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Connie Rae Bateman

Editor

University of North Dakota

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LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

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ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON COMMUNITY HEALTH OUTCOMES AFTER THE 2009 H1N1 PANDEMIC

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Prospective surveys of 84 organizations from public safety, public health, medical, and government support were conducted from 2003 through 2011 to evaluate organizational culture's effect on hospitalized influenza cases during the season following the 2009-2010 campaign.

Methods: The study design was a prospective survey and linked health outcomes study of organizations and their service areas. The sampling method was a two stage methodology with the first stage comprised of a judgment sampling of emergency exercises and the second stage comprised of a voluntary simple random sample of all participating organizations.

Results: Regression modeling of organizational culture explained 16.7% (p=.006) of the variance of the 2010-2011 influenza rates. When communications were unstructured rather than inside the chain of command, hospitalizations increased significantly by 2.5 hospitalizations per 100,000 persons (p=.001). Medical organizations with less reward-punishment cultures were more successful; while successful public health organizations provided direct supervision and clear objectives for subordinates.

Discussion: Extrapolation of the etiologic fraction of U.S. influenza hospitalizations due to the organizational cultural aspect of unstructured communication was 7,500 hospitalizations costing 45 million dollars. Modifications should be made of hospital based reward and punishment systems to lessen the association to disease incidence. Public health leaders should strengthen systems to provide oversight, control, and managerial capacity to create clear objectives while continuing informatics modernization. Processes to enhance structured communication within the chain of command should be developed. Optimization of public health organizational culture by modifying agency structures and leadership capacities has the benefit of affecting multiple programs.

INTRODUCTION

Public health preparedness and response has been nominated as one of the ten great public health achievements of the first decade of the 21st century (CDC, 2011b). The 2009-2010

U.S. public health vaccination campaign has been presented in support of the nomination due to the 10,400 hospitalizations and 520 deaths that were averted by the campaign (CDC, 2011b; CDC, 2011c; Ohio Department of Health; 2011).

Four years after September 11, 2001, bioterrorism preparedness remained a high priority (Katz, Staiti, & McKenzie, 2006). From 2001 through 2005 the focus was on improving public health capacity and the second half of the decade focused on laboratory, epidemiology, surveillance, mass vaccination, prophylaxis, treatment distribution and administrative capabilities of the public health system (CDC, 2011b; Brannen & Stanley, 2004). Through flexible federal funding of bioterrorism preparedness, communities strengthened their ability to respond to public health emergencies (Cohen, Gould, & Sidel, 2004; Katz et al, 2006). Collaborative relationships developed for bioterrorism preparedness proved useful in addressing other threats, such as natural disasters and infectious disease outbreaks. However, ongoing challenges including funding constraints, inadequate surge capacity, and public health workforce shortages still persist.

Bioterrorism preparedness funding, crisis experience, and leadership have been noted as the most important determinants of local public health agencies' preparedness activities.[7] The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) has played a mediating role by building capacity through funding key organizational leadership positions (Avery & Zabriskie-Timmerman, 2009; Katz et al, 2006). Public health has a defined leadership role at the local level in health and medical emergency support functions (CDC, 2011a; U.S. Department of Homeland Security, 2011). The key to effective public health leadership goes beyond managing within the organization. It must also invite shaping the organization's culture towards a health service of sustainability and change (Gray, 2009). Organizational performance varies with aspects of organizational culture and mixes of culture types (Reay, 2010; Singer et al, 2009). Public health related organizations can be guided through a successful cultural transition to enhance client safety, organizational adaptability, performance, and efficiency through the advocacy of their leadership (Singer et al, 2009; Stone, Bryant, & Barbarotta, 2009; Griffith, Yonas, Mason, & Havens 2010; Meagher-Stewart et al, 2010; Reay, 2010; Summerill, Pollard, & Smith, 2010;).

Given that organizational culture can be changed, the initial question should be: What cultural aspects are crucial to success during a public health emergency? To capture the essence of organizational performance; the focus should be on assessment of community level measures, establishment of targets, and utilization of available data to indicate areas directly linked to actions within the community where opportunities exist to improve the population's health (Gunasekaran, Patel, & Mcgaughey, 2004; Braz, Scavarda, & Martins, 2011; Erwin, Greene, Mays, Ricketts, & Davis, 2011). The 2009 H1N1 vaccination campaign presents an opportunity to explore the association of organizational culture aspects' to the health outcomes of the 2009 H1N1 post pandemic effect.

METHODS

The study design was a prospective and linked health outcomes study of organizations and their service areas as the unit of analysis. The sampling method was a two stage methodology with the first stage comprised of a judgment sampling of emergency exercises with the second stage comprised of a voluntary simple random sample of all participating organizations. All influenza related hospitalizations were enumerated during the 2010-2011 flu season. Culture in this study refers to the organization's members' fundamental ideology and orientation including the beliefs and values shared by all members. Thus, culture is reflected in the day to day operations of the organization (Gray, 2009; Singer et al, 2009). A questionnaire was provided to evaluators and participants for selected functional and full scale exercises in West Central Ohio occurring from 2003 to 2011. The Organizational Culture Questionnaire (OCQ) uses 14 items to ask about 10 aspects of organizational culture based upon published definitions (Robbins, 1994). The questionnaire measures perceptions of individual initiative (responsibility, freedom), risk tolerance (assertive, innovative, risk), direction (objectives, performance), integrated (coordinated), support, control (oversight), identity, reward, conflict addressed, and open communication. The 'no, maybe, yes, not relevant, unknown' responses were numerically coded to 0, 0.5, 1, and not relevant and unknown were set to missing. The OCQ reliability was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha. For the reliability analysis responses were standardized with no responses set to zero; and positive responses set to 1. The inter class reliability was tested by transposing the 14 items by rater. The reliability of each rater within the event type (chemical or biological terrorism) and organizational type (government support, law enforcement, medical, public health, public safety) was then tested using a two way mixed rather than random model as only persons specialized in the rated organization's respective field were asked to be raters. The supposition is that the raters will have similar patterns of scores so the responses were checked for consistency rather than absolute agreement.

The exercise events were conducted as part of the jurisdictions' preparedness efforts either under the CDC's Bioterrorism Cooperative Agreement, the Department of Justice Metropolitan Medical Response System, or later, under the Department of Homeland Security. This research was conducted by the Greene County Combined Health District in partnership with a variety of local multi-agency and multijurisdictional response entities. The exercise events' scenario included anthrax, chemical terrorism, regional bioterrorism, or smallpox. The OCQ was a small part of the overall objectives of the exercises and was administered after the exercise either during the post exercise debriefs or later online for those unable to attend debriefs. Five cases were dropped from the pool of eligible organizations due to missing data. The final total dataset was 158 participants representing 84 organizations. Organizations were chosen to participate based on their expected roles during a public health emergency.

Statistical methods included independent t tests, linear regression, factor analysis, and multidimensional scaling. The analysis of the organizations' cultural characteristics affecting the

outcome to the 2009 H1N1 pandemic was conducted using linear regression. Based upon the expected duration of efficacy of the vaccine to extend to at least the next flu season and that the vaccine component included the circulating strains within the study area, it was assumed that a communities' effectiveness during the 2009 H1N1 campaign can be measured by the amount of hospitalized influenza cases during the following flu season within the community (see Figure 1: Organizational subtypes and health outcomes).

Figure 1: Organization type and health outcomes.
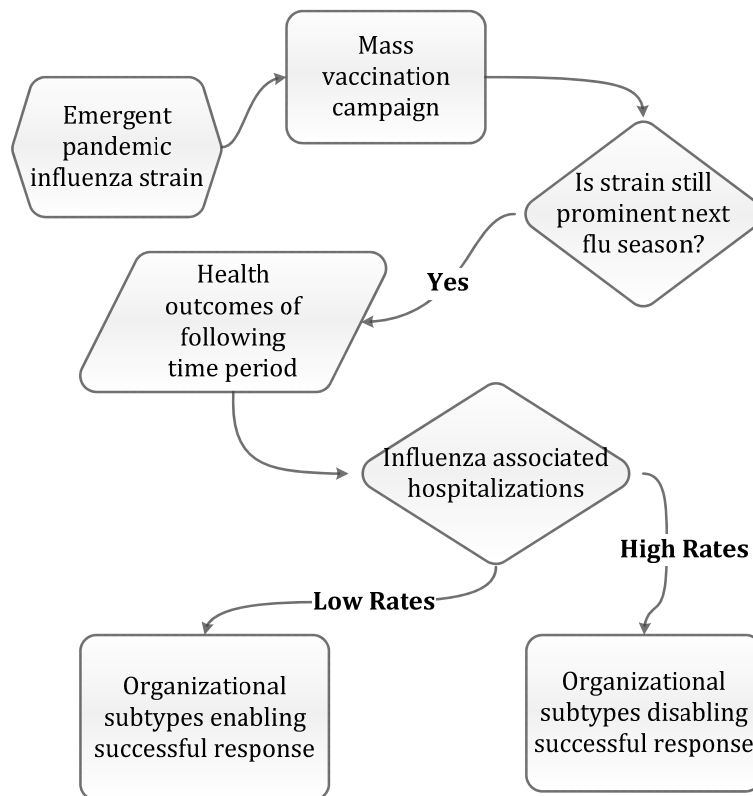
Prior to conducting modeling, the predictor variables measuring cultural aspects were checked for intercorrelations using multicollinearity diagnostics. Factor Analysis was used to determine which variables to drop from analysis. The list of survey questions are shown in Table 1. After the intercorrelated variables were dropped, the remaining variables with the greatest p value were dropped without reintroduction in a stepwise manner until the regression model was either a single predictor or reached significance using alpha of .05. The cultural aspects were limited to those that were not intercorrelated. The Eigen values which could indicate a possible concern with intercorrelations was reduced considerably before proceeding with the final model by dropping out variables that were explained adequately by other variables within the model.

The tolerance values for the last model were more than adequate with 14 to 66%. Factor analysis revealed clear demarcations with no interlacing of correlations between components between the remaining variables.

Missing variables were handled in a list-wise manner. The dependent variable was the influenza hospitalization rate per 10 million adjusted by local population density during the 2010 to 2011 influenza season. Population density was defined as the number of persons per square mile. The population density divisor provided for greater normality of the dependent variable. Multidimensional scaling is typically used to associate demographic profiles to various brands or products. Using the remaining variables from the final regression model, we conducted two such multidimensional scaling's. For multidimensional scaling, a 50% natural break in the data distribution presented an opportunity to code values <= 5.39 as 0 and 5.40 or greater as 1. This value can be converted to a case rate per 100,000 by multiplying it by a selected area's population density and dividing by 100. For example conversion of a rate of 5.0 approximates 4.37 hospitalizations per 100,000 persons, using a U.S. population density of 87.4 per square mile. A novel approach to multidimensional scaling was used. Two scatterplots were produced for the each of the organizational types' effectiveness. The two scatterplots were overlaid with each variable having two dots; a red or white dot representing a higher or lower number of hospitalized cases. Since Euclidean distance was mapped with multidimensional scaling and the responses were unidimensional for all variables (all valid responses were either 0 for no or 1 for yes); the responses were interpreted by examining which variables had an axis going between the lower left negative quadrant and the positive or upper right quadrant. These variables were defined 'a priori' as cultural aspects that should be of interest for policy recommendations as they potentially show opportunities for the greatest improvement in organizational performance. The recommendations should be directional moving away from the red dot or higher flu cases towards the white dot. The results are presented standardized to a U.S. population density. The goal of the study was the effect on organizational culture on the effectiveness of communities' response to public health outbreaks and other emergencies specifically the 2009 H1N1 pandemic.

H_1 *Exposure to aspects of prospectively measured organizational culture will affect the performance of organizations during the 2009 H1N1 pandemic as indicated by higher rates of influenza hospitalizations in the respective communities in the season following the societal response to the pandemic.*

H_2 *Modeling of the independent measures of organizational culture will indicate a significant conditional probability of the cases in the influenza season following the pandemic that can be attributable to the organization's culture.*

H_3 *The organization's effectiveness can be distinguished by a characteristic pattern of organizational cultural characteristics.*

RESULTS

The lower bound for the true reliability of the survey as measured by Cronbach's alpha was .929. The dependent variable was derived from total influenza case counts per community from August 1, 2010 through August 1, 2011 for the study area. The number of valid organizations was 158 with an average rate of 4.89 and a range from 1.83 to 13.63 hospitalized influenza rates per 100,000 persons.

When organization's individuals identified with their professional fields their service area had higher hospitalizations 5.68 per 100,000 versus 4.46 (p 0.46). When communications were restricted to the chain of command, pandemic performance was better 5.24 vs. 6.56 (p 0.16). The risk of high influenza rates was .50 (95% confidence interval .38 to .61) versus .218 (95% CI .14 to .32) for organizations with structured communications. The risk ratio was 2.2 (95% CI 1.4 to 3.73).

When non-correlated organizational cultural aspects were modeled to the pandemic performance measure using linear regression the model explained over 16.7% of the variance of the 2010-2011 hospitalized influenza rates controlled for population density. Table 2 shows when communications are within the chain of command hospitalizations due to influenza was decreased by 2.5 cases per 100,000 (p.001). Multidimensional scaling showed that communities with medical organizations with a strong reward and punishment system had higher influenza hospitalizations (Figure 2). Figure 3 shows that communities with public health organizations with less managerial oversight and clear objectives had higher rates of influenza.

Table 1. Comparison of the 2010-2011 Rate of Hospitalized Influenza Cases by Response Organizations' Cultural Characteristics.					
Aspects of Organizational Culture	Response[1]*	Flu Rate ‡			Significance†
		Mean	Standard Deviation	Count	Median Test
What level of responsibility did the individual(s) take in responding to the events?	No	5.45	2.12	23	0.596
	Yes	5.54	2.99	102	
How much freedom did individual(s) display in responding to the incident?	No	5.38	2.34	65	0.068
	Yes	5.66	3.16	83	
Did managers provide clear performance expectations to subordinates?	No	5.97	3.40	43	0.360
	Yes	5.41	2.74	73	
Did managers provide clear communication, assistance and support to their subordinates?	No	5.64	3.09	19	0.235
	Yes	5.49	2.89	88	
Did managers create clear objectives for subordinates?	No	6.18	3.70	46	0.748
	Yes	5.14	2.29	77	
Did the organization provide rules/regulations and direct supervision to oversee and control employee behavior?	No	6.01	3.20	19	0.094
	Yes	5.62	3.22	84	
Did the members of this organization seem to identify within their functional area, workgroup, or professional field?	No	4.46	1.57	11	0.046
	Yes	5.72	3.09	109	
Did individuals assertively respond to the incident?	No	5.19	1.92	32	0.188
	Yes	5.47	2.95	98	

Table 1. Comparison of the 2010-2011 Rate of Hospitalized Influenza Cases by Response Organizations' Cultural Characteristics.					
Aspects of Organizational Culture	Response[1]*	Flu Rate ‡			Significance†
		Mean	Standard Deviation	Count	Median Test
Did the individuals act innovatively in responding to the incident?	No	5.46	2.23	42	0.142
	Yes	5.45	3.06	89	
Did the individuals readily incur 'acceptable risks' to accomplish the mission?	No	6.27	3.36	40	0.728
	Yes	5.26	2.64	89	
Did the organization's sub-units operate in a coordinated manner?	No	6.50	3.78	20	0.134
	Yes	5.53	2.96	88	
Was there a reward or punishment system used?	No	6.02	3.57	73	0.050
	Yes	4.82	0.85	21	
How were conflicts and criticisms addressed?	No	5.20	1.21	6	0.328
	Yes	5.32	2.74	102	
Were communications open (versus restricted to the chain of command)?	No	5.20	2.46	68	0.0160
	Yes	6.54	3.96	42	

*Responses were dichotomized with yes set to 1, maybe and no set to 0.

‡ Flu rate = hospitalizations per 100,000 persons using a U.S. population density of 87.4 per square mile. Statistical analysis was on the local community rate. Conversion of 5.0 hospitalizations per 100,000 persons approximates the local community rate multiplied by 100 controlled for population density of 4.37.

†Compares whether the median is the same across subcategories of organizational culture.

Table 2: Organizational Cultural Aspects on the 2010-2011 Rate of Hospitalized Influenza.						
Model*	**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**Standardized Coefficients Beta**	**Sig.**	**95.0% Confidence Interval for B**	
	B	**Std. Error**			**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
(Constant)	6.963	1.097		.000	4.779	9.148
How much freedom did individual(s) display in responding to the incident?	-.770	1.736	-.054	.659	-4.225	2.685
Did managers create clear objectives for subordinates?	-1.421	1.201	-.141	.240	-3.813	.970
Was there a reward or punishment system used?	-.755	.987	-.084	.446	-2.720	1.209
Were communications open (versus restricted to the chain of command)?	2.862†	.869	.357	.001	1.131	4.592

* The goodness of fit was 16.7% with the conditional probability (the p value) of .006. The influenza hospitalization rate was used as the dependent variable.

† Conversion of this coefficient approximates 2.5 hospitalizations per 100,000 persons, using a U.S. population density of 87.4 per square mile.

Figure 2: Scatterplot of Euclidean Distances of Medical Organizations'
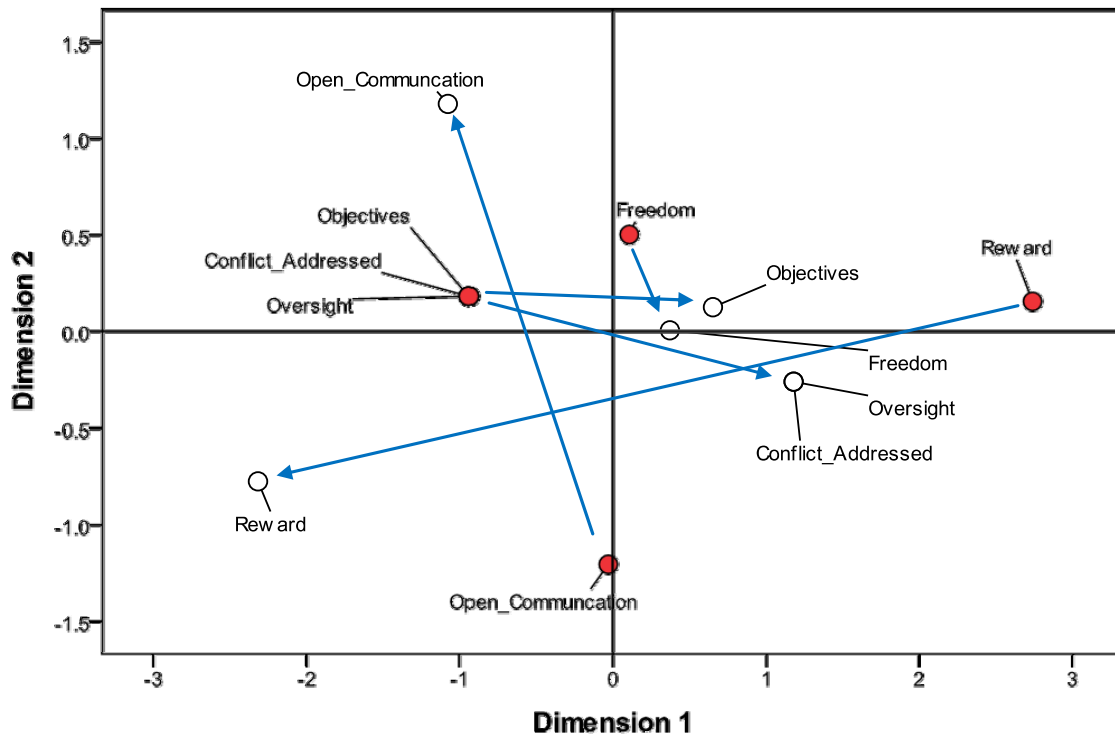
* Cultural Aspects Associated a Good (white dot)† or Poor (red dot)‡ Response to the 2009 H1N1 Pandemic. Notes: * Medical Organizations' (n=24). Medical Organizations include hospital association, hospital, and coroner. Cultural aspects were measured during 2003 to 2011 during Anthrax, Chemical Terrorism, Smallpox, and other public health emergency exercises. †White dot indicates a low rate of hospitalization: < 5.4 influenza hospitalizations per 10,000,000 per population density. ‡Red dot indicates a high rate of hospitalizations from influenza >=5.4 per 10,000,000 per population density.

