internal factors that facilitate organizational learning (Boerner, Macher, & Teece, 2001).

Dodgson (1993) explained that learning is a dynamic concept, and its use in theory emphasizes the continually changing nature of organizations. Therefore, it is crucial to discuss when the interest lies in individual, group and organizational transformation. Dodgson (1993) also affirmed that learning is an integrative concept that can unify various levels of analysis, including the individual, group, and corporate levels.

Applicable to the level of analysis debate, the dynamic capabilities framework also embraces group creativity. Positions, the second dynamic capabilities category, refer to the organization's specific asset endowments (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997). These include intellectual property, which is a reflection of creative minds. Paths, the third dynamic capabilities category, refer to the strategic alternatives available to the firm (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997). Creative groups would be better able to discern and utilize these alternatives to gain competitive advantage. Interestingly, learning, or the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and abilities, which is an aspect of the processes category, would enable the development of asset positions as well as increase the ability to gauge available paths, and thus play a role in the advancement of creativity.

The dynamic capabilities approach also encompasses leadership. An appropriate culture and leadership context can be included among the crucial elements of a management system to comprise a major innovation dynamic capability (O'Connor, 2008). Although the author focuses more on leadership that emphasizes communication between leaders in major innovation departments and senior corporate leadership, mention is made of the provision of mentoring, coaching, and apprenticeship opportunities, so that the less experienced employees may develop new capabilities. This adheres to the concept of the mutual engagement of leaders and subordinates that is present in TFL, and thus, one can deduce that TFL would be useful in a major innovation environment by helping facilitate the development of new capabilities.

The central tenet of dynamic capability theory is that firms can evolve processes that enable them to develop, change, and rejuvenate themselves (O'Connor, 2008). Therefore, the approach is a transformational concept. According to Teece, Pisano, and Shuen (1997), a key step in building a conceptual framework related to dynamic capabilities is to identify the foundations upon which distinctive and difficult-to-replicate advantages can be built, maintained, and enhanced. We contend that TFL, OLC, and GC are building blocks in the development of dynamic capabilities that enable the organization to reconfigure itself for maximum competitive advantage.

PROPOSITION DEVELOPMENT

Interest in stimulating group creativity has grown as innovation, creativity, learning, and team development have become important ingredients for competition (Woodman, Sawyer &

Griffin, 1993). This phenomenon calls for exploration of the antecedents of group creativity. Research has shown that TFL (Sosik, Avolio, & Kahai, 1998) and organizational learning (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005) play a role in the facilitation of creativity in the workplace.

Idealized Influence

Transformational leaders kindle a sense of enthusiasm as followers identify with the designated purpose, as well as the leader, who reflects the ideal through example. Trust is built and the followers strive to emulate the leader, who also works toward achieving the common goals. Waldman and Bass (1991) stated that a person prone to showing TFL might feel freer to be proactive in an organic organization. It is reasonable to propose that since the emulation of transformational leaders is not uncommon, followers may also adopt a more proactive approach as they attempt to fulfill their responsibilities. This should lead to a willingness to take initiative and try new ways to get the job done, thus promoting creativity. Jung (2000) also stated that through subordinates' strong identification with a transformational leader's goals, subordinates raise their own expectations to accomplish difficult goals and direct additional energy toward the generation of creative solutions.

In terms of OLC, TFL, and GC, Gephart, Marsick, Van Buren, and Spiro (1996) stated that in learning organizations, leaders provide critical support to the learning and development of teams by modeling learning behavior, encouraging people to contribute new ideas, and ensuring the dissemination of knowledge and learning. Modeling embraces II, and encouraging new ideas as well as sharing knowledge promotes creativity. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that OLC would interact with II to impact GC. The following propositions reflect the associations put forward among II, OLC, and GC:

Proposition 1A *Idealized influence is positively related to group creativity.*

Proposition 1B *Organizational learning culture moderates the relationship between idealized influence and group creativity, such that the relationship is stronger for organizations that possess a strong learning culture than it is for organizations that possess a weak learning culture.*