Figure 3: Scatterplot of Euclidean Distances of Public Health Organizations'
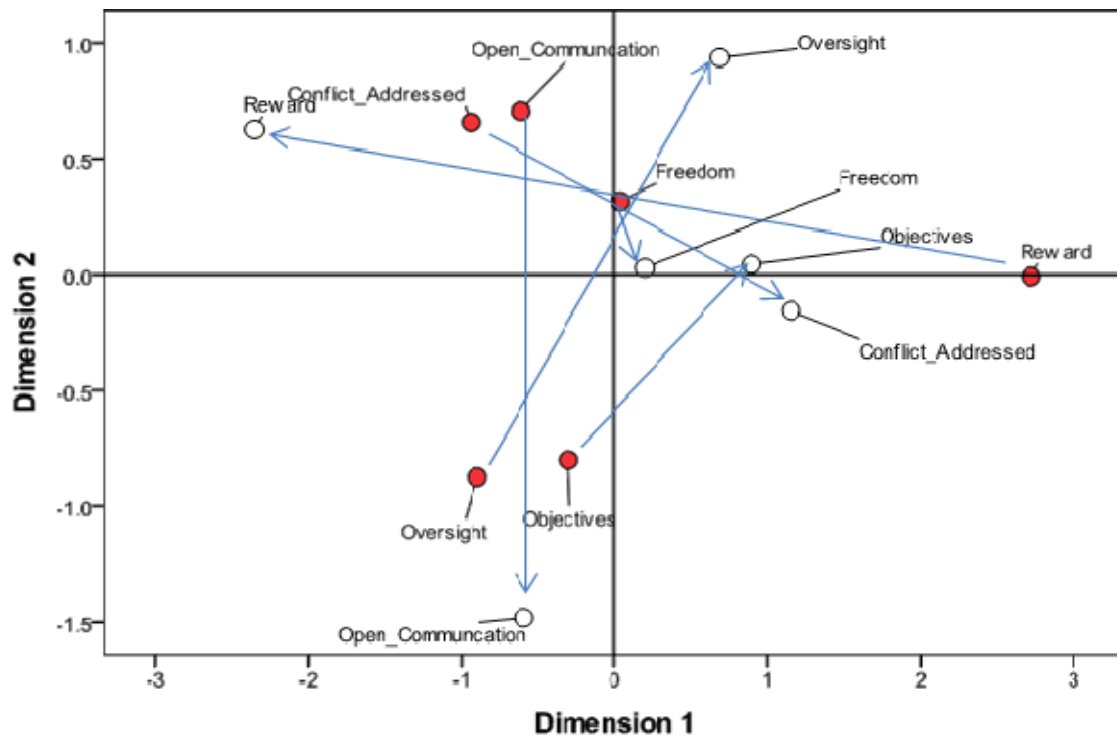
Cultural Aspects Associated a Good (white dot) or Poor (red dot) Response to the 2009 H1N1 Pandemic. Notes: * Public Health Organizations' (n=29). Public Health Organizations included county and city local public health agencies. Cultural aspects were measured during 2003 to 2011 during Anthrax, Chemical Terrorism, Smallpox, and other public health emergency exercises. †White dot indicates a low rate of hospitalization: < 5.4 influenza hospitalizations per 10,000,000 per population density. ‡Red dot indicates a high rate of hospitalizations from influenza >=5.4 per 10,000,000 per population density.

DISCUSSION

Culture

Approaches for implementing organizational culture change need to be flexible (Reay, 2010; Griffith, Yonas, Mason, & Havens, 2010). Collaborative approaches need cross organizational group level training based on basic principles, reciprocal feedback mechanisms, a mix of culture types from open, group type cultures to strict hierarchical cultural constructs, and

the use of multidisciplinary teams to ensure success (Singer, 2009; Griffith, Yonas, Mason, & Havens, 2010; Reay, 2010). Organizational attributes are analogous to subcultural characteristics and when these attributes are coalesced into subsets become equivalent to various cultural types. The results of this research suggest that local public health agencies have to balance openness in external communication with an internal communication modality that requires a strict hierarchical chain of command. The public health leaders who have the best handle on real time information can respond more quickly. This finding is consistent with how leaders comprehend and synthesize information rather than limiting appropriate communication between operational field units.

Federal Funding

The benefits of aligning organizational culture should be synergistic with federal funding. Federal funding of bioterrorism preparedness has strengthened communities' ability to respond to other public health emergencies but efforts need to be continued to improve public health performance in the face of funding constraints (Cohen, Gould, Sidel, 2004; Katz et al, 2006). Inter-organizational collaborations and organizational leadership within public health were strengthened as a result of federal funding of bioterrorism preparedness (Katz et al, 2006; Avery et al, 2009). Another example of success is the reduced rates of infectious disease and chronic disease directly linked to federal funding of local public health agencies (Erwin, Greene, Mays, Ricketts, & Davis 2011).

Accreditation

Accreditation has been proposed to improve the performance of local public health agencies but is lacking financial support (Davis, Cannon, Corso, Lenaway, & Baker, 2009). In addition to limited funding, others barriers to accreditation included staff time and tight scheduling David, Cannon, Stone, Wood, Reed, & Baker, 2011). There are currently four major paradigms in play in the United States for public health performance, including CDC's Ten Essential Services of Public Health; the Public Health Accreditation Board; the Public Health Preparedness Capabilities, National Public Health Performance Standards, March 2011; and the National Association of County and City Health Officials Project Public Health Ready. The domains of public health accreditation pertain to the ten Essential Public Health Services as well as management, administration, and governance (Public Health Accreditation Board, 2011). How does accreditation and cultural change fit into core public health functions and performance during a public health emergency? The process of accreditation has been shown to promote quality across organizations (Greenfield, Pawsey, & Braithwaite, 2011). In essence; accreditation could provide a method for public health leaders to guide their organizations through a cultural transition consistent with a successful response.

There is a taxonomy for public health accreditation measures that coincide with the ten essential services of public health (Public Health Accreditation Board, 2011). Our study did not focus on matching the cultural aspects of the organizations to the public health performance measures because we believe the initial focus must be on determination of the association of the cultural aspects to the actual performance of the communities in a public health emergency. Future steps include: Overlaying the public health performance measures on to the cultural structure of the public health organization; public health leaders determining their organization's cultural aspects; and understanding the steps to implementing cultural change if it is needed. A useful tool in this regard would be the Public Health Accreditation Board's accreditation process including the use of the Standards and Measures Documentation Selection Spreadsheet. The context of organizational involvement in the larger community response suggests a need for taxonomy of change in a terrorist event. We did this largely by controlling for the type of terrorism event: whether it was smallpox, anthrax, pandemic influenza; or chemical terrorism using the construct that the best available information to estimate the cultural type of the organizations involved was the exercised multiagency events that the organizations themselves participated in. Much of the work done by emergency managers and planners already use their own taxonomies of emergency events including four series of management phases including mitigation of hazards, preparation for emergencies, response, and recovery.

Limitations and Strengths

Limitations of this study include that interim factors could have affected influenza hospitalization rates, such as: pharmaceuticals introduced during and after the initial emergence of the pandemic strain; differential early onset prescription rates between communities; the reduction in the variable set to multicollinearity, and racial and socioeconomic differences affecting access to care.

The multicollinearity limitation was handled using factor analysis to appropriately reduce the data set. The issue of multicollinearity suggests that future researchers should consider the factors excluded from the final model due to multicollinearity in order to develop a composite score of the intercorrelated variables among the organization's fourteen cultural aspects measured to take full advantage of various structures within each of the cultural aspects. Within the study area there was no overt shortage of availability of pharmaceuticals. Indeed, the state health department's cache of antivirals was made available to local health department's to supplant potential shortages and under insured individuals. While there are racial and socioeconomic differences within the area

The strengths of the study included finding a coherent effect size of organizational culture and the inherent logic of the multidimensional scaling results. For example, an effect size of 2.5 hospitalizations per 100,000 is not very significant for a small county but certainly is for federal, state, and metropolitan level planners. Sometimes it is more efficient and less costly to

do a system level fix than change individual unit behavior. While the modernization of public health has exploded over the past decade, this study suggests that communications within the command structure need strengthened. This in retrospect seems obvious but public health leaders need to emphasize that the modernization process has only begun.

Another strength is the frame of the analysis closely matches both how funding is distributed for public health infrastructure preparedness and the proven effects that funding has on preparedness levels (Erwin, Greene, Mays, Ricketts, & Davis, 2011). The scope of organizational performance is consistent with national efforts to provide accreditation to local public health agencies (Public Health Accreditation Board, 2011).

Several issues are more important to a successful public health response than improvements in organizational culture. For example the fact that national public health leaders established high level collaborations during the SARS outbreak lead to an earlier national emphasis on developing a vaccine for the novel virus recognized in January of 2009 in San Diego (Tam, Redd, Lopez-Gatell, & Stevermer, 2010). A second issue of importance is surveillance to provide early recognition of events and along with reporting investigations is integral to the public health role in emergencies (Yund et al, 2004; Schneider et al, 2010). These issues do not undermine the validity of these results, but made them possible. Without this unique event where vaccine and antivirals were available so early in the course of an emerging pandemic this study would not have been possible.

The use of the term health outcomes study pertains to the concept of the validity of the results. There are three major areas concerning validity within this study. The first is the health outcome itself. Many influenza cases go unrecognized. However, the outcome chosen in this study was influenza related hospitalization in order to avoid the issue of missed cases. It is necessary to point out that any hospitalization and pediatric mortality due to influenza is a reportable disease and provided an otherwise near perfect population based registry for the health outcome. Is there a difference in missed cases versus hospitalized cases? Yes of course. Those with pre-existing immunity may have a milder form of the illness or even be infectious but not present with clinical disease requiring hospitalized treatment. Even those with more virulent disease could have been treated on an outpatient basis. However, all these issues of a mild case versus hospitalized case are somewhat irrelevant because they persist generally at equal measure within various service areas of the organizations. In other words the differences balance themselves out on average.

The second major issue of validity is the survey of organizational culture. Is asking a person immersed in the culture during a bioterrorism exercise made to simulate a real event able to attest to the reality of the organization's functions and tasks during an actual event? We can measure the response of organizational culture during an actual event but I bet that we will have more important tasks to attend to. The simulated public health emergency is the next best thing. It is made to order to evaluate the organization's response, by the experts either within the agency itself or by specialists. Should we ask the person before or after the event or exercise?

Psychologists seem to state the best time is to ask them during the event as persons as the actual players may foretell the events incorrectly or remember them poorly later (Gilbert, 2007). Even better would be to ask about the event during the actual event but randomly jitter when the measurement would take place within the event given that continuous monitoring is not possible within the foreseeable future. By asking about standard subcomponents that help paint a picture of organizational culture without making assumptions of which components equaled what culture, rather than invalidating the study point the way for further study into the cultural fingerprints of various organizations that would suggest direction for managerial attention. If we redid the survey the questions would be pared down to reduce duplication and to increase survey completion rates. We would also propose hypotheses on organization subtypes to test those archetypes as the multidimensional scaling suggests. While we are not making an ecological fallacy with our conclusions, many might. This fallacy occurs when some might take the results and suggest that a particular individual rather than an organization might be associated with a health outcome. We also increased the power of our generalizations by limiting them to public health or medical organizations. The validity of our conclusions is within the scope of our assessments of organizational culture.

The third major issue of validity is the research construct. The assumption that the prior flu season's public health and medical performance can be measured by the next season's influenza hospitalization rate is contingent on the stability of the circulating strains of influenza. The strain remained the same. The mathematical proof of our assumption can be tested using the same method used to determine the effectiveness of the vaccine and antiviral treatment (CDC, 2011b; Ohio Department of Health, 2011).

The concept of culture can be reduced to irrefutable states. For example culture is only definable by the perceptions of those defining it in relationship to other parameters. We can avoid incorrect ascertainment of culture by dividing culture into its components, which is what we did. An alternative to this method is to label states of culture and ask persons which label should be applied to their organization. However these different labels of organizational culture may be more subjective to each person as the labels may have different meanings to each person dependent upon their own cultural milieu. This would lead to confounding. We already know that the different components, after correcting for intercorrelations, provide us with various fingerprints along the standardized Euclidian scale. In our methodology we suggested what the different cultural states are by using multidimensional scaling to compare the different cultural fingerprints, thus providing a measure of internal validity.

Since culture is presumed to be persistent, during an emergency the organization's true cultural fingerprint will become clearer as it emerges through the stresses of a bioterrorism or other public health emergency event. Based on the assumption that the true culture will emerge during times of true crisis and hardship, the ability of the organization is at least partially based on the cultural state that emerges during an event. That is why we measured the components of cultures during exercises rather than during normal operations.

The different components allowed us to use multidimensional scaling to validate the cultural types or fingerprints. We may think of culture as a subjective state, but culture is reducible to its irrefutable components linked to an objective reference as derived from Robbins (1994). In order to make a more cognizant view of the cultural state of an organization, we used multidimensional scaling of objectively referenced values to determine the pattern of cultural types. Now that we know the cultural fingerprints of public health and medical organizations' the next step is to go forth and validate emergent organizational cultural types in a more robust way. For example, if one wanted to use these as a starting point we would suggest using the fingerprints for hypothesis development. Having different components allows us to use multidimensional scaling to define culture by the fingerprint not by a single label, allowing for a truer picture of the actual perceptions of the independent components that make up culture. People can define the subcomponents more accurately and when those are standardized they can be put in relationship to each other.

Public Health Leadership

The efficacy and effectiveness of promoting organizational change in public health organizations in order to respond efficiently to an emergency is a concept that suggests the possibility of dual cultures for public health may be required. Competencies to establish and lead an organization with the cultural capacity for change have been suggested (Robbins, 1994; Thompson, 2010). The journey to organizational cultural competence for a local public health agency is a process that requires the collaborative efforts from community stakeholders, internal managers, and public policy officials (Summerill et al, 2010). Four overlapping areas must be considered when instituting activities and strategies to accomplish a comprehensive culturally competent organization. These four areas are (a) administration and governance, (b) orientation and education, (c) language, and (d) staff competencies (Purnell, Davidhizar, Giger, Strickland, Fishman, & Allison, 2011).

Communication is the transfer or exchange of information. Several conclusions have been proposed about information sharing that has clear implications for communications: 1) A culture of information stewardship for organizational leaders as opposed to ownership; 2) information systems that have minimal changes to processes and flow; 3) legislative and regulatory mandates; 4) reward systems that promote information sharing with and among organizations; 5) establishment of shared goals; and 6) the development of ongoing trust relationships based on mutual understanding of needs and concerns and shared responsibility, and are positive actions suggested by the frameworks (Maxwell & Yang, 2011). The results of our current study confirm these suggestions from a quantitative perspective. In merging the ideas of a framework to the context of public health, leaders should continue their work on public health social marketing and on building long term strategic public health plans with critical community based stakeholders.

**Figure 4: . Interrelationships among organization type and targeted outcomes.
Adapted from Hunter, et al (2011).**
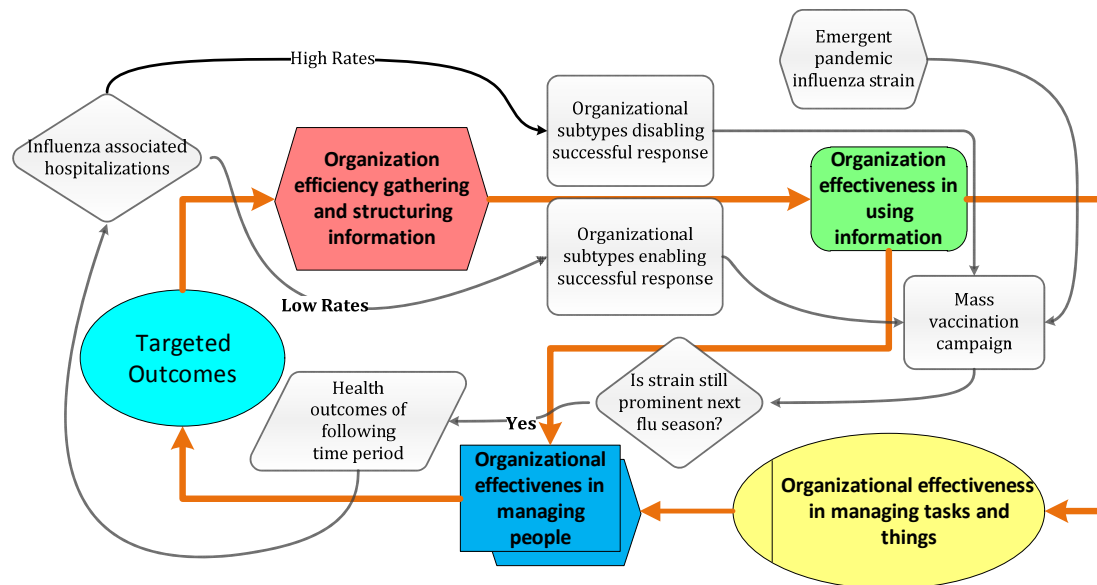
The model we have developed was constructed using the principle of parsimony. However, the complexity of leadership should not be taken for granted. A framework has been proposed (Figure 4) that highlights the interdependence of behaviors that focus on a process of leadership (Hunter, Tate, Dzieweczynski, & Bedell-Avers, 2011). While the framework focuses on leadership error, the process is applicable to organizational type. Organizational type from a policy perspective can provide a paradigm to optimize effectiveness in reaching program objectives.

Limiting strategic focus to constructing paradigms for organizational information handling should be done but other avenues should not be ignored. For example, in a turbulent event an emerging vision can be more effective than formal organizational structures and decision making models, especially under adverse conditions such as those that occurred during the Arab Spring in 2011 in Egypt and other Middle Eastern countries (Youssef, 2011). The vision driven application to public health is in the foundation of inspired action among the public health worker(s), and is even more important under adverse conditions such as the unavailability of information, lack of resources, and rapid dynamic change. As a precautionary note, the suggestion of alternatives to hierarchical leadership be explored for a better understanding and that leaderless alternatives be explored is inconsistent with our findings that identification with mission and vision of the organization is more important the identification with a professional class.

CONCLUSION

Hospitals should define and determine internal reward and punishment systems that effectively decrease disease transmission rates within their service area. Public health leaders and policy makers should strengthen managerial staffing capacity, provide rules and regulations, and train supervisors to oversee and control employee behavior. Public health leaders and other policy makers should provide managers with the resources to create clear objectives for their subordinates. Public health leaders and other policy makers should continue to modernize public health informatics. Processes to enhance structured communication within the health system's chain of command should be developed. Optimization of local public health organizational culture by modifying agency structures and leadership capacities has the potential to literally affect every public health program at the local level.

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MILITARY SEXUAL ASSAULT PREVENTION AND RESPONSE: THE BYSTANDER INTERVENTION TRAINING APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

Many approaches have been taken to try to reduce the prevalence of sexual assault in the military. For a long time the military ignored the issue altogether. Since it has been officially recognized as a problem that has a detrimental impact on individuals and the military's ability to function many interventions have been attempted. One of the more promising approaches being tried today is that of educating bystanders on what sexual assault is and how they as bystanders can take action to prevent it. This article looks at the components of sexual assault prevention and response and how approaches have evolved to help reduce the incidence of it. Early on there was a focus on awareness, but that did little to reduce the incidence of it. Today bystanders are educated on what they can do to actively get involved when they see a potential sexual assault about to take place. Roles are identified along with specific interventions individuals can take to make a difference.

INTRODUCTION

Money being spent by the US Military on Sexual Assault Prevention has increased over the years. While it was not until 2005 that Congress mandated the Department of Defense form a task force to investigate the issue and develop a program of prevention and tracking by 2008 it was estimated that the task force had spent $15 million, but had not accomplished anything of substance. In 2009 it was reported that sexual assaults in the military were up 11 percent (Ellison, 2011). Recently the focus has shifted to Bystander Intervention Training as a possible way to reduce the overall incidence of Sexual Assault in the military. This article looks at the efforts of sexual assault prevention and response programs and how they have shaped the attitude of military members.

The Department of Defense estimates that only 20 percent of sexual assaults in the military are reported. With the attention being paid to the issue it brings up the question of whether there has been an increase in the number of sexual assaults in the military or whether it is that more are being reported now than in the past? Studies tell us that 1 in 4 females will be sexual assaulted by the time they are 18 and 1 in 10 males (Rosas, 2003, p. 82).

A New York Times article (Bumiller, 2010) indicated in the prior fiscal year, September 2009 to September 2010, sexual assaults in the military increased 11 percent overall, but also

noted there was a 16 percent increase in war zones such as Iraq and Afghanistan. The article also pointed to the fact that the Pentagon indicated that this increase may be due more to an increase in the level of reporting than an actual increase in assaults.

CULTURE

Some particular characteristics of a changing military culture including the changing role of women need to be considered. In the past the operational aspects of the military for the most part was all male. With it there was a culture, language and behavior that often were negatively directed toward a number of diverse ethnic groups, gays, and women. It was often limited to the confines of a military facility and not displayed in the larger public. As American Society has changed it also brought changes to the military. Women are no longer in separate isolated roles. They are often integrated with their male counterparts working closely together 24 hours a day. They are often together in remote locations with limited ability to get far away from the operational work they are involved in. This change in work environment has had an impact on the military culture that has brought conflict with what it was in the past. Often progress in one area such as integration of females has caused issues in another. A recent Newsweek article reported that the chances of a woman being sexually assaulted by one of her fellow soldiers is greater than her being killed in combat (Ellison, 2011).

From a male perspective there has also been a significant increase in or at least an increase in the reporting of male-on-male sexual assaults. For years the military played down and in many cases covered up male-on-male sexual assaults, but in 2009 the Department of Veterans Affairs reported that over 50,000 male veterans screened positive for military sexual trauma as compared to 30,000 in 2003 (Ellison, 2011). Up until 1992 the Department of Defense did not acknowledge sexual assault of members by other members, and then initially only female victims were recognized.

Some of the issues came from the military's own definition of rape. In 1951 the military put into effect its Uniform Code of Military Justice. It established a set of codes for all the services and included times of military service in both war and peace. Specifically Article 120 defined rape as "an act of sexual intercourse with a female not his wife, by force and without her consent." It also included "special rules" where rape cases needed corroboration, a requirement that the complaint be current and not dated. It also allowed for questioning into the victim's past sexual history (Sherman, 1969). These rules remained in place until the 1980's.

Over the past five years a number of training courses have been conducted to bring awareness to the issue of sexual assault and the impact it can have on military readiness. The current focus is on helping bystanders understand what they can do to make a difference (Darley & Latane, 1968).

The author of this article has facilitated training sessions related to sexual assault prevention and response for over three years. Combined with this there have been over a

thousand individuals in those programs. Early versions of sexual assault prevention and response training had a focus on awareness. The programs were designed to get individuals to know what sexual assault is and that they should not do it. More recent versions such as the bystander intervention approach go beyond awareness to asking individuals to get involved in situations they see that are questionable (Latane & Darley, 1968).

The question that remains is that if individuals have been through training and understand what sexual assault is and that sexual assault is a punishable crime why are the rates continuing to rise. Is it that with the changing culture this is a byproduct or is it that there are not necessarily more sexual assaults, but that more are being reported? Regardless having individuals, bystanders, prepared to take action may make a difference and the study results indicate that most after participating in a bystander intervention program would be more likely to so.

SEXUAL ASSAULT

Early training related to sexual assault prevention and response had challenges in getting agreement on exactly what sexual assault is. Even more of a challenge was getting service members to understand what it involves (Air Force Instruction 36-6001, 2008). To begin with, the awareness stage, points out that sexual assault is a punishable crime. One of the most used definitions today is based on Article 120 of the Uniform Code of Military Justice.
Sexual assault is defined as:

> The intentional sexual contact of another person, characterized by the use of force, physical threat, or abuse of authority, or when a victim does not or cannot consent (unconscious, asleep, or under the influence of drugs or alcohol). It includes; rape, oral and anal sex, inappropriate touching, or attempts to commit these acts.

Sexual assault can occur without regard to age, gender, or spousal relationship. Consent is the key term. Just because a person does not say, "No" or offer resistance does not mean that the person has given permission. Often individuals fear or freeze up in situations where they feel they are threatened. In other cases they may be under the influence of drugs or alcohol and cannot make a rational decision.

Reporting

One of the challenges in addressing sexual assault has been issues with reporting. In Fiscal Year 2010 there were 3,158 total reports of sexual assault in the military. The Department of Defense estimates that this number represents only 13.5% of the total of number of sexual assaults. This translates into over 19,000 actual sexual assaults (DOD Releases 2011 Report on Military Sexual Assault, 2011).

In its 2010 Workplace and Gender Relations Survey the DOD reported that, 67% of women indicated they are "uncomfortable" with reporting sexual assault, 54% "feared reprisal," and 46% of both men and women in the military believe that sexual assault was "not important enough" to report at all. The report further went on to state that of the 3,158 reports of sexual assault only 529 went to trial.

There are other issues related to reporting that have made it difficult to get an accurate count of sexual assaults. In the past limited processes were in place, supervisors were not trained to handle situations, and overall victims reporting sexual assault were often made to feel guilty.

According to a report in the Air Force Times in August 2004 which referred to a 96-page study of sexual assault in the Air Force previous barriers included (Gaudiano, 2004):

Fear of being reduced in the eyes of colleagues and their commander.
Fear of disciplinary action.
Fear of re-victimization.
Fear of a negative impact on future opportunities.

In some cases victims worked directly with or for their perpetrators. As the culture has changed more cases are being reported. Some of the reasons for an increased level of reporting include:

Less of a negative stigma surrounding those that have been victims.
More resources for individuals to draw on to help them.
More options on what can be reported and how.

In a 2009 report Kaye Whitley, the director of the Pentagon's sexual assault prevention and response office indicated that 53 percent of assaults on military members were member on member.

In response to the overall impact on its members the military along with colleges, universities, and other organizations have put more emphasis on addressing issues related to sexual assault and its prevention. American society as a whole has a greater awareness of what sexual assault is and has shown less tolerance for it than in the past. As the culture of organizations has changed along with the role of women in them a new awareness of issues related to sexual assault has come to light.

There have been many well publicized stories of scandals such as those at the Air Force Academy in 2003. Some blame the combining of sexes in the military as another reason for the increase in sexual assaults. It should also be noted that there is a rise on male on male and female on female sexual assaults as well. In the case of the Air Force Academy twelve percent of the female graduating class of 2003 indicated being victims of rape or attempted rape and seventy percent indicated they were sexually harassed at some point in their time at the Academy (Schemo, 2003).

In order to provide help to victims the military has also modified its reporting options. Now the focus is on taking care of the victim first and then allowing them to have a say in what happens based on how they report it. There are now two types of reporting options available to military members. The traditional version is known as "unrestricted." In this scenario an individual reports what has happened and it is followed up through the chain-of-command and police authorities become involved. Focus is on finding snd dealing with the perpetrator as well as with the victim's personal issues.

Another option "restricted" reporting allows a victim to go to an individual know known as a Sexual Response Assault Coordinator (SARC) or Victim Advocate (VA) for help. By going to a SARC or VA an individual can get help without the chain-of-command being involved or notified of the specific details. The goal is for individuals to get help and not have to worry about the issues that go along with reporting through the chain-of-command. A key point is that a victim can also change a report from a restricted to the non-restricted option. According to the National Center for Victims of Crime one challenge is depending on the organization and in what state the crime took place the evidence collected may only be kept for a short period of time. In many places the requirement is only a year.

Consequences

The negative consequences of sexual assault go beyond a victim and can impact their families, friends, and co-workers. They can also diminish the capability of the Department of Defense by undermining the core values and degrading mission readiness (McGann & Schewe, 2008). There have been cases where the perpetrator is in the same unit or in the individual's chain of command or even a direct supervisor. Additional studies show that victims of sexual assault tend to be more likely to; suffer from depression, suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder, are more likely to abuse drugs and alcohol, and are more likely to commit suicide. According to a World Health Organization study in 2002 victims of sexual assault are:

> 3 times more likely to suffer from depression.
> 6 times more likely to suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder.
> 13 times more likely to abuse alcohol.
> 26 times more likely to abuse drugs.
> 4 times more likely to contemplate suicide.

In looking at it from a perpetrator, those committing the crime, perspective they are subject to criminal prosecution under the Uniform Code of Military Justice, Article 120. However, this does not seem like much of a deterrent, particularly since many victims choose not to report the crime. A second issue is often the circumstances around which a sexual assault happens such as the relationship of individuals. Many victims know their perpetrators. According

to one study, in as many as 85% of the Air Force cases victims knew their perpetrators (Guadiano, 2004).

There is also the influence of alcohol as an accompanying factor. In a study related to higher education statistics it showed that over 50% of victims and 70% of assailants had used drugs or alcohol prior to an assault (Koss, 1987). Studies of the military including the Army's Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Program indicate similar statistics.

With the large number of incidents happening with individuals under the influence of drugs and alcohol it brings up the point of whether individuals that have a certain type life style or set of behaviors are more likely to be victims than others. For overseas duty, the military locations in countries that allow liquor to be consumed show the rate of sexual assault is higher than in countries that prohibited the consumption of liquor. Regardless of the environment this is clearly a contributing factor.

PRIOR APPORACHES TO DEALING WITH SEXUAL ASSAULT

It has been shown that the chances of educating a perpetrator about the issues and consequences of committing a sexual assault have a minimal if any impact toward prevention. More involved treatment after the fact has shown some impact however it is after a crime has been committed (Perkins & Hammond, 1998). It is also difficult to identify who a potential perpetrator may be before the fact.

Prior approaches to reducing sexual assault in the military often focused on personal safety methods which were aimed at reducing the risk of an individual being assaulted. Approaches such as teaching self defense and arming individuals with whistles and pepper spray were the core of the approach. These methods were also typically applied to help women when they ended up in a situation where they had a need to defend themselves. This approach also focused on building confidence in individuals so that they could handle a situation should they end up as a potential victim. This approach was more of a risk reduction model where individuals could lessen their chances of being a victim. A more preventative approach focuses on strategies that are intended to prevent a potential perpetrator from committing a sexual assault and making everyone aware of sexual assault and how to prevent it, not just potential victims.

This more focused approach related to prevention began to come into play in the 2004 timeframe. The prevention approach shifted the focus to making everyone in the military more aware of the issues and what they personally could do to help be part of the solution. The prevention approach came as the overall change in culture of the military was happening. Old ways of thinking not only about sexual assault, but the overall role of women and gays in the military has changed. Traditions such as centerfolds in the work place, derogatory language toward certain groups, and overall attitudes about individuals in those groups needed to change for the military to continue to be effective.

Education efforts to address ways to modify and eliminate negative perceptions of individuals in roles in the military have become key tools in an effort to prevent sexual assaults. Events, work conditions, and situations where exposure to influences and risk factors that result in the initiation of sexual violence and associated injuries, disabilities and deaths are being addressed. Literature available looks at primary, secondary, and tertiary actions that can be taken.

Primary prevention strategies include educational programs and social marketing campaigns to bring awareness and encourage empowerment. Secondary and tertiary prevention includes actions such as restraining orders, programs for offenders and punishment for perpetrators as well as support for victims.

In 2004 a task force was established, Joint Task Force on Sexual Assault Prevention and Response (JTF-SAPR). As part of it every military installation was assigned a Sexual Assault Response Coordinator (SARC). The goal was to have support at the base level.

Specific Instructional Design Techniques

To drive home the point of what sexual assault is, how perpetrators and facilitators operate, and what bystanders can do a number of programs are utilizing video driven case studies. The case studies are generally short in length; less than five minutes, show a situation, ask individuals to identify roles and who was in them and what they could do to intervene as a bystander (Sexual Response and Prevention Office, 2011).

A number of universities have also realized the importance of bystander intervention training and have put programs in place with successful results. The University of New Hampshire uses a community of responsibility model to teach bystanders how to intervene when a sexual assault may be occurring or where someone may be at risk. The overarching theme is that "Everyone in the community has a role to play in ending sexual violence." Many programs such as the one at the University of New Hampshire base their programs on the work of Jackson Katz (Mentors in Violence Prevention program) and Alan Berkowitz. Learning objectives include teaching direct and indirect intervention approaches while keeping the bystander's own safety in mind, increasing the sense of responsibility for what goes on in one's own community, and increasing recognition of inappropriate behavior along with the continuum of sexual relationship violence and how to respond to it.

Roles

Studies over time have shown that there are clear roles that have evolved in the context of a sexual assault. Understanding the roles is a starting point at looking at how to best address the issues of sexual assault. The roles include:

The Perpetrator: also known as the assailant: is the individual looking to commit the crime. He or she often has a premeditated plan and is manipulative in their interactions with others. They lack empathy, only thinking about themselves and what they want. They do not filter information in the same way others do. They often block out others feelings and emotions in order to serve their own needs. They commit sexual assaults by using a number of tactics including; violence, threats, coercion, manipulation, pressure, or tricks. They often use their relationship with the victim or some information they have about the victim to get them to give in. There is no standard profile that can help us identify them ahead of time. While they are a small percentage of society they can cause a lot of damage.

The Victim: does not have a standard profile. They often are in a situation where they have been at a party or event with the perpetrator or are alone in an area with the individual. They may have their guard down feeling they are in a safe environment where it is okay to have a few alcoholic drinks. Often it is an event to relieve stress and pressures of day-to-day military life. They do not think the perpetrator has the intent of sexually assault them and often go along with the perpetrator to a certain extent. Even to the point of allowing the perpetrator to separate her or him from the larger group. When things go too far they may offer resistance, but by then the perpetrator has an advantage and may have the victim where they want them. In some cases the victim may freeze up during an assault, not knowing what to do or being fearful that the perpetrator may physically hurt them. After the fact a victim often blames him or herself for what happened, for allowing themselves to get in such a position. When they do say something often those around them do more questioning about how they could let it happen than to help them with getting the care they need and dealing with the perpetrator. Often victims say nothing and suffer long-term issues as a result of the assault (National Institute of Justice, 2006).

While the role of the Perpetrator and the Victim are fairly straight forward there are a couple of other roles individuals in and around the area may take. We'll describe them here and look at how these individuals may be the key to preventing and cutting down the overall incidence of sexual assault in the military and elsewhere.

The Facilitator: this individual often helps a perpetrator, often unknowingly. He or she wants to make a good impression or help a perpetrator for a number of reasons such as their being friends, are impressed with the style of the perpetrator, or wants to be seen positively by the perpetrator. They will often do things like; give compliments about the perpetrator to the potential victim, speak highly of them and their stature, feed the potential victim extra drinks, allow the perpetrator to get the individual alone, or in some cases physically move an incapacitated victim to a place where the perpetrator can then commit the crime.

The Bystander: this is the category the majority of the population is. They are often present as the early events in the process leading up to a sexual assault start. They often observe what is taking place but do not take action for reasons which include; not being seen as fitting in with the group they are with, thinking someone else will take action if it is important enough, or even figuring the potential victim got themselves into this situation so it is up to them to get themselves out.

BACKGROUND ON BYSTANDER INTERVENTION

On March 13, 1964 a 28-year old woman named Kitty Genovese was returning home from work when she was attacked by a man named Winston Moseley. Despite her cries, which dozens of people heard, no one called the police or came to help her. Over a 30 minute period she was sexually assaulted and killed. Bystanders could have done something, but for various reasons did not. This has since become known as the "bystander effect."
A number of reasons have been identified as to why bystanders do not get involved:

> They worry if they say something the group they are with will think poorly of them.
> They don't want to impose their values on others.
> They don't want to be seen as ruining another person's game.
> Things happen so quick they don't want to be seen as making a bad call.
> They think if it is really a problem someone else will say something.

A couple of concepts can help us understand why individuals may not get involved and provide us with points that need to be emphasized in training others to change this mindset:

> <u>Diffusion of Responsibility</u>: The more people that are present at the scene of an act the less each individually feels responsible for doing anything.
> <u>Pluralistic Ignorance</u>: In a group individuals assume the opinion they hold is a minority opinion and not shared by the group as a whole and as a result they do not say or do anything.

BYSTANDER INTERVENTION TRAINING

Often referred to as Bystander Intervention Training (BIT) this approach addresses what a bystander can do to help prevent sexual assault. It teaches individuals how to intervene in risky situations where friends or other potential victims are at risk. The goal of BIT training is to change participants' attitudes and behaviors toward sexual assault. These programs have been shown to be effective. One rape prevention program using this approach documented positive changes in rape myth acceptance (Foubert, 2000). Another study looked at 29 different rape prevention programs for high school students in Illinois and found the content area most associated with positive outcomes was related to discussing how to help a friend (Schewe, 2004).

One of the changes the bystander approach tries to address is that individuals often see sexual assault as something that is out there that happens to other people. The goal is to bring home the reality that sexual assault could happen to anyone, their mother, sister, father, or brother. It is not about someone else, but about someone they work with and count on. Addressing the change in social norms of military culture is a key point that is focused on. Research has shown that one of the strongest inhibitors on the part of individuals to intervene in a sexual assault is the misperception that one's peers are not concerned (Berkowitz, 2002).

Early research on bystander intervention showed that passive bystanders actually encouraged perpetrators to continue their inappropriate behavior as a result of no one speaking up (Staub, 1993). One factor that stood out was that when bystanders felt others were around and did nothing it showed that their behavior was acceptable.

INTERVENTION

A review of literature (Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2004) found several factors that led to an increased likelihood that people will intervene as bystanders. These included being aware that a situation existed where someone could likely be victimized, making a prior commitment to help if they saw such a situation happening, having a sense of responsibility for helping, believing that the victim has not caused the situation to occur, having a sense of self efficacy related to possessing the skills necessary to do something, and seeing others model pro-social behavior.

By becoming aware of a situation potential bystanders are also more likely to weigh the costs and benefits of intervention relative to how they personally believe it will affect their status in a reference group (Banyard, Plante, and Moynihan, 2004).

The presence of other bystanders also has an influence on an individual's choice to intervene. The relationship between the bystander and other individuals present impacts whether and to what extent an individual decides to act. When a bystander is a member of the same "in-group" as the others present, a motivating influence is exerted leading to a greater likelihood of bystander action and increases the likelihood that a bystander will intervene and be supported by other bystanders to address the situation at hand (Levine, Cassidy, Brazier, & Reicher, 2002).

Bystander intervention training has evolved from getting individuals to understand what a situation where a sexual assault is likely to happen looks like to one where individuals learn specific techniques for actually intervening. Training sessions are an important part of helping to change the culture. They provide not only specific techniques to address a situation, but also an overall framework for understanding an organization's culture and what behaviors are accepted as part of it.

CONTENT OF BYSTANDER INTERVENTION TRAINING

A number of approaches are being utilized in Bystander Intervention Training. Some of the more common components include:

Addressing sexual assault in relation to the community members are in. Often the perpetrator and victim are in the same community. What impact does a sexual assault have on not just the individuals, but the entire community.

Bringing individuals into actual learning exercises where they are presented not only with statistics, but engage in scenarios that look at a potential escalation process and what they as bystanders can do.

Looking at the impact on someone who has been sexually assaulted and what the impact can be on a unit if an individual turns to drugs or alcohol as an escape. In even worse cases when a victim looks at suicide.

Working through specific scenarios that ask; "What would you do?" What could the potential impact be if someone on your work team has been sexually assaulted.

Individuals are given a role and guidance on what they can do to prevent sexual assault. Specific intervention techniques, both direct and indirect are introduced.

As part of the program asking individuals to make an open pledge to commit to getting involved and not just being a passive bystander.

Using a process known as "ABC" in which individuals as active bystanders; Assess a situation, Be with others, and Care for victims. This includes looking at different techniques in which bystanders can use to help divert attention in various situations (Plante, Banyard, Moynihan, Eckstein, 2008).

One topic often referred to is the Continuum of Harm is introduced. It addresses the different levels of hostile environments which can lead to a sexual assault. Often some groups may accept some of the acts as not being offensive while others see any act as being inappropriate and potentially leading to increasingly offensive acts. A guided conversation among participants shows that what once was accepted can no longer be accepted in the new military culture (International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 2011).