Inspirational Motivation

Transformational leaders possess a vision, which they are able to effectively communicate to followers, as they enthruse them to strive to achieve. Waldman and Bass (1991) mentioned that inspirational motivation (referred to as inspirational leadership) involves getting followers to remain optimistic and persevere toward difficult goals even in the face of setbacks and disappointments. This paper proposes that the encouragement of such resolve, despite hindrances, would promote creativity since its pursuit often includes obstructions, and because new implementations are not always successful on the first attempt. Elkins and Keller (2003)

agreed that the inspirational motivation of providing a common vision for projects enables team members from different disciplines to work together to bring a technological innovation to fruition. Jung (2000) asserted that subordinates would take extra effort to generate creative solutions for their problems due to the heightened level of intrinsic motivation caused by the transformational leader's articulation of long-term goals and visions.

OLC may also interact with IM to affect GC. In a study conducted by Joo and Lim (2009), it was found that OLC influenced intrinsic motivation through perceived job complexity, and that intrinsic motivation influenced creativity. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that when a learning organization helps to develop an intrinsically motivated group, and the latter has an inspirational motivator as a leader, group creativity will increase. The following propositions lay out relationships among IM, OLC, and GC:

Proposition 2A *Inspirational motivation is positively related to group creativity.*

Proposition 2B *Organizational learning culture moderates the relationship between inspirational motivation and group creativity, such that the relationship is stronger for organizations that possess a strong learning culture than it is for organizations that possess a weak learning culture.*

Intellectual Stimulation

Transformational leaders welcome and promote new or different ideas, perspectives or viewpoints, and thus followers are encouraged to think unconventionally when searching for answers to questions or solutions to problems. Risk-taking is not frowned upon but encouraged, and leaders approve of followers challenging the status quo. These behaviors are helpful vis-à-vis creativity enhancement. Gumusluoglu and Ilsev (2009) stated that the challenge from a leader's IS is likely to energize the employees to explore and be more attracted to different dimensions of their tasks. This intensified interest in disparate or novel aspects is likely to engender increased creativity. Waldman and Bass' (1991) model of leadership and the innovation process conceded that TFL behaviors are crucial at the beginning to build a vision and spark intellectual activity. Elkins and Keller (2003) added that the use of IS encourages team members from disparate disciplines to look at problems from new vantage points that can enhance innovation. Sosik, Avolio, and Kahai (1998) asserted that IS is likely to promote GC by enhancing generative and exploratory thinking.

Research also integrates OLC into the creativity discussion in a way that allows for the inclusion of IS. For example, Bates and Khasawneh (2005) explained that OLC can be seen as a critical facilitator of creativity and innovation because it supports inquiry, risk-taking, and experimentation. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest an interaction between IS and OLC that influences GC. The following propositions convey the links proffered among IS, OLC, and GC:

Proposition 3A Intellectual stimulation is positively related to group creativity.

Proposition 3B Organizational learning culture moderates the relationship between intellectual stimulation and group creativity, such that the relationship is stronger for organizations that possess a strong learning culture than it is for organizations that possess a weak learning culture.

Individualized Consideration

Transformational leaders are supportive and attentive. They listen to their followers' concerns and care about their needs. These qualities foster the development of an affective relationship or bond between leaders and their followers. Gumusluoglu and Ilsev (2009) mentioned emotional attachment, and stated that employees are more likely to respond to a leader's challenge and support for innovation by exhibiting creativity in their tasks because of their emotional ties with the leader.

Learning is also pertinent to individualized consideration, which plays a role in the expression of creativity. Waldman and Bass (1991) mentioned that IC is the extent to which the leader treats followers as individuals, shows concern for their unique problems and approaches to work, and provides developmental opportunities. This paper suggests that the provision of developmental opportunities facilitates learning and allows for expanding a knowledge base that can be used in the creative process. A culture that encourages the procurement and circulation of information, and the shared use of learning helps boost GC. Therefore, if an organizational culture that endorses learning is present, it would complement the efforts of the transformational leader who is considerate to provide learning opportunities for his/her followers, and help boost the creativity of employees. The following propositions reflect the associations put forward among IC, OLC, and GC:

Proposition 4A Individualized consideration is positively related to group creativity.