Continuum of Harm as it relates to sexual assault:

| Sexist jokes | Searching sexual Internet sites | Comments directly to a person about sexual activity | Inappropriate touching |
| Displays of nude pictures | Comments about sexual activity | Sexually explicit gestures | Criminal sexual acts |
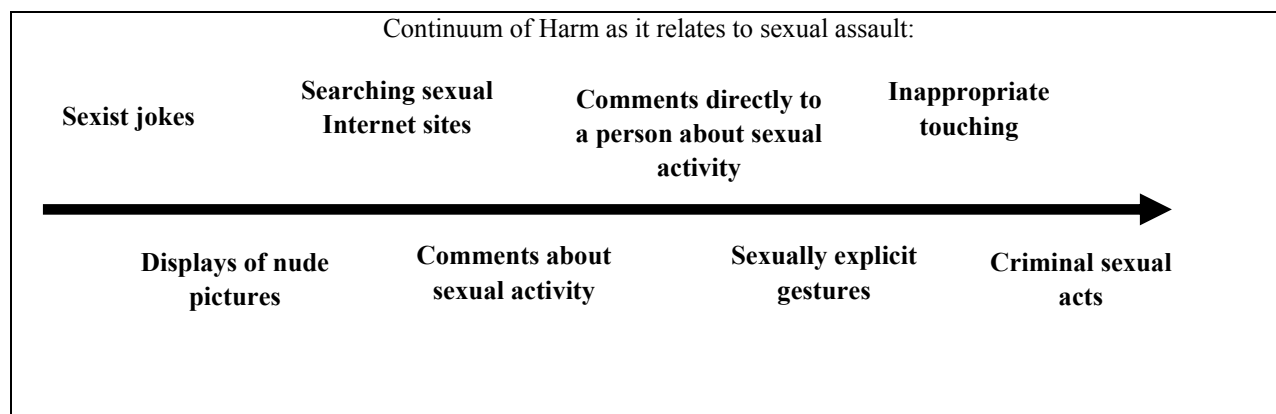
Source: USAF Sexual Assault Bystander Intervention Training Facilitators Guide.

Bystander programs provide individuals with education on what being a bystander means and what they can do to make a difference. The goal is to move a bystander into becoming an "active bystander." Participants are presented with direct and indirect approaches to intervene. A direct approach would include having the bystander directly approach the potential perpetrator and ask or tell them something direct such as; "Do you know what trouble you can get into for taking a young girl who is this drunk to your room?" The point of a direct approach is to point out the situation and issues related to it.

In an indirect approach a bystander would approach the potential perpetrator or potential victim and use a distracting technique. An example would be to ask or tell the individuals

something totally out of character such as; "Do you think the weather in China will impact the price of wheat in the US? Here's why I think it will."

Strategies for becoming an active bystander:

Intervene before a situation gets out of hand. If it does not look right get involved.

Enlist the help of others. Strength in numbers makes a difference.

Use direct or indirect tactics. Whatever works, at this point you don't care if you look stupid.

You could save someone from being sexually assaulted.

Don't let a perpetrator separate a potential victim from a larger group. If the perpetrator insists on leaving get a group of others to go with.

Get the potential victim away from the scene. Call a friend, co-worker, or law enforcement.

As part of training another tool frequently employed in the Bystander Intervention Approach is the "Bystander Pledge." At the end of a session after individuals have been through a program they are asked to make a commitment to become an "Active Bystander."

BYSTANDER PLEDGE

I _____ pledge to make a difference.

☐ I will not tolerate individuals being taken advantage of.

☐ In our organization there is no place for sexist jokes and I will intervene when I hear them.

☐ I will encourage and promote a culture free of any inequalities based on gender.

☐ I will listen to and support others in their concerns related to sexual assault and their safety.

☐ I will encourage others to get help and support them when I see issues that could lead to sexual assault.

☐ I will be proactive in intervening when I see a situation where a sexual assault may happen.

☐ I will work with others to prevent sexual assaults and to provide a greater understanding of the impact they can have on my unit.

_____   _____

Signature   Date

_____   _____

Witness   Date

The goal of the pledge is to get individuals to make a commitment with the hope they will believe in it and abide by it.

FINDINGS RELATED TO SEXUAL ASSAULT INTERVENTION PROGRAMS

A number of findings have been reported based on the different types of sexual assault related programs and the bystander intervention approach. These findings give us something to consider as we go forward.

Banyard, Moynihan, and Plante (2007) found that participants in bystander intervention programs increased; prosocial bystander attitudes, increased bystander efficacy, and showed increases in proactive self-reported bystander behaviors.

Foubert (2000) focused on engaging men as "potential helpers" and his evaluations of these programs have demonstrated long-term changes in men's attitudes and behavior, including decreases in rape myth acceptance and the likelihood of raping, increases in empathy towards rape victims, and an increase in curtailing sexist comments about women.

Fabiano, Perkins, Berkowitz (2003) found that any attempt to change a larger culture of violence against women should also include a focus on men's willingness to intervene in situations that could lead to sexual violence.

In an analysis of six programs Berkowitz came to the conclusion that separate gender programs are more effective than coeducational programs. He found that both men and women benefit more in separate gender programs than in mixed programs. Peer educators used as facilitators also had a major positive impact. His study also found that the more highly interactive programs, ones that allowed for participant discussion were more effective than non-interactive programs. He also found that variations in format (video, interactive theater, role plays, etc.) did not seem to have much of a difference. How a workshop is conducted seems to be more important than what material is covered in the workshop.

THE AUTHOR'S EXPERIENCE AND PERSPECTIVE

As the author of this article and having personally facilitated sessions for over a thousand individuals I can personally state that the material is often graphic and direct. The video clips often make some individuals feel uncomfortable with the content they show. The reaction of participants varies from embarrassment to shock. In some cases individuals that have been victims in the past break down and cry. In others remnants of the old military culture linger as individuals laugh at the scenarios displayed. In a few instances I have had to stop sessions where this happens and ask the individuals laughing what they would think if it was their son or father or daughter or mother that was a victim. Generally it quickly brings reality back to the training session.

While this is a subject individuals would often rather not talk about it is important to bring the issue into the open. I see more individuals taking educational brochures, asking more questions, and even approaching facilitators after educational sessions than in the past. While the statistics, some of which are questioned as to how many sexual assaults happen vs. how many are reported, it can be shown that there is a greater awareness and understanding of the issues and what individuals as bystanders can do to make a difference.

RELATED INITIATIVES

It should also be noted that along with the education and training of military members related to what bystanders can do there is an over increase in promoting how important it is to deal with the issues of sexual assault and to bring awareness through related initiatives. Often

bases have informational posters displayed in prominent areas, articles appear more frequently on the topic in base papers and online social media sources are becoming more prevalent. April has also been designated as Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Awareness Month with major awareness campaigns that focus on the topic.

CONCLUSION

Military culture has changed over the years. More females are in a wider range of roles, standards of acceptance and what is considered appropriate behavior have become more clearly defined. Many behaviors that in the past were accepted no longer are. A greater awareness of sexual assault is now known and understood by military members. While there is still some question as to what percentage of sexual assaults are reported there is clearly a better understanding of what sexual assault is. The current focus on bystander intervention training is moving military members from an awareness level to one of moving members into taking a proactive stance when they see behaviors and actions of others that are inappropriate.

The implications bystander intervention programs bring include a more supportive culture that has resulted from a greater awareness and sensitivity brought by these programs. These programs are also allowing for a better understanding of what victims go through and provide more knowledge and awareness of support services available. The option of restricted reporting allows victims of sexual assault to seek help they might not otherwise have. It is important to encourage victims to seek help in order to prevent issues related to pregnancy, sexually transmitted diseases, and psychological issues that can impact individuals' long term in their military careers and overall interactions with others.

While it is early in the process there seems to be the potential to make a difference. Monitoring the incidence of Sexual Assault after the program has been fully rolled out and delivered to all military members will give an overall feel for the effectiveness the program has delivered.

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JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE: EVIDENCE FROM CANADIAN CREDIT UNION

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ABSTRACT

The relationship between job satisfaction and performance has been for many decades the object of in-depth and disparate studies in Human Resource Management (HRM). Our study confirms the existence of a link between job satisfaction and employee performance in a Canadian credit union. It suggests that training and information influence the job satisfaction of employees as well as their autonomy, knowledge and judgment in the exercise of their duties and functions. It also aims to confirm that the determinants of job satisfaction as presented in HR literature are appropriate and indeed have an influence on job performance.

INTRODUCTION

In the recent years since the turn of the century, companies have found themselves in an economy heavily affected by globalization, an economy in which knowledge and information are indispensible elements in order to succeed. The importance of intellectual capital has increased to the point of being one of the most valuable assets that must be better understood in order to be developed. From such a perspective, human resources and their management now occupy a privileged place in business. The impact of human resource management is generally measured by the individual performance of each employee that, in turn, has a quantifiable impact upon the overall organizational performance.

Performance is a complex notion that is ever-present in the secondary literature related to organizations, and it occupies, perhaps, the predominant place in the day-to-day practice of actual companies. Numerous studies highlight the pertinence of linking work related performance with another important concept for companies; that is, satisfaction at work. A large empirical database of evidence shows that satisfaction and performance at work are indeed factors in a complex cause and effect relationship. As part of the research conducted on the relationship between employee satisfaction, attitudes toward work and organizational performance, the study before you has two objectives. The first is to analyse the mechanisms that create and sustain employee satisfaction at work (determinants and aspects), and secondly, to evaluate if the cause and effect relationship between employee satisfaction and individual performance so evident in existing literature is genuinely quantifiable and, therefore, significant.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The relationship between satisfaction and performance has been for many decades the object of in-depth and disparate studies in Human Resource Management (HRM). The review of the current literature will be presented in three distinct parts. The first and second parts will be devoted, respectively, to the concepts of job satisfaction and job performance at work. The last part will examine the causal interrelationship between these two variables and thus lay the groundwork for the theoretical framework of our study.

Review of the Secondary Literature regarding Employee Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most incontestable and highly valued concepts in Human Research Management. It is equally important as a dependant variable and as an explicative factor of a heterogeneous group of attitudes and behaviours (Brief, 1998; Judge & al., 2001). The most often used definition in the field of research on the particular concept of satisfaction is the one provided by Locke: "an agreeable or positive emotional state derived from an evaluation made by a person about his work or his work experience" (Locke, 1976, pg.1300). From this consensual definition, we extract the implicit idea by which thoughts and emotions both play an important role in the perception of satisfaction that an employee derives from his work. However, considering job satisfaction to be only a purely emotional outcome brings about numerous questions, specifically, opposing voices that decry the definition proposed by Locke as being insufficient and a paradoxical minefield (Brief, 1998: 85-118; Weiss, 2002).

For many authors and researchers such as Weiss (2002) and Greenberg (2008), job satisfaction describes the positive or negative attitude of a person regarding his employment and work environment. It is customary, therefore, to identify the different components of attitude in order to facilitate research studies. The current literature mentions a number of elements that all refer to job satisfaction, among which we find: remuneration, recognition, supervision, job security, and opportunities for career advancement (Weiss & al., 1967). Since job satisfaction stems from both job responsibilities and type of work occupied (Weaver, 1980), many factors could explain the difference between the levels of satisfaction among employees.

PREVIOUS HISTORY OF JOB SATISFACTION

Organizational literature distinguishes, on average, three to four principal case histories regarding job satisfaction. By "case histories" of job satisfaction, we understand these to be the combination of elements and factors that influence either satisfactory or unsatisfactory experience at work.

Influences related to personality

The majority of research studies on the influence of personality on job satisfaction, suggests a relationship that is statistically significant. Staw and Ross (1985) suggest that the level of employee satisfaction tends to remain fixed regardless of whatever job or organizational changes occur. Although there are those who are critical of these studies such as Davis-Blake and Pfeffer (1989), a body of empirical evidence indicates that the differences in employee job satisfaction can be explained, to a certain extent, by the employees' personality or their predisposition to the demands of the task (House, Shane & Herold, 1996).
Considering the above, we propose the following hypothesis:

> *H₁:*   *The personality of employees influences their perception of job satisfaction*

Influences related to the work environment

Not surprisingly, Ghazzawi (2008) suggests that one of the most important determinants of job satisfaction is the very nature of the work. Hence, organizational literature indicates that many factors such as the physical work environment, the quality of interactions between colleagues, as well as the way in which the organization treats its employees all influence job satisfaction. Judge and Church (2000) indicate that the nature of the work is what is ultimately identified as the most important factor when evaluating the various particularities affecting employees. Considering the above, we propose a second hypothesis:

> *H₂:*   *The nature of the work influences the employee's job satisfaction*

Social Influences

There are influences that an individual or a group brings to the attitudes and/or behaviours of a person (George & Jones, 2008, pg. 87). In this case, we intend that the colleagues at work, groups of people that the employee meets, as well as the culture in which the employee "grew" or evolved all fully contribute toward influencing the amount of satisfaction held by the employee (George & Jones, 2008).

It is important to emphasize the impact of culture as part of the social aspects that affect job satisfaction, including the cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede (1980). For example, employees working in countries such as the United States, Australia, Canada, United Kingdom, and the Netherlands where individualism is greater, will be more predisposed to be satisfied within the framework of stressful jobs that are also based on performance as opposed to those

who have evolved in a different business or cultural environment, in a global sense. Considering the above, we propose a third hypothesis:

> *H₃: The social environment in which the individual evolves effects his job satisfaction.*

Satisfaction in life (overall)

At times a precursor yet also a consequence of job satisfaction, overall life satisfaction has to be considered when looking at determinants of job performance. As stated by Jones (2006,23), "there is empirical support for the idea that if one measures overall life satisfaction (i.e. happiness or overall well-being), rather than job satisfaction, there is likely to be a stronger relationship with performance". Thus, it seems that persons who are relatively satisfied with their life are also satisfied with their work, and the inverse is also likely true (Judge & Hulin, 1993).

> *H₄: Satisfaction in life is significantly correlated with job satisfaction*

Performance in Literature Review

Job performance at work is regarded by researchers as one of the most important domains in work and organizational psychology. Despite the fact that it is particularly studied in HRM and organizational behaviour and psychology, job performance is still not clearly defined nor conceptualized, and the empirical research done upon it does not always provide results that can be used (Charles-Pauvers & al., 2006).

The lack of definition in question is tied implicitly to the areas of concentration examined in previous studies. For example, in one such area, various measurement techniques of individual performance (as evaluated by superiors, as a function of productivity, as figured in delays in production or delivery) are studied while in another area, the direct or indirect consequences of performance (absenteeism, remuneration) are examined, and finally, (in a third area?), the individual psychological determinants (motivation, satisfaction) are considered. In the effort to fill this lack of a definition, research was conducted for many years on the analysis of the concept of job performance (Schmidt & Hunter., 1992; Campbell, 1990; Campbell & al., 1996; Sackett, 2002). These studies allow us finally to propose definitions more or less consensual to this concept, including one proposed by Motowidlo (2003:39):

> "*Job performance is defined as the total value to the organization of the discrete behavioural episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time*".

Employee Satisfaction and Job Performance

In the first place, we must emphasize the absence of a consensus on the nature of the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction. The study by Laffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) became a classic reference on this subject. It cast doubt not only on the nature

of the link, but also on the level of correlation between these two variables. Based on a meta-analysis conducted on more than 200 empirical correlations in 24 studies, their results suggested that the average correlation between satisfaction at work and job performance was weak. Such a weak level of correlation tends to suggest that satisfaction at work is not a "reliable" predictive variable for job performance (Laffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985). Because of these results, it has become common to affirm that the link between job satisfaction and job performance is actually indirect rather than direct; however, it is shaped by other factors. Nevertheless, the existing literature offers a number of additional reasons and justifications for this weak correlation. For example, we have considered the following: the characteristics of the study, (Laffaldano et Muchinsky, 1985), the measurement problems (Fisher, 1980), and the effect of rewards or benefits (Porter & Lawler, 1968).

Ostoff (1992) emphasizes the effectiveness of doing the analyses by using aggregate data at the organizational level. According to her, this type of study has the advantage of providing additional information when compared to an analysis conducted on the individual level. Consequently, certain researchers believe that employee satisfaction, as well as their well-being, are both linked to performance. Considering the recent studies on the link between job satisfaction and job performance, it seems appropriate to think along the lines of Ostroff (1992) and to affirm that organizations having employees who are highly satisfied and involved, and who are not highly stressed undoubtedly will attain higher levels of performance than those organizations that have employees who are barely satisfied and involved, and who suffer from stress.

The points above allow us to propose the principal hypothesis of our study:

H_5:   *Satisfied employees are also performance orientated.*

Theoretical Model

Taking into account the existing literature, Figure 1 below presents the general theoretical framework of our study. It revolves around a system composed of a number of cause and effect relationships between employee job satisfaction and job performance. It is a matter of first identifying the determinants of job satisfaction and then the "consequences" (individual performance) on the other.

METHODOLOGY

The empirical data for the study were collected through online questionnaires. Prepared exclusively for employees and supervisors of the "Caisse Populaire Madawaska" credit union, the study was comprised of two questionnaires: one for employees (responsible for collecting data for job satisfaction) and one for supervisors (responsible for collecting data on employee

performance). Hosted on the web server of the Faculty of Administration at the University of Moncton, the questionnaires were accompanied by an introductory letter presenting the objectives of the study and inviting employees to participate on a voluntary and anonymous basis.

To ensure the pairing of questionnaires and the confidentiality of respondents, numbers were attributed to the employees. These numbers were essential in identifying the questionnaires answered by an employee and a supervisor. The list of numbers, of course, has remained confidential.

**Figure 1: Theoretical Framework of the link between Job Satisfaction
and Individual Performance**

Personality / Temperament Organizational Culture and Communication Situation at work Social Framework Overall Life Satisfaction Vision, Governance, and Credit Union Strategy	→	Employee Satisfaction	→	Employee Performance
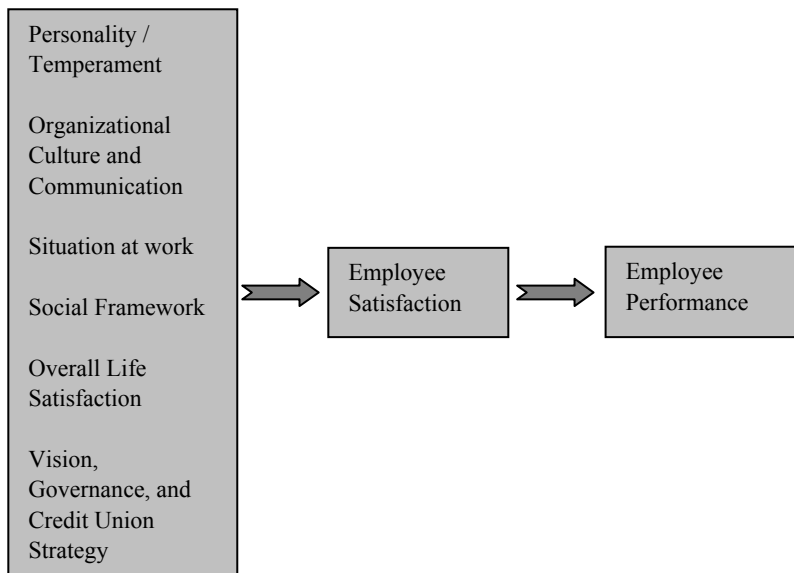
The "Caisse populaire Madawaska" credit union operates in the Edmundston region, a small city situated in north-western region of the province of New Brunswick (Canada). It has approximately 10,200 members and assets estimated at 112 million Canadian dollars. It has three service centres with specialized counsellors in commercial loans, personal loans, and savings. The population for this study comprises 32 employees of which 2 are supervisors. The general manager didn't answer the employee questionnaire but the supervisor questionnaire for his two assistants and business loans staff. The employee participants are divided into 5 distinct departments within the organization. Each of the three supervisors (the general manager and two directors) has under his supervision a certain number of employees (from 6 to 14) depending on the departments he is in charge. Table 1 presents the distribution of the number of employees by supervisor in the sample.

Table 1: Distribution of Employees by Supervisor		
Supervisor	**Number of employees**	**%**
Supervisor A	6	18.75%
Supervisor B	14	43.75%
Supervisor C	12	37.50%

Out of a sample of 32 questionnaires completed, a 91.4% cooperation rate, 31 were found to be useful.

Dependant variable: Job Performance

Job performance was evaluated based on the data from the supervisors' questionnaires. The measurement tool was adapted from Martins and McFarlane (1989) and uses the following five dimensions: autonomy, planning, collaboration with colleagues, knowledge (capability and judgment), and global performance. Each dimension was accorded a unique number using a Likert 5-point scale (From 1 – Unacceptable performance to 5 – Excellent performance).

Independent variable: Job Satisfaction

We had recourse to three distinct measurements grouped in a single questionnaire in order to determine job satisfaction. Overall job satisfaction was analysed, in part, by according a unique number using a 5-point Likert scale (From 1 – Very unsatisfied to 5 – Very Satisfied) to the answers of the following question: "Generally speaking, as an employee, how satisfied are you working for the credit union?"

The various facets of job satisfaction were measured as per the following: firstly, using the short version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss & al., 1977 (Likert scale, from 1 – Very unsatisfied to 5 – Very satisfied) and secondly using the questionnaire by the Best Companies Group[1] of 2008 (Likert scale, from 1 – Strongly in disagreement to 5 – Strongly in agreement).

Globally, the determinants for job satisfaction were evaluated based on seven principal criteria that grouped 72 questions. The following criteria were used: Influence by personality traits; vision, strategy, and governance of the credit union; cultural influences; organizational communication and culture; situational work influences; social framework influences; life satisfaction influences; and global satisfaction.

Control Variables

The following variables were retained as control variables: age, civil status, number of dependent children, highest academic degree achieved, number of years of experience in the workforce, number of years of experience with this employer, and the number of years at one's particular post.

RESULTS

Examining the previous significant history of job satisfaction

The data collected by survey were first codified, and then compiled by category of respondents and answers. Because of the limited size of our sample, the Exact Fisher test was preferred to determine the previous histories of satisfaction that we retained since they were statistically significant. (See Appendix 1-6.)

Determination of link between job satisfaction and individual performance:

The method chosen to verify this link is essentially a regression analysis. For this regression, we will use only the four determinants that we have found to be significant as precursors to satisfaction. In addition, we used the groundwork analysis established by Arcand et al. (2002) who conducted, in a universal approach to human resources, a research on the role of HRM in the development of the "Caisses populaires Desjardins" in the Province of Québec (Canada). In this approach, each determinant for satisfaction is divided into themes. These themes are essentially comprised by the only questions statistically significant and are designed to augment the explicative power of the model.

Table 2 presents the distribution by theme of the statements statistically significant regarding employee job satisfaction.

Table 2: Distribution by theme of significant Statements for job satisfaction		
Theme	Total Number of Statements and Questions	Number of Significant Statements and Questions
Respondent personality (RP)	2	0
Vision, governance, and employer strategy (VGSC)	8	7
Relations with supervisor: human relations (RShr)	6	5
Relations with supervisor: competence (RSc)	5	5
Relations with and between colleagues (RC)	3	3
Culture and communication organisation (COC)	8	6
Training and information (TI)	6	4

Table 2: Distribution by theme of significant Statements for job satisfaction		
Theme	Total Number of Statements and Questions	Number of Significant Statements and Questions
Responsibilities at work and career plan (RCPC)	5	2
Evaluation of work (EW)	7	5
Physical and workplace environment (PWE)	5	4
Remuneration, benefits, and job security (RBSE)	7	6
Autonomy at work (AW)	4	2
Social environment and global life satisfaction (SEGLS)	5	0

Table 3 shows the results of the different regression analyses undertaken when the significant satisfaction determinants are related to global satisfaction and to the five aspects of the supervisors' evaluation: global performance, planning capacity, autonomy, collaboration with colleagues and knowledge and judgment. Looking at the 11 job satisfaction themes retained on a starting list of 13, all seem without exception to influence genuinely employee satisfaction at the credit union (see Table 3). The analysis shows that the variable ERBS (Employment remuneration, benefits, and security) heavily influences job satisfaction at the credit union. By itself, it accounts for approximately 32.1% of the employee job satisfaction index at the Caisse populaire ($R^2 = 0.321$; F = 13.23; p–value <0.01). However, the variable VGSC (Vision, governance, and strategy of the credit union) seems by itself to influence not only the index of job satisfaction 22.1% ($R^2 = 0.221$; F = 7.96; p–value <0.01), but also the performance index of "knowledge and judgment" that represents 25.2% ($R^2 = 0.252$; F = 9.46; p–value < 0.01). The analysis shows the same conclusions for the variables RShr[2] (Relations with supervisor: human relations), RSc[3] (Relations with supervisor: competence), RC[4] (Relations between or with colleagues), COC[5] (Cultural organisation and communication), ET[6] (Evaluation of work), RWCP[7] (Responsibility at work and career plan), and AT[8] (Autonomy at work). Finally, the variables TI (Training and information) and PWE (Physical and workplace environment) are populated with even a greater number of significant results. As shown, the training and information category seems to influence significantly the satisfaction index ($R^2 = 0.197$; F = 6.87; p–value < 0.05), the global performance ($R^2 = 0.165$; F = 5.55; p–value < 0.05), autonomy ($R^2 = 0.178$; F = 6.07; p–value < 0.05) and the knowledge / judgment ($R^2 = 0.233$; F = 8.51; p–value < 0.01) of employees. Furthermore, the physical and workplace environment category influences significantly the satisfaction index at work ($R^2 = 0.163$; F = 5.45; p–value < 0.05), the global performance ($R^2 = 0.189$; F = 6.56; p–value < 0.05) as well as the knowledge and judgment ($R^2 = 0.178$; F = 6.08; p–value < 0.05) of employees at work.

Table 3: Results of regression analysis between job satisfaction and performance variables												
Variables	**Satisfaction (Global)**		**Performance (Global)**		**Planning**		**Autonomy**		**Collaboration**		**Knowledge & Judgment**	
	β[a]	R^2	β	R^2	β	R^2	β	R^2	β	R^2	β	R^2
Satisfaction (Global)			-0.002	0.000	0.023	0.000	-0.047	0.004	-0.025	0.078	0.095	0.015
Determinants of satisfaction												
VGSC	0.092***	0.221	0.047	0.086	0.011	0.004	0.033	0.058	0.019	0.019	0.074***	0.252
RShr	0.122***	0.223	0.068*	0.102	0.045	0.039	0.060*	0.106	-0.003	0.000	0.091**	0.215
RSc	0.107**	0.161	0.042	0.036	-0.006	0.000	0.043	0.050	-0.013	0.004	0.087**	0.181
RC	0.295***	0.379	0.052	0.017	0.024	0.003	0.049	0.021	0.011	0.001	0.140**	0.147
COC	0.153***	0.306	0.042	0.034	0.018	0.005	0.043	0.047	-0.006	0.001	0.081**	0.150
TI	0.165**	0.197	0.125**	0.165	0.082	0.061	0.112**	0.178	0.020	0.005	0.137***	0.233
RCPC	0.257**	0.165	0.179*	0.117	0.074	0.017	0.132	0.085	0.111	0.058	0.218**	0.205
ET	0.132***	0.266	0.035	0.117	-0.005	0.000	0.037	0.042	0.013	0.005	0.078**	0.148
PWE	0.141**	0.163	0.126**	0.189	0.024	0.006	0.082*	0.107	0.015	0.003	0.113**	0.178
RBSE	0.148***	0.321	0.036	0.189	-0.019	0.007	0.017	0.008	-0.018	0.009	0.056	0.080
AT	0.328**	0.213	0.073	0.027	0.003	0.000	0.093	0.034	0.024	0.002	0.203**	0.140
Control		0.000		0.000		0.006		0.002		0.010		0.000
* P–Value < 0.10												
** P–Value < 0.05												
*** P–Value < 0.01												
[a] standardized β (i.e. gross impact of the determinants of employees' satisfaction treated individually).												

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

First, it should be remembered that the theoretical model of our study is based on a cause and effect relationship (Figure 1) that examines job satisfaction, its determinants, and employee performance. The analytical framework identifies six principal determinants for job satisfaction. These are personality, job situation, social framework, global life satisfaction, organizational culture and communication, as well as vision, governance, and organizational strategy.

Of these 6 determinants identified in the academic literature, we determined that two determinants were not statistically linked to job satisfaction after we conducted a preliminary analysis of our sample. These results compel us to reject the proposed hypotheses 1 and 4 of our study. The rejection of hypothesis 1 (H_1: The personality of employees influences job satisfaction) is consistent with the results of Davis-Blake and Pfeffer (1989). However, the rejection of hypothesis 4 (H_4: Global life satisfaction is significantly related to job satisfaction) goes directly against the previous results of studies that suggest a positive influence between life and job satisfaction (Judge & Hulin, 1993; Jones, 2006). For the rest, the Fisher Exact Test confirms that the four other determinants are statistically related to job satisfaction.

In general, the results obtained (Table 3) treating the individual effects of determinants of job satisfaction show unequivocally the existence of a cause and effect relationship between the chosen themes, job satisfaction, and performance at work. These results confirm those of previous studies. However, the results regarding job performance are less unequivocal. Regression analysis shows that only 2 of the 4 indicators of job performance initially introduced in the analysis are influenced by job satisfaction and, therefore, indirectly by its determinants: autonomy for one, and knowledge and judgment for another. The theme "Training and Information" (TI) is the only determinant of satisfaction that influences the autonomy of employees. Such a result reinforces one of the principal conclusions found in empirical research (Kim, 2005; Huselid, 1995; Mobley, 1977). However, if there is only one single theme that influences autonomy among the 11 that were included in the analysis, it seems that all the themes influence the knowledge and judgment of employees of the credit union with the exception of the ERBS (Employment Remuneration, Benefits, and Security).

Regarding one other conclusive outcome, furthermore, the analysis of the gross effects of the determinants of job satisfaction confirms the existence of a positive link between certain determinants and certain types of job performance. Although up to methodological and statistical standards and despite encouraging results, our results have to be considered as preliminary due to our sample size.

Our study confirms the existence of a link between job satisfaction and employee performance at work. It suggests that training and information influences job satisfaction of employees as well as their autonomy, knowledge and judgment in the exercise of their duties. It also aims to confirm that the determinants of job satisfaction as presented in HR literature (with the exception of personality and life satisfaction) are appropriate and indeed have an influence on job performance, notably knowledge and judgment as well as autonomy at work.

Though our study brings certain clarity regarding job satisfaction, its determinants, and its link with employee performance, the conclusions of this study only constitute yet another step on which to base future research on the particular area of the satisfaction of those employed by credit unions. In fact, our project suggests that organizational performance results directly from an aggregate sum of individual performances and indirectly from job satisfaction. Future research should concentrate, therefore, on verifying this relationship between individual and organizational performance.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

ENDNOTES

[1]   Used in the scope of an internal study in order to appreciate employee job satisfaction.
[2]   Satisfaction Index ($R^2 = 0.223$; F = 8.04; p–value < 0.01) and performance indicator "Knowledge and judgment" ($R^2 = 0.215$; F = 7.67; p–value <0.05).
[3]   Satisfaction Index ($R^2 = 0.161$; F = 5.38; p–value < 0.05) and performance indicator "Knowledge and judgment" ($R^2 = 0.181$; F = 6.20; p–value <0.05).
[4]   Satisfaction Index ($R^2 = 0.379$; F = 17.12; p–value < 0.01) and performance indicator "Knowledge and judgment" ($R^2 = 0.147$; F = 4.84; p–value <0.05).
[5]   Satisfaction Index ($R^2 = 0.306$; F = 12.38; p–value < 0.01) and performance indicator "Knowledge and judgment" ($R^2 = 0.150$; F = 4.95; p–value <0.05).
[6]   Satisfaction Index ($R^2 = 0.266$; F = 10.18; p–value < 0.01) and performance indicator "Knowledge and judgment" ($R^2 = 0.148$; F = 4.90; p–value < 0.05).
[7]   Satisfaction Index ($R^2 = 0.165$; F= 5.54; p–value <0.05) and performance indicator "Knowledge and judgment" ($R^2 = 0.205$; F = 7.23; p–value <0.05).
[8]   Satisfaction Index ($R^2 = 0.213$; F = 7.58; p–value <0.05) and performance indicator of "Knowledge and judgment" ($R^2 = 0.140$; F = 4.57; p–value <0.05).

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Appendix 1 – Fisher's Exact Test for "Personality"	
Variables	**Fisher's Exact Test**
1. PERS1: Is your personality suited to your job?	0.660
2. PERS2: Do you show your emotions and preoccupations to your colleagues at work?	0.056
Appendix 2 – Fisher's Exact Test for "Vision, Governance, and Strategy of the Credit Union"	
Variables	**Fisher's Exact Test**
3. VGSC1: I understand the long-term strategy of the Union.	0.039**
4. VGSC2: I have confidence in the Union leadership.	0.000***
5. VGSC3: Directors of the Union have the well-being of the employees at heart.	0.002***
6. VGSC4: The planning of objectives of the Union is satisfactory.	0.042**
7. VGSC5: The follow-up of the objectives of the Union by the employees is satisfactory.	0.044**
8. VGSC6: The planning of departmental objectives is satisfactory.	0.030**
9. VGSC7: There is adequate follow-through of departmental objectives.	0.001***
10. VGSC8: Directors of the Union are open to suggestions by employees.	0.004***
** P - Value < 0.05 *** P - Value < 0.01	
Appendix 3: Fisher exact test for "Cultural Influences, and Communication and Cultural Organizational Influences"	
Variables	**Fisher's Exact Test**
11. ICCO1: Information received from management is sufficiently frequent.	0.004***
12. ICCO2: Information received from management is sufficiently detailed.	0.002***
13. ICCO3: The organization considers and treats me as a human being, not a number.	0.005***
14. ICCO4: The organization provides me with sufficient recognition for a job well done.	0.000***
15. ICCO5: Quality is one of the principal priorities of the Union.	0.152
16. ICCO6: Job security is one of the principal priorities of the Union.	0.049**
17. ICCO7: There exists a spirit of cooperation between employees at work.	0.183
18. ICCO8: The partnership that exists between employees and management is satisfactory.	0.008***
19. ICCO9: The team spirit shown by managers is satisfactory.	0.046**
20. ICCO10: All employees are treated fairly without consideration of race, gender, religion, or sexual orientation.	0.000***
21. ICCO11: I am satisfied with the information given regarding the orientations of the Union.	0.040**
22. ICCO12: I am satisfied with the information given regarding the impact of changes on the horizon.	0.128
23. ICCO13: I am satisfied on the opportunity to participate in decisions that have consequences on my work.	0.019**
24. ICCO14: I am satisfied in the manner by which my superior manages his employees.	0.010**
25. ICCO15: I am satisfied in the manner by which my superior adjusts to unforeseen events.	0.018**
26. ICCO16: I am satisfied by the opportunities to help my colleagues at work.	0.120
27. ICCO17: I am satisfied by the opportunities to help public members of the credit union.	0.126
** P - Value < 0.05	

Appendix 1 – Fisher's Exact Test for "Personality"	
Variables	**Fisher's Exact Test**
*** P - Value < 0.01	

Appendix 4: Fisher Exact Test for "Work-related Situations"	
Variables	**Fisher's Exact Test**
28. WRS1: I enjoy the type of work that I do.	0.055*
29. WRS2: I have sufficient authority to make decisions.	0.171
30. WRS3: I feel that I am contributing to the mission of the Union.	0.012**
31. WRS4: I feel that I am indispensible to my employer.	0.532
32. WRS5: I feel that I am an integral part of the team in our organization.	0.005***
33. WRS6: My superior is open to my opinions and feedback.	0.049**
34. WRS7: My superior helps me to develop my potential.	0.056*
35. WRS8: The credit union provides me with the training that I need.	0.001***
36. WRS9: The credit union provides me with experience and adequate training to have access to promotions.	0.001***
37. WRS10: The credit union provides me with the necessary training to help me find the proper balance between work and my private life.	0.000***
38. WRS11: My office material is sound and sufficient.	0.034**
39. WRS12: Lighting at my workstation is satisfactory.	0.048**
40. WRS13: The cleanliness at my workstation is satisfactory.	0.114
41. WRS14: The sound level at my workstation is sufficiently controlled to allow me to concentrate on my work.	0.053*
42. WRS15: I feel secure at my workstation.	0.150
43. WRS16: My supervisor treats me fairly.	0.001***
44. WRS17: My supervisor respects me.	0.002***
45. WRS18: My supervisor keeps me informed on improvements required in my work.	0.090*
46. WRS19: I feel that I can believe in my supervisor.	0.001***
47. WRS20: The credit union provided me with the necessary initial training to carry out my work.	0.012**
48. WRS21: The credit union provides me with the information, equipment, and resources that I need for my work.	0.004***
49. WRS22: In general, I am satisfied with the fringe benefits offered by my employer.	0.007**
50. WRS23: I am especially pleased with vacation benefits.	0.201
51. WRS24: I am especially pleased with the pension plan.	0.004***
52. WRS25: I am especially pleased with the life insurance plan.	0.012**
53. WRS26: I am especially pleased with the health insurance plan.	0.155
54. WRS27: I am especially pleased with the salary insurance plan.	0.026**
55. WRS28: I am satisfied with the compliments I receive for a job well done.	0.007***
56. WRS29: I am satisfied with my possibilities for promotion.	0.037**
57. WRS30: I am pleased with my feeling of accomplishment that stems from my work.	0.001***
58. WRS31: I am pleased with the possibility of working alone, independently, and without supervision.	0.161

Appendix 4: Fisher Exact Test for "Work-related Situations"		
Variables		**Fisher's Exact Test**
59.	WRS32: I am pleased with the opportunity to try my own working methods.	0.044**
60.	WRS33: I am pleased with the possibilities for taking the initiative.	0.088*
61.	WRS34: I am pleased with the possibilities of informing colleagues on how to accomplish certain tasks.	0.005***
62.	WRS35: I am satisfied with the competence of my supervisor in decision-making.	0.018**
63.	WRS36: I am satisfied with my salary considering the importance and workload of my job.	0.132
64.	WRS37: I am pleased with the fact of always being occupied.	0.075*
65.	WRS38: I am pleased with the possibilities of performing different tasks now and again.	0.020*
66.	WRS39: I am pleased with the way my colleagues interact with each other.	0.038**
67.	WRS40: I am satisfied with the policies of the organization.	0.002***
* P - Value < 0.10 ** P - Value < 0.05 *** P - Value < 0.01		

Appendix 5: Fisher exact test for "Social Environment"		
Variables		**Fisher's Exact Test**
68.	SE1: I am satisfied with the perception that people in my circle have regarding my work.	0.054*
69.	SE2: I am satisfied with improvements in my social position.	0.044**
70.	SE3: I am satisfied with my free time outside work.	0.016**
71.	SE4: I am satisfied with the resulting work/family balance.	0.377
* P - Value < 0.10 ** P - Value < 0.01		

Appendix 6: Fisher exact test for "Global life Satisfaction"	
Variables	**Fisher's Exact Test**
72. GLS01: Overall, I am satisfied with my life in general.	0.253

JOURNEY TO THE TOP: ARE THERE REALLY GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE SELECTION AND UTILIZATION OF CAREER TACTICS?

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ABSTRACT

This investigation identifies and analyzes the tactics and upward mobility strategies utilized by men and women who successfully advanced into senior leadership positions. Although much of the leadership research over the past 50 years has focused on career success antecedents that existed prior to employment such as college reputation, intelligence, industry strength, personality traits and gender, the application of how successful individuals, of either gender, combine and manipulate different strategies to advance is not well understood. Our study provides evidence that successful career men and women behaved similarly on a majority of 15 identified key upward mobility tactics. We conducted 187 interviews with CEOs, presidents, managing directors and other leaders in 136 organizations using consensual qualitative research (CQR) and quantitative analysis. The results bring into focus these high-achieving men and women as formidable and equally-proficient career competitors. Practical implications and directions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: career success, upward mobility, career development, gender, career tactics

INTRODUCTION

There exists extensive research on career success characteristics, yet focused upward mobility studies are few and results have been inconclusive and often contested (Barrick & Zimmerman, 2009; Carter & Silva, 2010; Groysberg, 2008; Harris, 2008; Kelan & Jones, 2010). Moreover, researchers have noted that many gender questions regarding management success have gone unanswered and have repeatedly called for comparisons of how men and women in similar career situations create their upward journeys and what differences are exhibited (Gottfredson, 2005; Kirchmeyer, 1998; Powell & Mainiero, 1992; Whitmarsh, 2007). There is little empirical or theoretical support that provides an understanding of how males and females organize and formulate their career tactics on their ascendancy. To address this issue, our research provides empirical data specific to gender tactic selection and offers further theoretical insights into this dynamic. In addition, the findings have practical application that will contribute to the career strategies developed by both men and women.