Proposition 4B Organizational learning culture moderates the relationship between individualized consideration and group creativity, such that the relationship is stronger for organizations that possess a strong learning culture than it is for organizations that possess a weak learning culture.

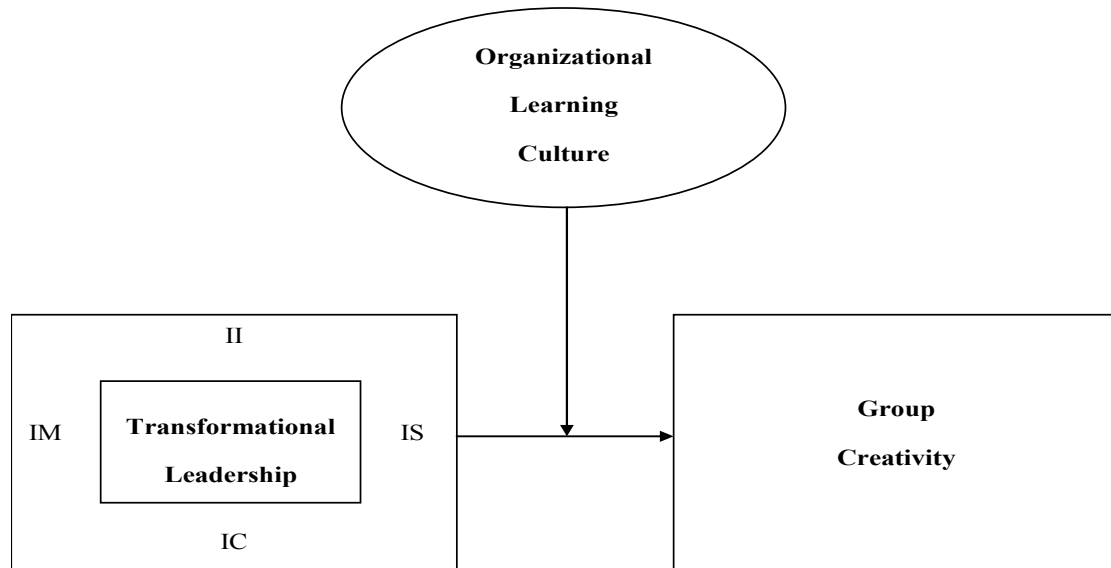
Figure 1 provides a conceptual representation of the constructs under investigation, as well as the proposed relationships linking them. The model demonstrates the influence of transformational leadership, comprised of its components, idealized influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC), on group

creativity, and the moderating effect of organizational learning culture on the primary relationship.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This paper discusses how TFL and OLC potentially facilitate GC, thus increasing the dynamic capabilities of organizations as they compete in a continually changing environment. Waldman and Bass (1991) posit that culture may play a leading role in determining the types of leader behavior which emerge in well-established organizations, and that some TFL behaviors may be a product of cultures conducive to such behaviors. The authors state that the environment may encourage or inhibit cooperation regarding innovation. OLC may be one of the fundamental contextual components to enhance GC. This culture enables an organization to be skilled at creating, acquiring, and transferring knowledge, and modifying its behavior to reflect new knowledge and insights (Garvin, 1993). A transformational leadership style may be the key to promote such a culture, maximizing GC, and, in the long run, organizational transformation.

Figure 1: Conceptual Model



IMPLICATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE INQUIRY

To build on the existing research, two main issues could be addressed. First, the literature reveals that creativity and innovation are clearly related. Some authors use the terms interchangeably. These constructs are distinct and different, however, and should be treated that way. Future research should focus on the discovery, provision, and clarification of distinctive factors concerning both constructs, as well as empirically tested links between them. For example, organizational learning and creativity seem to embrace similar practices, and to be affected by identical dynamics such as leadership styles and behaviors, organizational culture, and organizational climate. Related aspects that could be studied include other variables that may influence the relationship between creativity and innovation.

Another line of investigation could be to study the relative importance of various dimensions of a learning organization in cultivating group creativity. From a practical point of view, organizational leaders could use the results obtained from such studies to further transform their organizations, by focusing on those aspects that could significantly increase group creativity.

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