Previous studies have largely explored pre-hire predictors or antecedents of career progression which emphasize factors that are established primarily prior to employment, but do not reflect the situational shifts and subsequent tactics that either males or females may exploit. The career literature on these career antecedents is extensive and includes factors such as demographic data, e.g., age, gender, race (Judge, Cable, Boudreau & Bretz, 1995; Kelan & Jones, 2010; Tharenou, 2001;); industry strength and profitability, e.g., (Bell & Straw, 1989; Eby, Butts & Lockwood, 2003; Siebert, Kraimer & Liden, 2001); and more psycho-social investigations, e.g., Big 5 personality dimensions, trait approaches (Boudreau, Boswell & Judge, 2001; Daft, 2008; Kirkpatrick & Lock, 1991; Stogdill, 1974); proactive personality traits (Seibert, Kraimer & Crant, 2001); and career and organization commitment (Sturges, Conway, Guest & Liefooghe, 2005; Sturges, Guest, Conway & Mackenzie Davey, 2002). However, these important studies provide little insight into those factors or tactics that can be controlled by individuals and modified against changing circumstances. And what few studies there are on upward mobility do not offer sufficient theoretical insight with regard to male-female differences (Whitmarsh, 2007). Further, within the growing body of research on women's careers there seems an overconcentration on barriers to advancement and work-life issues (Greenhaus & Foley, 2007; Kottke & Agars, 2005;). As women assume a greater percentage of managerial and professional positions, which the US Bureau of Labor Statistics reports as over 51% in 2009, along with increasing economic power, there has been a call for new models of career development that more fully explain the multi-dimensional complexity of upward mobility actions, apart from predetermanants (Kirchmeyer, 1998; Whitmarsh Browm, Cooper, Hawkins-Rogers & Wentworth, 2007).

Career Success

There exists a wide variety of definitional constructs applied to career success. Research on predictors includes demographic data, social capital, work orientation, and industry and organizational characteristics (Judge et al., 1995). Success, based upon this model, would include both objective and subjective measures. The objective measures may include compensation, title, level, and number of promotions. The subjective measures are focused on both work and life satisfaction as perceived from the viewpoint of the career player. Satisfaction measures, as well as predictors, have been subject to issues of standardization and have been contested (Ballou, 2010; Hall and Chandler, 2005).

The definition of success has been of great interest to scholars, career researchers, counselors, career aspirants, executives and organizations for many years. However, the definition has been elusive and has fluctuated according to interpretations of various career scholars and changing conditions over time (Gunz and Heslin, 2005). Contemporary career theory expands the complexities of success criteria to include the interdependencies of objective and subjective criteria, changing demographics, cultural shifts, family reconfigurations, new

career models and evaluation criteria (Heslin, 2005). Conceptually, career success can be viewed along a continuum with subjective criteria at one end and objective at the other. The subjective criteria focuses on the accomplishment of personal goals, work-life balance and self-selected dimensions of work that the individual considers meaningful and from which they receive personal satisfaction (Hall and Chandler, 2005). One challenge in determining subjective success criteria exists relative to scaling and standardization. For example, there may be a range of personal goals within work-life balance. Some individuals may focus on maximizing time with family, while others may consider success as having access to corporate fitness centers. Alternatively, at the other end of the continuum are the objective criteria and measurements for items generally tangible and easily measured such as compensation, job level, title, and span of control.

There are other issues, however, in interpreting career success that exists towards the middle of the continuum. Here we can find individuals who may report high levels of individual work-life satisfaction (subjective criteria), but low levels of compensation satisfaction (objective criteria). The converse is also possible. For example, executives may be satisfied with high levels of compensation, but unsatisfied with the demands of a high-pressure job. This issue also brings into play other psychological nuances of causality whereby objective outcomes such as high pay may "spillover" or influence subjective criteria causing the individual to accept a situation as more positive than what it might otherwise appear (Arthur, Khapova and Wilderom, 2005).

Contextual factors are also becoming more central in a tumultuous market where career aspirants no longer have psychological contracts and careers are sharply impacted by globalization, demographic shifts, technology changes and political upheaval. These issues and the associated lack of job security have created an emerging workforce which is more independent and where job loyalty and satisfaction or success is more fleeting. This has led to a series of alternative career paths with new career labels such as protean, kaleidoscope, boundaryless, hybrid and forced entrepreneurship (Sullivan and Baruch, 2009). These events have caused a shift in employee attitudes towards of both men and women. Difficult economic times and increasing lifespans have forced more dual-career couples into the marketplace. Single parent providers are also on the rise along with a recognized need for continuous education in order to remain competitive. Career players have become less dependent upon organizations that can't meet both economic and psychological needs. Leaner and flatter organizations leave fewer opportunities causing individuals to take control of their own circumstances by developing a highly comprehensive skill sets to facilitate career advancement, not just deeper job knowledge (Clark and Patrickson, 2008). Thus, individual differences in the ability to anticipate change coupled with the use of multiple tactics appropriate to the situation may account for individual success (Graysberg, 2008; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Laud and Johnson, 2012).

Some researchers have argued that the process of female advancement has been largely dependent upon variables or job antecedents outside the control of most women (Tharenou, 2001; Tharenou, Latimore & Conway, 1994). Examples would include structural factors at a

societal level such as gender-linked occupations, gender-linked career ladders, gender-linked selection practices and training, and gender-linked early association e.g., parents' employment (Ragins & Sunstrom, 1989, Tharenou, 2001). It would appear from this perspective that women, as well as men, may be relegated to an almost passive existence once they enter certain organizations and both may be more impacted by external structural forces as opposed to personal capability (Nabi, 1999). However, according to the U.S. Department of Labor (2009), the higher level positions in the labor force, i.e., managers, professionals and related positions are now dominated by females, 51.4%, although they only comprise 46.7% of the workforce suggesting that other factors other than structural may be impacting career advancement. For example, researchers have offered evidence that personality characteristics are strong determinants of career success, whether male or female, and, in particular, proactive personality coupled with career-related actions over an extended period of time will have a positive cumulative outcome on career progression (Siebert, Crant & Kraimer, 1999). Tharenou (2001) suggests that certain quasi-structural factors such as education and technical knowledge may play a larger role for women at lower organizational levels while subjective social factors such as networking may be necessary for advancement at other stages, similar to the actions of their male counterparts. With more women entering a quickly changing work environment and having equally impressive credentials and level of ambition as their male counterparts, the use of multiple career advancement tactics becomes more necessary for career success. This study focuses on career success based upon objective criteria related to upward hierarchical advancement as determined by title and position level.

Introduction to the Study

Based upon the several issues discussed above, this study seeks to expand our understanding of how men and women prioritize, organize and potentially differ in their selection of tactics and actions during their career ascendancy. This study differs from previous research by focusing on interview-based self-identified career tactics, and in-depth exploration as opposed to an analysis of researcher-generated antecedents and gender-linked pre-determinants.

METHOD

Research Design and Procedures

Our research required a sequential exploratory design that was comprised of two major steps. The first was a qualitative component designed to gather and understand the participants career ambitions, perceptions, and upward mobility strategies. In particular, the investigation sought to review a range of career tactics, determine male-female rank ordering of the tactics, and identify any preferences that might emerge due to gender differences. The researchers

selected consensual qualitative research (CQR) as a growing and proven methodology documented in the social sciences to help provide a better understanding of the tactical decision making of our sample group (Polkinghorne, 2005). The CQR narrative method is used to draw qualitative information from interview-based samples and fosters the exploration of a greater range of information than predetermined or fixed variable testing would uncover (Denzin & Lincoln, 2004; Hill, Thompson & Williams, 1997). This narrative approach, or social constructionism, is welcome in career research where routes are not stable structures and careers and relationships are influenced by context and interactions (Cohen, Duberly &Mallon, 2004); Omair, 2009). Hence, our CQR approach for this area of career research is the preferred vehicle and allows for a holistic perspective (Churchill, 1999; Gersick, Bartunek, & Dutton, 2000; Kotler & Armstrong, 2010; Straus and Corbin, 1998; Sue, Torino, Capodilupo, Rivera & Lin, 2009)

Our mixed-methods approach also incorporated an "on-going discovery" data analysis technique suggested by Taylor and Bogdan (1998) that focuses less on theory development and more on the identification of themes, insights and deep understanding of people while fitting the emerging data within an existing framework (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2011). Although broad generalizations about findings is certainly of interest, the emphasis here is on a refined understanding of a population group, in this case successful men and women executives, within a timeframe. Moreover, our intention to use exploratory methods is supported by Marshall and Rossman (1995) who posit that qualitative research, especially through interviewing, should emphasize the participant's view, not the interest of the researcher. The researchers were careful to let the interviewees discuss their career tactics without cues or prompts, or the mention of predeterminants.

The first major step focused on utilizing CQR interviewing strategy. An interview guideline was developed that was based on overarching questions regarding upward mobility. Broad questioning categories were presented relating to career paths, advancement philosophy, turning points, specific differentiators, critical actions and challenges. A series of semi-structured interviews were then conducted that lasted 60-90 minutes. The interviews were conducted by MBA students in an advanced management elective course who were trained in the protocol and CQR research methods which included an emphasis on minimizing rater bias. The interview guide consisted of 14 questions, and demographic information was also collected. Detailed notes and quotes were carefully taken as were recordings when permitted. This process provided a richness of case study and narrative information as the preferred vehicles for conveying complex human experience (Gersick, Bartunek, & Dutton, 2000).

Following QCR and exploratory interview strategy (Sue et al.,1998), the interview information was summarized into domains or major themes derived from the 187 interviews. This task was performed by a group of three graduate research assistants. Two qualified judges with PhDs in organizational behavior then reexamined the findings in a blind review and any differences were reconciled on a consensus basis with the primary author (Hill, Knox, Thompson, Williams, Hess & Ladany, 2005; Sue et al., 2009).

Our findings on the 15 tactical items were then reviewed after conducting a wide literature search that focused on gender differences. This method follows the approach of Taylor and Bogdan (1998) in an effort to enrich our understanding of particular populations. The findings were further scrutinized to determine fit against the literature and provide any additional insights.

The second major step in our process was to provide quantitative examinations of the male and female responses in order to reveal subtle relational characteristics and to refine or validate our findings. This additional step contributed empirical weight to our interpretation of the data. Each of the identified categories was coded by an advanced graduate researcher who was trained in the techniques used and provided with definitions to ensure accuracy. The coding was then reviewed by the authors and any discrepancies were discussed and resolved.

Sample Organizations and Demographics

This study had a sample base consisting of 187 participants across 136 organizations. To be included in the study, individuals had to meet certain criteria: 1). both men and women had to have attained a position with a title reflective of a leadership rank; 2) all positions had to be earned positions as opposed to family legacy businesses, or stock or ownership transference; 3). respondents had to have at least a BA, BS or higher degree. Table 1 provides an overview of the sample base and characteristics.

Table 1. Sample Base and Characteristics		Number	Percentage
Total Participants		187	100
Total Organizations		136	100
Interviews by Sector			
Industry		107	57
Education		31	17
Government		18	9
Nonprofits		18	9
Military		13	7
Position Level	**Titles**		
Top Management	CEO, president, managing director, EVP, chancellor	35	19
Senior Management	SVP, VP, commissioner, principal, director	130	70
Mid-Level Management	AVP, area manager, associate director, military officer	22	11
Gender			
Males		118	70
Females		52	30
*no response (deleted)		17*	-
Age	<35	23	12
	36-50	91	48
	51-65	73	39
	>65	0	0
Education	BA/BS or above	187	100

Examples of the industrial/service organizations in the sample include Verizon, Neuberger Berman, Coca Cola, Morgan Stanley, Macy's, Merrill Lynch, Keyspan, ING, Waste Management, USB, Burberry's, and Goldman Sachs. Examples of the government, educational and nonprofits include the US Army, NYS and New York City government, City University of New York and the Guggenheim Museum.

DATA ANALYSIS

Examining upward mobility tactics by gender

Much of the traditional research suggests that male and female managers may differ in their management style. This study sought to assess whether the upward mobility tactics selected by men and women also differed for our sample base of high level executives. The combined male-female rank order and definitions of these tactics is shown in Table 2 (adapted from Laud & Johnson, 2012).

| Table 2. Combined gender rank order (most to least) of the typography of the 15 Tactic Categories (adapted from Laud & Johnson (2011).	
Tactic Categories	**Examples**
1. Interpersonal	People interaction, social communications, emotional intelligence
2. Motivation	Aggressiveness, ambition, challenge
3. Planning	Goal directed, preparation, strategizing
4. Leadership Style	Influence process, motivational style, personality traits
5. Training and Education	Formal schooling, executive development, experience
6. Networking	Relationships, mentors, visibility, sponsorship
7. Reputation and Integrity	Honesty, trust, accountability, credibility
8 Politics	Diplomacy, involvement, influence
9 Confidence	Courage, Assertiveness, Initiative
10. Risk Taking	Speculate, take leaps, negotiate uncertainty
11. Balance	Work-life balance, centeredness, knowing limits
12. Communications	Persuasiveness, positioning, oral and written capability
13. Work Quality	Efficiency, competency excellence, results
14. Luck	Unforeseen circumstance, chance, unplanned occurrence
15. Opportunity	Seizing situations, creating advantage, insight

Further examination revealed a framework of four distinct groupings (p-values <.005) of the tactics. The male and female rankings for the selection of the 15 advancement tactics within the four groups is presented in Figure 1 and provided the basis of our quantitative analysis of the gender comparisons.

An omnibus chi-square test was performed to determine if there were any differences between men and women across the 15 tactics. The p-value was 0.51 (chi-square =14.5, df =15). Table 3 shows the observed percentages for each of the 15 tactics and reports the p-values comparing the men and women for each individual tactic. The smallest observed p-value was .054 for the networking tactic. Thus, there were no significant differences in how male and female career aspirants approached their upward trajectories even though there were some observable differences such as a greater use of networking and education for females.

Table 3. Pair-wise p-value for Ranked Tactics

Tactic Groupings	Tactic Category	Percent Mentions (Males)	Percent Mentions (Females)	P-Values
Foundation Strategies	Interpersonal	49.2	48.1	1.000
	Motivation	45.8	44.2	0.869
	Planning	49.2	44.2	0.618
	Leadership Style	44.1	34.6	0.311
Building Self-Brand	Training&Education	33.1	46.2	0.122
	Network	29.7	46.2	0.054
	Reputation&Integrity	31.4	34.6	0.723
	Politics	24.6	30.8	0.452
	Confidence	28.8	21.2	0.349
Being Centered	Risk Taking	14.4	15.4	1.000
	Balance	11.0	15.4	0.453
	Communication	12.7	11.5	1.000
	Work Quality	13.6	11.5	0.808
Seizing Opportunity	Luck	7.6	15.4	0.164
	Opportunity	5.1	1.9	0.677

This overall similarity, however, is a key finding as it provides substantial empirical weight to emerging anecdotal hypotheses that males and females utilize similar strategies without significant regard to gender bias when competing for top positions in organizations (Hopkins as cited in Golman, 2008). In particular, the similarity of tactics between females and males may be partially explained as a likely reflection of the leveling effect of education, information access, cultural shifts, and the continuous influx of women at more senior levels of management (Cox & Harquail, 1991; Morrison & Glinow, 1990). These results indicate that both genders consider individual success to be dependent upon performing in concert with the organizational culture and that gender impact is moderated in a more equalized business environment.

Figure 1: Percentage of Men and Women Mentioning Tactic Category

Foundation Strategies   Building Self Brand   Being Centered   Seizing Opportunity
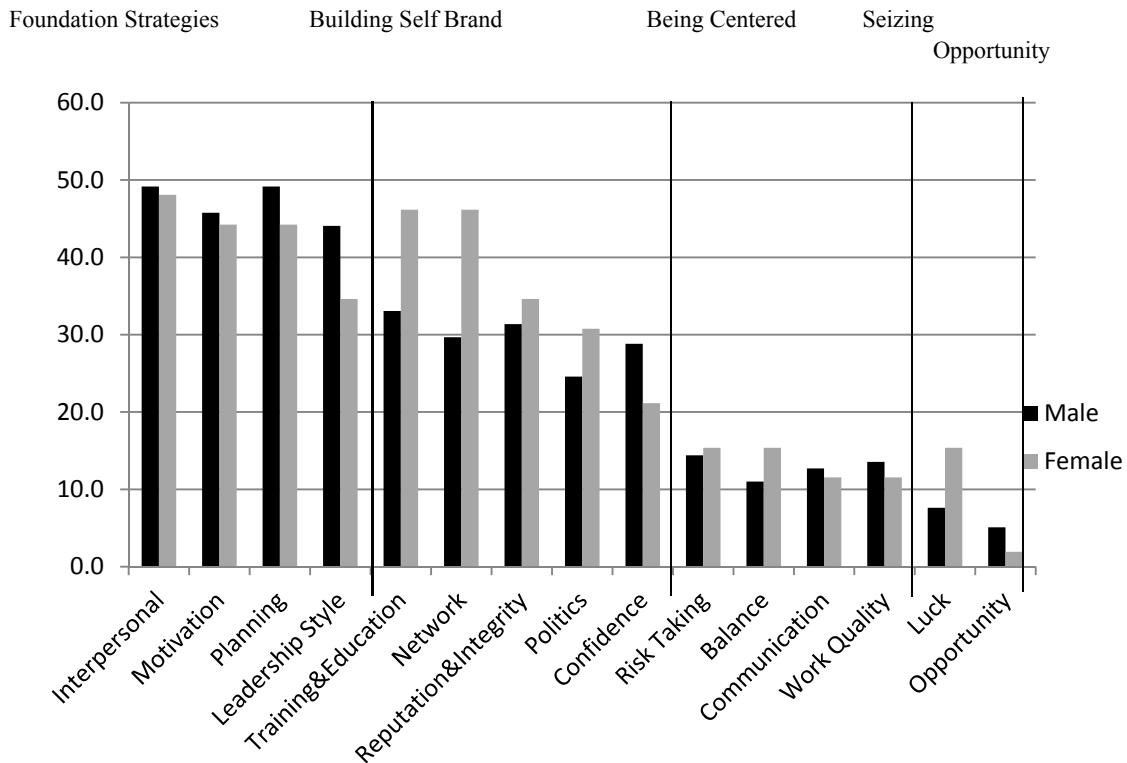
DISCUSSION

Foundation Strategies

The first of the four tactical groupings investigated by gender was Foundation Strategies which includes: interpersonal skills, self-motivation, planning, and leadership style. This particular grouping reflects the aspirants' job orientation, capability to work with others, and the desire to achieve and lead. The highest score for either gender within the category, and the overall study, was interpersonal tactics with a combined score of 48.7**%.** As expected, this finding provides support to other studies noting the importance of interpersonal skills to job level attainment and compensation (Tosi, Misangy, Fanelli, Waldman & Yammarino, 2004) and longer-term leadership and career success (Daft, 2008; Golman, 1998). The results showed that the general pattern of men's and women's scores was fairly consistent in Foundation Strategies, but there were some distinctions of interest. Men believed that planning (49% mentions) which includes visioning, strategizing, goal setting and preparation was equally important to them as

interpersonal skills (also 49 % mentions and tied as the number one ranking for men). The female ranking also included planning in Foundation Strategies, but scored it lower (44% mentions, fourth place ranking). Women perceived the results of careful planning as useful, but other factors such as education, networking and luck were generally more important to them than their male counterparts in influencing outcomes (see Seizing Opportunity below.)

The concept of motivation (see Table 2), which was defined as aggressiveness, ambition to succeed, and readiness for challenge, for both males and females, received the third highest overall score (45%) under Foundation Strategies. This finding indicates the powerful effect of motivation in driving and expanding one's career advancement activities and the importance of taking initiative to improve circumstances rather than maintaining a passive adherence to the status quo. Importantly, the utilization of these skills sets is guided by and under the control of the individual as opposed to pre-determinants such as gender or intelligence which were factors not highlighted in the interviews with either males or females.

Our interviews with these high-achieving individuals also uncovered an interesting motivational theme that allowed a select group of our aspirants to go beyond their already accomplished peer group in advancing their career agendas. This unique group, both male and female, demonstrated a noteworthy capacity to persist in spite of major organizational changes, performance setbacks and even personal issues of divorce, health and death in a family. This type of mental toughness permitted these individuals to sustain work efforts under pressures that others could not tolerate. What is especially interesting is that these career-armored competitors often seemed rather impervious to extreme situations. This gender-blind desire to win is intense and their sheer determination and grit would overcome seemingly insurmountable obstacles. Jones (2008) described very similar traits in the mental toughness of elite athletes, Olympic performers, and other top champions.

Building Self Brand

The second upward mobility grouping refers to the intention of the career seeker to create a personal "brand-image" that sets them apart in a positive manner from other competitors. Building Self-brand (overall score 34%) includes the following tactics: training and education, networking, reputation and integrity, politics, and confidence.

Females in our study ranked education/training and networking equally (46%) as the second highest scoring tactics in the study for women. This was a considerably higher ranking compared to their male counterparts who scored training and education 35% and networking 30%. This is generally consistent with other extant studies that have found education/training and networking to be of high importance to females in the workplace (Kirchmeyer, 1998; Tharenou, 1997).

Although the findings were supportive of related studies highlighting the importance of education as one of the strongest predictors of professional advancement (Judge et al., 1995;

Landou & Arthur, 1992; Tharenou & Conroy, 1994), education was not as valued by men who ranked it 5 out of 15 which moved it into the secondary strategic category compared to women who ranked it 2 out of 15 which placed it as a primary strategy for women. This is a noteworthy finding in that no evidence in our interviews suggested that men devalued education as a necessary component to enter an upward mobility trajectory, but they did appear to consider it of less importance over time. Thus, education was recognized as important, as other research has shown, but our study points to an important "game change" strategy for men. Once they have met the entry criteria for upward mobility competition, males reoriented to focus on planning (goal directed, preparation, strategizing), motivation (aggressiveness, ambition and challenge) and leadership style (influence process, motivational style, personality traits) more intensely than women. Males demonstrated flexibility and responsiveness to changing organization circumstances by exploiting or recombining skills categories. In contrast, female leaders in our study placed a higher value on education as a continuous means to develop advanced or unique knowledge and insights. Women appear to see education and training as a tangible antecedent to success, and an asset they may be better able to control and, indeed, often surpass their male counterparts.

In a study of surreptitious behaviors (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006) reported that when aspirants encountered unreasonable supervisory-driven impediments, three-quarters of the superiors were of a different gender. Women in our study, especially those operating in traditionally male-dominated ranks or organizations, reported feeling vulnerable to what they believed to be irrational management decisions based upon gender assumptions. It may be that these talented women frequently looked towards education as a means to provide a more logical foundation to support their career ambitions by linking job criteria to objective measures of education that would be hard to dismiss. Nonetheless, given this unfavorable position overall, some females also felt less prepared or at a disadvantage to deal with the risk and uncertainty that would likely come with more aggressive behavior. Fels (2004) argues that women, traditionally, have been reluctant to display ambition that may be perceived by others as self-aggrandizing or to act in ways that others may think manipulative. Consequently, overt or even restrained ambition and self-promotion still appear to be anchors for some women in our study, but these same behaviors appear to be a priority and desirable approach for men in general as evidenced by their higher motivational scores which include aggression and ambition as subcomponents.

Networking was rated higher by females (42%) than males (30%) with females often reporting feelings of isolation or lack of acceptance in male dominated environments. In order to overcome this distress, women sought support and advice from those in their organizations who have faced similar career challenges. Accordingly, the popularity of female executive support groups are evident at numerous prestigious organizations including those with substantial funding, resources and approved release time such as Deloitte Touche, Accenture, Bayer, Capital One Financial, Citigroup, Colgate Palmolive, DuPont, HP, IBM, Johnson & Johnson, Merck &

Co., Patagonia and Procter & Gamble, to name a few. These organizations are committed to female management development through networking structures, formal mentorship programs, specialized career counseling, professional coaching for women, seminars, clubs, meetings and conferences in order to foster female retention, motivation and career opportunities. Female respondents in our study also reported that networking is especially valuable for younger female career hopefuls and encouraged them to join these groups in order to secure mentors who will guide their younger protégés, especially in complex male-oriented domains.

In our investigation, female executives frequently reported that they had male mentors and sponsors who supported their careers, sometimes from entry through senior level leadership positions, and did so with equal enthusiasm and zeal as female mentors. Thus, our study indicates that both gender and non-gender networking are useful tactics in helping women to advance.

Comparing male and female scores on confidence, the study showed that men (29%) and women (21%) valued confidence, but to a different degree. Although both genders displayed self-confidence and both ranked it ninth as mentioned, men were more likely to be overtly assertive with a "take charge" attitude as opposed to their female counterparts who were less comfortable with this type of behavior. Some women appeared to downplay their potential value and may have been uneasy about what they perceive as being prideful or less feminine. This behavior is associated with the gender versus leadership expectation which may be more conflicting for women. This is consistent with other studies (Fels, 2004; Tharenou & Conroy, 1994) that have shown that women, especially mid-level, often need more encouragement and mentor support to advance in their careers, and perhaps also more awareness of their value than their male counterparts. Importantly, there was evidence that women in high level or powerful male-dominated positions displayed a greater level of confidence than women in more female-oriented positions and appeared more similar to their male counterparts (Ragins and Sundstrom,1989). Our overall finding of general similarity or lack of statistical significance between male and female upward mobility strategies for these successful individuals in all four strategic categories provide additional empirical evidence that advancement may be more dependent upon matching or "fitting-in" with the expected executive and cultural environment than whether one is male or female (Bretz & Judge, 1994).

Being Centered

The third strategic category studied, Being Centered, consists of risk-taking, life balance, communication and work quality. In combination, these tactics contribute to the well-being of individuals in terms of developing a capacity for a healthy life perspective, interaction with others, and activity level for both work and non-work activities. Making clear and measured decisions under uncertainty, time pressure and peer competition requires a well-developed sense of self and self-control. Respondents in our study had remarkably close scores in this category

suggesting that both genders sought a judicious use of Being-Centered tactics which enabled them to sustain a level of competitiveness and risk exposure without the anticipated burnout associated with stressful high-pressure environments.

Risk-taking is the first component of this grouping with males and females scoring it similarly, 14% and 15%, respectively. Aspirants cited a broad range of career advancement risk-taking behaviors including decision-making under uncertainty, accepting difficult assignments, seeking relationships with senior executives, taking a moral position, engaging in political behavior, utilizing surreptitious or covert strategies (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006), and creating new directions and innovations.

Balanced work-life and communication were also ranked similarly by both genders (11% and 13% respectively for males, and 13% and 11% respectfully for females). Realization of work-life balance involves self-reflection, time management, multiple and divergent goal attainment, and living by one's values and ethical beliefs. Our anecdotal and empirical data for both males and females contribute to the findings of other researchers, as well as practitioners, who have argued that leaders must have work-life balance and qualities of ethics, courage, trust and strong communication skills in order to disseminate these values and skills through their organizations (Bennis & O'tool, 2000). There is also evidence that the qualities of integrity which ranked seventh overall for both genders are related to the conscious choices in structuring one's life and integrating personal needs with work demand (Kofodimos, 1993). The empirical evidence that ties integrity and work-life balance to upward career mobility is an important finding and a worthwhile topic for future research.

Work quality is the fifth tactic under Being Centered and showed a slight difference between females (14%) and males (12%). Interestingly, these successful career aspirants recognized the need for work to meet a certain standard, but what was ultimately important to both genders was the evaluation of their work in the context of the factors that may contribute to the interpretation of quality and value. Females in our study appeared more concerned than their male counterparts that working hard was an underappreciated event and that the evaluation of work quality was seen dependent upon creating the appropriate perception of the result, which they were somewhat more reluctant to demonstrate. Fels (2004) noted similar results for females and suggested that they often place emphasis on hard work, but are conflicted on how to leverage or advertise their contributions. Consequently, the effect of communication and relationship management skills were considered essential to ensure the full benefit of work efforts.

Seizing Opportunity

The last of the four career strategy categories studied is Seizing Opportunity which refers to the predisposition that career aspirants have between the role of luck and opportunity creation as a means of advancing. Luck was defined as the identification of positive upward mobility situations that manifest themselves without planning and generally outside the control of the

career seeker. Opportunity was defined as successful career advancement based upon the aspirant's hard work, insight, planning and execution over extended periods of time. The majority of our respondents noted that some degree of luck was a critical factor in advancement, and a large subset of this group noted that luck could be maximized through long-term hard work. A minority of respondents noted that luck played no factor at all and that any advancement opportunity was attributable to the sheer determination of the individual.

The females in our study scored the effect of luck higher than their male counterparts, 15% and 8% respectively. This is noteworthy in that females are almost twice as likely to attribute career success to luck as do males. As a result, those females who believe luck plays a principal role in advancement are more apt to hold a negative perception of competitive situations anticipating that hard work may not have a commensurate return, as discussed previously. Consequently, by sacrificing even a small amount of effort in a highly competitive career situation, females may create a disadvantage, however slight, and negatively impact or limit their upward mobility, thereby, further reinforcing their belief in luck as a powerful career force (Cooper, Graham & Dyke,1993; Fisman & O'Neill, 2009; Niederle & Vesterlund, 2007).

As profound uncertainties continue within a highly complex global scenario, the phenomenon of luck in career advancement has taken on new meaning. Rather than conceptualizing luck as an occasional unplanned event of which one might take advantage, career aspirants should consider alternative proactive approaches that exploit "planned happenstance" through more systematic readiness. For example, Krumboltz and Levine (2004) suggest that career hopefuls capitalize on discontinuous changes by developing new orientations and skills in: curiosity, persistence, flexibility, optimism and risk-taking. The factor of luck which may have appeared minimal in times of stability, will now take on a larger and more regular role in an aspirant's need to recognize opportunity.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Whitmarsh et al., (2007) have stressed the need to compare females with males in similar career arenas. Our investigation responds to this request through our leadership sample group and also takes a step towards exploring potential gender differences within an emerging tactical career advancement typology. Both these influences lead to opportunities for further research on career advancement. First, this study was confined to successful male and female executives in order to explore tactical preferences within and between these particular groups. It is suggest that a follow-up study of individuals who did not enter these ranks be conducted which may help to discriminate tactic preferences between the two groups or, perhaps, uncover issues in the effectiveness of the tactic application. Second, it would be interesting to evaluate gender differences across organization levels to determine if certain strategies and tactics are more applicable to certain ranks seeking promotion. The relationship between integrity and work-life balance with upward career mobility presents a broad and worthwhile topic for further research.

Lastly, the study was conducted in one country, but it would be beneficial to explore how genders might differ in their application of tactics in various national cultures.

Contributions and Implications for Practice

Our investigation also contributes additional insights to career and gender research by providing empirical evidence that the successful males and females in our study behave similarly on the vast majority of key advancement tactics. This is an important finding suggesting that gender may not play as meaningful a role as previously thought in the selection of preferred career advancement tactics. The successful females in our study appeared not to be overly burdened by gender stereotypes, but did take advantage of opportunities when it was perceived they might gain an edge, especially through networking and education. Our anecdotal and empirical findings demonstrated that career-oriented males would seek to gain advantage with a focus on ambition and self-promotion. It appears that both genders can learn from each other. And indeed, not just the males in our study, but the females similarly exhibited a keen interest in competition, an ability to persevere and a strong desire to excel. Understanding and effectively applying the range of upward mobility tactics may expand options for both genders. These tools can also enable career counselors and human resource practitioners in developing more prescriptive advancement strategies and choices for their counselees.

The effective use of similar tactics and strategies exploited by males and females alike may be partially attributable to the leveling effects of socio-economic shifts, improved educational access, cultural trends, and the continuous influx of women at more senior levels of management (Cox & Harquail, 1991; Morrison & Glinow, 1990). In 1980, women comprised 24% of management positions and by 2006, 42% (Munoz-Bullon, 2010). By year end 2009 women comprised over 51% of the high-paying managerial, professional and related occupations in the workplace, many of which have been historically male dominated. Thus, women achieved a somewhat larger share of high level positions than their share of total employment at 47%. Our study helps bring into focus these high-achieving women as formidable and equally-skilled career competitors as their male counterparts. These women have helped create a level playing field and, indeed, can wield a great deal of power.

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IMPLEMENTING AND MAINTAINING A KNOWLEDGE SHARING CULTURE VIA KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT TEAMS: A SHARED LEADERSHIP APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the role and impact of knowledge management teams employing sharing leadership principles within the organization. A conceptual model is presented that addresses the impact teams have in creating and maintaining a knowledge sharing culture and driving and sustaining change via strategic knowledge management program and project initiatives. By taking an in-depth look at the underlying challenges and breakthroughs related to driving and supporting change via knowledge management, this article addresses the common challenges of capturing tacit knowledge, leveraging systems and tools, and promoting collaboration and collaborative efforts by providing a team-based framework that seeks to facilitate dialogue among change leaders and knowledge team members on addressing the strengths and shortcomings of knowledge management efforts with a focus on influencing organizational culture. Finally, this article integrates the principles of shared leadership and how these principles effectively integrated can be employed by knowledge management teams to address common challenges experienced by organizational leaders and knowledge management teams.

Key Words: knowledge sharing culture, shared principles, organizational teams, knowledge management strategy

INTRODUCTION

The need to effectively manage both organizational knowledge and organizational teams present both opportunity and challenge for the contemporary organization. In the area of knowledge management, the challenges range from creating and sustaining a knowledge management infrastructure, to effective employment of tools and systems, and navigation of organizational culture (Janz & Prasarnphanich, 2003; Lee & Choi, 2003). Related to organizational teams and work groups, the challenges include team leadership, identifying ways

to achieve maximum productivity, developing and implementing shared vision and goals, and managing conflict (Hass & Hansen, 2007; Pearce & Ensley, 2004; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001). Accompanying those challenges is increased integration and employment of knowledge management processes and tools within organizational work teams. Yet, review of practitioner-based and academic research has produced very little insight in capturing knowledge management team behaviors that impact an organization's culture and contribute to the effective implementation and sustainment of knowledge management goals. Further, there is a lack of coherent practitioner insight that effectively brings forth how knowledge management teams can employ behaviors consistent with the principles of shared leadership within a team structure that has a positive impact toward achieving the organization's strategic goals (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Proctor, 2010; Robb, 2003; Thompson, Nishant, Goh, & Agarwal, 2011). With this and based on practitioner experience of writer and colleagues in this area, it is considered important that an exploration into knowledge management teams and the principles of shared leadership be together considered with an objective of developing a conceptual model that can prove useful in developing an organizational framework to help facilitate knowledge management implementation efforts and support sustaining those efforts.

The specific aim of this six-part paper is to outline how an organization can implement knowledge management teams that have positive impact in creating and maintaining an organizational knowledge sharing culture via the integration of organizational teams and shared leadership principles. Part 1 provides an overview on knowledge management, shared leadership, and the role of teams in the organization, discussing the impact that these constructs and structure have on the organization's strategy and operations. Part 2 is a discussion that brings forth the factors and elements of a knowledge sharing culture, highlighting the impact and role of culture on an organization's ability to implement its knowledge management change efforts via knowledge management teams. Part 3 presents a conceptual model that highlights how an organization can implement knowledge management teams during its strategy and change management planning and execution processes. Part 4 outlines how knowledge management team practices can be identified and developed via the employment of shared leadership principles. Part 5 captures the cultural challenges faced by the organization while implementing knowledge management teams attempting to create a knowledge sharing culture and ways to address those challenges. Part 6 is a summary of the salient factors discussed in the aforementioned sections, and how together those factors support the implementation of knowledge management teams and the sustainment of their efforts in helping to create a knowledge sharing culture. The paper concludes by providing a way ahead for organizational leaders and managers as attempts are put forth to leverage, exploit, and expand the value created by knowledge management teams while also having an influence in helping to create and maintain a knowledge sharing culture.

PART 1: KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT OVERVIEW

The ability and need to gain, access, leverage, and exploit information to the organization's advantage in support of its organizational goals is an accepted axiom, and over the last three decades attention to the concept of knowledge management has attempted to gain some insight and clarity on how this can be achieved (Austin, Claassen, Vu & Mizrahi, 2008). Since being introduced as a major organizational theory and concept, various notions of what suffices as knowledge and how knowledge is optimally managed has received considerable attention and despite various views, a common objective across all organizations is that effective knowledge management is having an ability to strategically employ knowledge in an effort to gain an advantage in the marketplace (Austin, et al., 2008; Davenport, De Long, & Beers, 1998; Lee & Choi, 2003).

Over time knowledge management programs and projects served as vehicles to deliver tangible output while achieving systematic and process gains centered on the enablers of human capital and information systems technology (Austin et al., 2008; Davenport, 2011; Davenport et al., 1998). For example, a crucial underpinning and component of knowledge management was on the management of data and information and how information, sourced from individual and groups, is extrapolated, captured, stored, and exploited for future use within the organization (Alavi, Kayworth, & Leidner, 2006; Lee & Choi, 2003). Related to this management flow and access were the actual tools, processes, and systems that organizations employ that drive and enhance an organization's performance and help achieve it strategic aims. Some specific tools and processes include data repositories, knowledge and learning platforms and systems, and enterprise resource planning technology (Davenport et al., 1998; Lee & Choi, 2003; Thompson, Nishant, Goh, & Agarwal, 2011). In any case, knowledge management programs and projects along with the tools and systems have been a long standing point of contention and misunderstanding within organizational knowledge management initiatives. Evidence based upon experience and literature is the considerable impact and success of knowledge management programs and projects while other projects are classified as having more modest and incremental gains (Davenport et al., 1998; Lee & Choi, 2003; Smith, McKeen, & Singh, 2010). Specific questions and shared challenges across programs and projects centered on how some organizations could be well resourced in the area of knowledge management tools yet still fall short of its knowledge management goals. These questions and challenges led, in some cases, to more focused assessments on the role and impact of culture, strategy formulation and deployment, senior leadership commitment and sponsorship (Alavi et al., 2006; Davenport et al., 1998; Smith, et al,. 2010).   What seems almost elusive are solid specific answers related to organizational knowledge management challenges arguably because there are so many contrasting views and emphasis of what suffices as knowledge management (Davenport et al., 1998; Lee & Choi, 2003).   Yet, this does not negate the reality that the business case and

strategic value of knowledge management known and in some cases well captured within the research and practitioner-oriented literature, provides empirical validated instances of bottom-line efficiency and top-line growth benefit to include product and service innovation, improved processes, organizational problem solving, and delivering on customer needs and expectations (Alavi et al., 2006; Davenport et al., 1998; Lee & Choi, 2003). As an example, HP's well documented efforts captured by Thompson et al. (2011) and Davenport et al. (1998) vividly demonstrate the strategic value of knowledge management when driven and supported by a knowledge sharing culture that is aligned with the organization's strategic aims – not to mention the sustained commitment to executives and senior leaders that believe in the value of knowledge management. Also evident within the literature is the role and significance of human capital, and more narrowly, the role of teams within the organization. Specifically, how organizational workforce members and teams convert tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge, what motivates them to do so, and what were the various means in which data and information is shared among team members and made available at the right place at the right time (O'Dell & Hubert, 2011; Thompson et al., 2011).

Shared Leadership Overview

Shared leadership, which is commonly credited to Yukl with rooted origins and related researching existing since the early 20th century, focuses on effective teams and work groups associated with humanistic organizational design (Pearce & Conger, 2003). The concept has experienced cycles of interest and periods of intensity and at its core, shared leadership is a dynamic, networked-based view of leadership occurring within teams above and beyond formal appointed leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Yukl, 1998). Shared leadership advances from a notion that vertical leadership although effective is enhanced when leadership is willingly shared between team members (Pearce & Sims, 2002). This sharing of leadership has the benefit of adding breadth and depth to team approaches, addressing team issues such as developing alternative solutions and contributing insight into shared influenced by team members performing in leadership roles based on the contextual circumstances and challenges faced by the team (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Shared leadership's application and focus relevant and related to team performance has also yielded insight into how the organizational leadership and team members can reach ideal levels of group performance in key areas such as task performance, change management implementation, and informal leadership (Carson et al., 2007; Pearce & Manz, 2011; Pearce & Sims, 2002). To summarize, one could state that the research and value of shared leadership has proven valuable to the field of organizational leadership in the aforementioned areas. Also noteworthy is that the elements associated with shared leadership are often related to, if not wholesale included within, major leadership theories such as transformational, charismatic, and empowering leadership with one of the most exhaustive comparative explorations conducted by Pearce and Sims (2002). A

review of the academic literature highlights a concept in which the shared leadership is experiencing growth and receiving insight at the margins, yet, there remain scant empirical-based research that relate its business value or provide evidence of prolonged periods of focus by practitioner or academic. There are a few noted exceptions, with Pearce, Sims, Manz, and colleagues being among these exceptions, whose collective work proves useful in distinguishing shared leadership and highlighting its business and organizational value. Finally, comprehensive review suggests that what eludes the concept of shared leadership is any sustained and targeted effort held long enough to yield a prescriptive approach that can unmistakably be linked and credited to the concept. This does not suggest that there is an absence of value. Indeed, shared leadership has brought attention to the bounds of individual knowledge and how teams can advance the organization's goals via the effective collaboration and cross-functional skills of knowledgeable members that demonstrate an ability and willingness to share information, perform as informal leaders, engage in constructive collaboration, and exert lateral positive peer influence (Ensley & Pearce, 2001; Ensley, Pearson, & Pearce, 2003; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Viewed by some as being based on the underlying concepts of emergent leadership, leadership substitution, and empowerment, shared leadership is often considered as a context-based form of leadership in which team members possess a shared vision and an ability to oscillate between leadership and follower roles based upon defined needs and as situational circumstances dictate (Ensley et al., 2003; Manz & Sims, 1993; Pearce & Sims, 2002). In sum, while traditional, top-down, vertical leadership is important, in fact vital to the success and sponsorship of teams, the key value of shared leadership brings forth the importance of task accomplishment and goal achievement accomplished within a dynamic environment in which the sum of individual team member efforts are greater than the individual effort thereby contributing value to team goals (Ensley et al. 2003; Pearce & Sims, 2002).

The Role of Teams

Organizational teams, hereafter referred to as knowledge management teams, are recognized as being essential to the implementation of knowledge management programs and projects (Procter 2010; Robb, 2003) and while there is dialogue, research, and practitioner accounts that support the interworking of knowledge management teams, the dynamic and the role of shared leadership is rarely captured within the literature. Further, how teams contribute to a knowledge sharing culture as a result of employing shared leadership principles and elements is currently under-research, at least in an intentional and explicit sense where shared leadership principles are linked to knowledge management teams. This is an important void for one can logically assume that benefit and insight stands to be gained that may have a positive influence on organizational change strategies and underlying knowledge management efforts. At the very least, the absence of dialogue and missed opportunity to gain insight is logical to concede. This relates to a key objective of this article, for it is the belief that such an approach

and dialogue, accompanied by a conceptual model, can be useful in discerning how knowledge management teams, employing shared leadership principles, can provide benefit to the organization. This clear approach and model can facilitate gaining further insight into how the organization can leverage knowledge management teams in an effort to create a knowledge sharing culture and perhaps develop a distinctive capability in employing shared leadership principles to include collaboration, innovation, creativity, and performance (Ensley et al., 2003). Finally, this roadmap and model may provide benefit to organizational leaders and practitioners on how to effectively align knowledge management team efforts to the organization's strategy, which could contribute to efficient employment of human and technology assets. The organization and its employees stand to gain and the focused exploration, integration and development of a well defined approach and model is in order. Lastly is the benefit of study and application of shared leadership in itself. What lies ahead is an opportunity to operationalize the concept of shared leadership beyond the theoretical or the mere contributory latch-on construct to a level of practical value viewed alongside more established leadership theories. Here is an opportunity to allow organizational leaders and practitioners to effectively expand the concept of shared leadership and relate its value to the organization with specific focus on the impact and role of knowledge management teams during knowledge management project implementation and sustainment efforts. Beginning this journey does not represent uncharted territory or indicate a lack of thoughtful consideration as Procter (2010) astutely notes that "[l]eadership shared with followers in the learning organization is an effective method of knowledge management" (p. 2). In addition, dimensions and elements associated with shared leadership, such as collaboration, creativity, innovation, and information sharing have been implied to contribute to successful knowledge management implementation and building a knowledge culture (Ensley et al., 2003; Lam, 2005; Procter, 2010). Organizational success related to employing teams during knowledge management initiatives is available with the efforts of HP, Capital One, and Seven 11 being well documented in the literature (Davenport & Harris, 2007; Thompson et al., 2011). What is lacking is an explicit, clear framing that outlines the implementation and sustainment of knowledge management efforts driven by knowledge management teams, coupled with methods that facilitate a migration toward a knowledge sharing culture. This is where it is appropriate to clearly frame the problem: There is no identified process or model that demonstrates how knowledge management teams within organizations can help drive the organization's knowledge management efforts employing shared leadership principles contributing to building a knowledge sharing culture. This article explores this problem and outlines how an organization can achieve its knowledge management change efforts through the effective use of teams employing shared leadership principles while also building a knowledge sharing culture.

PART 2: A FOCUSED LOOK AT CULTURE AND CREATING KNOWLEDGE SHARING CULTURE

Janz and Prasarnphanich (2003) noted the increased understanding of the concept of knowledge management while also bringing forth the lack of insight into how to create a knowledge sharing culture, which they referred to as a knowledge creating culture. This early turn of phrase (knowledge creating culture) has morphed and been referred to by various labels, yet is largely identical to the knowledge sharing culture concept and was one of the first studies that pointed out the organization's challenge in creating and disseminating knowledge in the organization.   Janz and Prasarnphanich's observation is important for culture is the foundation, the lynchpin, of establishing trust that impacts the degree of employee buy-in, underlies the willingness to share information and collaborate, and highlights the commitment to drive and sustain change throughout the organization; it can be said that culture is the blueprint that determines the organization's will and ability to survive environmental disruptions, the changes these disruptions bring about, and the ability to advance the organization along its lifecycle (Alavi et al., 2006; Barney, 1986; Janz & Prasarnphanich, 2003).

The impact of culture is often viewed as being the most significant factor in determining the success or failure of knowledge management implementation and sustainment efforts including the openness to employing organizational teams within the organization (Alavi et al,. 2006). Some crucial elements of an organization's culture that require consideration include its values, norms, belief systems, and its interactions with the external environment. Knowledge management specific considerations would include the organization's access to information, individual and group trust, view of information systems and support tools, and the organization's informal and formal networks (Alavi et al., 2006; Janz & Prasarnphanich, 2003; Mital, 2007; Thompson et al., 2011).

The weight of values and trust related to an organization's culture serves as key underlying drivers that impact knowledge dissemination and information sharing (Alavi et al., 2006; Janz & Prasarnphanich, 2003). Values can impact how an organization, its leadership, and teams view knowledge creation and sharing within the organization and its willingness to employ the systems and tools related to knowledge management project implementation efforts. Taken altogether, values contribute to the organization's ability to accomplish its knowledge management goals and objectives (Alavi et al., 2006). Finally, organizational values can serve as an indication of how teams view knowledge; provide insight into possible approaches used to determine and develop philosophical means and methods to address knowledge transfers, and achieve perspective on internal and external team relations that facilitate knowledge employment (Alavi et al., 2006). Taken together, culture and more specifically values and trust can provide a means to understand views on sharing information, willingness to collaborate, and views on leveraging tools and processes needed to achieve the benefit related to effective teams (Alavi et al., 2006; Davenport et al., 1998; Thompson et al., 2011).

There are a couple of themes brought forth by the literature that will serve as key assumptions for purposes herein. First, prior to the start of any knowledge management initiative involving knowledge management teams, a clear understanding of the team's purpose and goals is required. This includes not only understanding the specific deliverables associated with a knowledge management project, but also an awareness of how the team will engage and interact with individual team members and outside of the team as well. Second, is an accepted and shared view of knowledge and how knowledge will be employed to achieve team goals, create value for the organization, and create, share, and exchange knowledge beyond the team. Third, is having an understanding of how the knowledge management team's efforts will fit, align, and help meet an organization's strategic objectives (Lee & Choi, 2003; Davenport 2011).

Although there is no shortage of information on the impact of organizational culture related to knowledge management efforts, the term *knowledge sharing* is relatively new. Early variants of the term, as mentioned above, include *knowledge culture* and *knowledge creation culture* (Janz & Prasarnphanich, 2003; Mital, 2007) which for purposes herein are contributory yet clearly distinguished. Davenport et al. (1998) employed the term long before it became popular while Carla O'Dell and Cindy Hubert (2011) co-authors of *The New Edge in Knowledge* provide a practitioner account of best practices, outlining how organizations can develop and implement a knowledge sharing culture. O'Dell and Hubert suggest that the most effective approaches to addressing cultural barriers such as communication, information hording, and resistance to change and collaboration is to engage and communicate with employees while rewarding behavior that is supportive of a knowledge sharing culture. Next, O'Dell and Hubert also suggest that role model leadership, strategic initiative branding, and making knowledge management fun can also prove useful. Perhaps one of the most noteworthy suggestions by O'Dell and Hubert is that action and observation of action in pursuit of building a knowledge sharing culture is just as valuable as an awareness of the organization's culture (to include its strengths and limitations) prior to implementation efforts; in short, O'Dell and Hubert imply that the value is not in attempting to transform organizational culture prior to knowledge management program and project implementation efforts, but instead execute knowledge management programs and projects in a deliberate and focused manner that will drive needed culture change; in short, action produces needed culture change.

As mentioned earlier, Thompson et al. (2011) provide a comprehensive account of knowledge management efforts within an organization that highlights a theme of communication, reward, and phased planning and recognizes that the persistent and integrated employment of those factors is instrumental in obtaining the desired behaviors that result in the required actions, tasks, and activities inherent within a knowledge sharing culture. Another key insight revealed in Thompson et al. (2011) include leveraging organizational mechanisms and controls that support the development and the sharing of knowledge and information within and across the organization. Finally, Thompson et al. (2011) brings forth how the organization's view of information systems and tools serve as key enablers to building a knowledge sharing

culture; however, alone that these processes and tools are not enough to build a vibrant and sustainable knowledge sharing culture. This latter point warrants consideration as well, for like values, information systems, tools, and processes are instrumental in assessing an organization's openness to knowledge management goals and objectives and have an impact on the successful implementation and sustainment of a knowledge sharing culture (Alavi et al., 2006).

Important at this point is to clearly define a knowledge sharing culture. A knowledge sharing culture *is a culture that has achieved distinguishable levels of competency at managing, sharing, and employing information and knowledge that positively influence the organization's ability to achieve its goals and objectives*. Going beyond mere creating and dissemination and even employment, this definition of a knowledge sharing culture acknowledges root contributions related to a knowledge culture and knowledge creation culture; yet, calls for a break as organizations are now demonstrating abilities to measure and capture the impact of their knowledge management efforts (Robb, 2003; Mital, 2007; Thompson et al. 2011). Next, this definition highlights the strategic link and impact that knowledge management goals and objectives have on the organization's ability to create value via the employment of knowledge management processes.

Also important at this point is to bring forth and integrate two key themes. First, assessment and awareness of the organization's culture is appropriate prior to the execution of any strategic change agenda; specifically because it serves as input to planning while also proving useful in determining how the organization will share and communicate end-state goals (Kaplan & Norton, 2008). Second and arguably equally important is that an over analysis on knowledge management goals can paralyze and implement barriers that no amount of change planning can overcome, the key point of O'Dell and Hubert (2011). It's important to consider and reflect on these two views, for on the surface it can be argued that the perspectives are not supportive of each other – which would be a fair argument. Thus, it is important to bring these two points into alignment: The importance of organizational culture and recognizing cues from the external environment is long established and cultural diagnosis and planning that seeks to capture and sustain change associated with knowledge management goals and objectives is important. Yet, also important is awareness that a failure to execute knowledge management initiatives will make any prolonged cultural assessment minor in comparison. In fact the failure to execute, the knowledge management effort will make any potential benefit elusive. The insight of Davenport et al. (1998) is important to bring forth at this point in which he remarks, "[p]rojects that don't fit the culture probably won't thrive, so management needs to align its approach with its existing culture, or be prepared for a long term cultural change effort" (p. 53).

In creating a culture that leverages shared leadership within teams, organizational leadership is a key driver of achieving the culture (De Holan & Phillips, 2004; Procter, 2010) for if culture impedes the other supporting drivers, then no further efforts or resources should be committed as noted by Procter (2010) who states that "[l]eaders have a role in influencing the culture of the organization . . . "(p. 1). Next, practices and processes must exist within

knowledge management teams that work to develop and sustain effective knowledge management practices with a clear linkage to the strategic and operational goals of the organization. These processes must be measurable, portable, and transparent, contributing to the organization's ability to redeploy knowledge and build a distinctive capabilities and core advantage as a result of this knowledge. This would require effective identification and employment of organizational controls and mechanisms as well as tools and processes that capture knowledge management team efforts and relate those efforts to the organization's strategic aims. The information captured would need to be descriptive, prescriptive, and measured.

PART 3: KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT TEAMS VERSUS TEAMS THAT EMPLOY KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Important at this point is to explore and discuss the role of knowledge management related to creating and employing knowledge management teams. There are two approaches that will be discussed herein. The first approach focuses on knowledge management teams charged with helping to implement and facilitate a knowledge sharing culture. The second focus approach is on teams that employ knowledge management methods, processes, systems, and tools to drive change in the organization. These two team types need not be mutually exclusive; yet, it is important to clarify and distinguish the difference here to highlight that this conceptual model focuses on the former; however, may be applicable to the latter, especially if charged with driving change and support for the knowledge sharing culture.

Knowledge Management Strategy (Initial Planning): Pursuit of knowledge management initiatives that are clearly linked to the organization's strategy is ideally established. Yet, this is often not the case and executives and senior leaders often fail to establish a clear linkage and business case for knowledge management efforts (Smith, McKeen, & Singh, 2010). Smith et al. (2010) comprehensively outline how knowledge management initiatives often fall short in achieving alignment with the organization's strategy and how business planning efforts often fail to support or identify just how knowledge management efforts will create organizational value.

At its most basic level, the organization's strategy serves as the overarching framework and high level planning source that the organization employs to achieve its strategic agenda and vision (Kaplan & Norton, 2008; Smith et al., 2010). Thus it is appropriate that underlying knowledge management programs and projects not only find direct support for pursuit, but also clearly link to the organization's strategic change agenda. Opinion varies of the depth and breadth of strategic impact that the organization's knowledge management efforts should have on an organization. Yet, a common theme is that knowledge management strategies and accompanying initiatives should align with the organization's strategy, be achievable, and provide some measurable impact (Davenport et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2010).

Figure 1: Knowledge Management Team Implementation Model
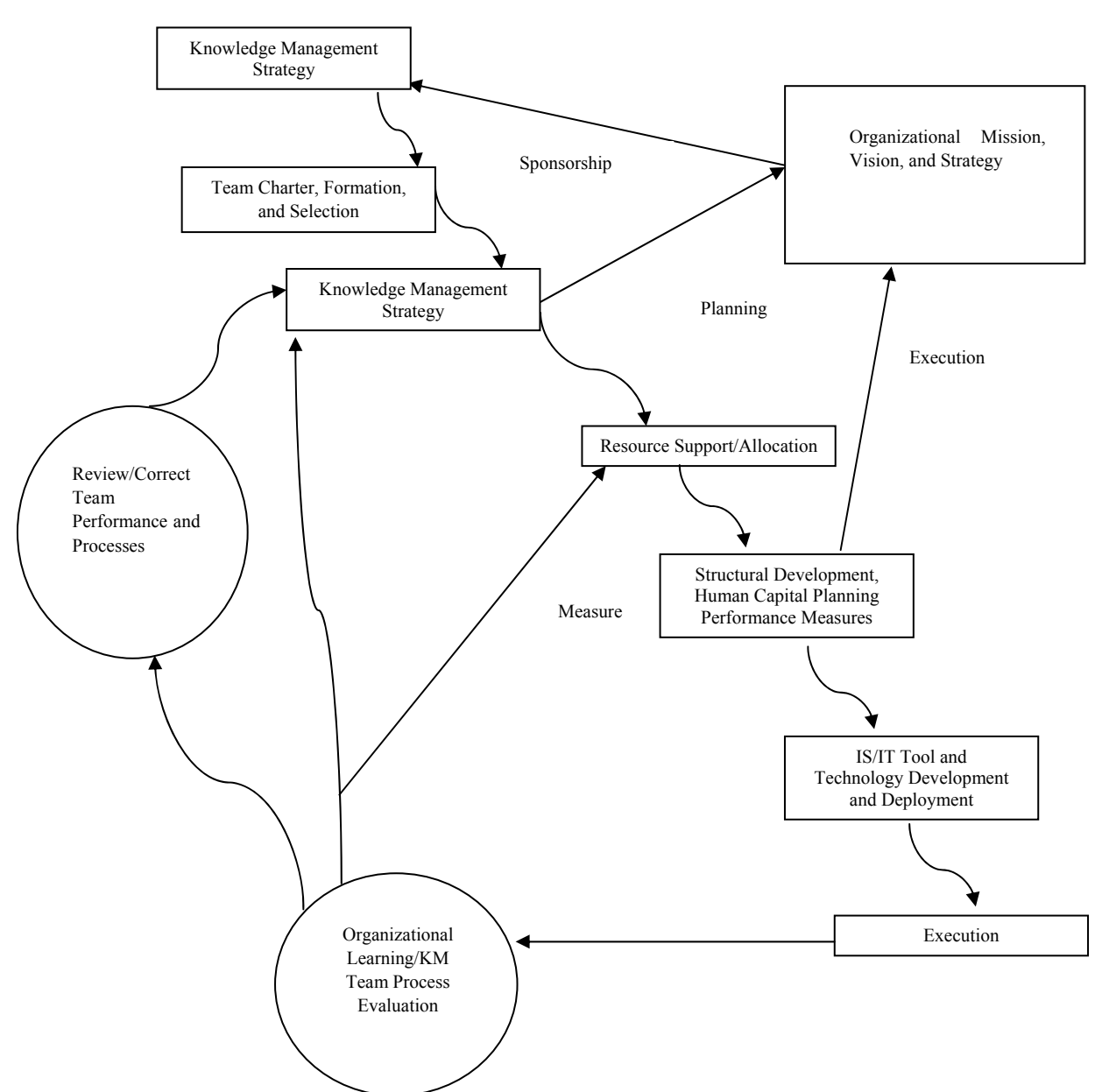
In accomplishing this, the knowledge management strategy need not be grandiose and can start small (Smith et al. 2010; Thompson et al., 2011). Here is should be noted that having an impact is not synonymous with initiative size. Further, it is appropriate to note that this step is highly contextual and dependent upon where the organization is in its knowledge management growth cycle. Clear expectations, goals, and milestones are ideally a part of the knowledge

management plan framed and considered for formulation and delivery via formal project management methodology and execution. The initial strategy planning will seek to build the business case for pursuing a knowledge management strategy. It is important that in building the case that the organization's efforts link directly to a specific strategic objective and theme and be brought forth at the senior leadership level to evaluate the purpose and potential merit of pursuit.

Team Planning, Selection, and Formation: At this point, there are two established facts that hold specific to this model. First, is the knowledge management strategy must link directly to and be justified by the organization's strategy. Second, the knowledge management strategy and underlying initiative need not be large-scale efforts. In fact, most practitioners including writer recommend that knowledge management effort start small allowing for direct observation, measurement, needed intervention (Smith et al. 2010; Thompson et al., 2011), and if necessary sound exit planning. There are general team planning, selection, and formation criteria elements that require consideration as well as knowledge management specific elements of consideration within this step. These elements include knowing the desired role, scope, and impact of the knowledge management team efforts, and include developing team member selection criteria. An area of consideration includes having a cross-functional representation of both hard and soft skills deemed critical to the successful implementation and sustainment of the knowledge management project. A third area of consideration would include identifying the benefit and utility of formal and informal leadership exchange, the necessary level of creativity, and the required level of innovation (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004). Robb (2003) brought forth enriched practitioner based views that writer experience supports related to assembling knowledge management teams, which includes incorporation of positions with the following roles, duties and responsibilities (Note: These positions can stand alone or be incorporated with existing knowledge management project team roles):

Knowledge Management Integration Team Leader/Member: This position would assess and focus on issues that include system/process/tool and human integration and fit with a goal to achieve optimal balance between position requirements, human interaction and engagement, and system employment.

Training and Development Team Leader/Member: This position would focus on current and future state challenges and opportunities, charged with such functions as capturing legacy requirements, working with end-users to develop a training plan, and searching for events that require incorporation into a career management plan.

IT Architecture Leader/Member: This position would assess current and future state of information systems architecture, considering such issues as leveraging of legacy data, development and deployment of core, interim, and final solutions and employment of information system tools to include selection and integration of learning management systems and platforms, developing integrated learning environments, and assessing opportunity for university partnership.

Business (Functional) Leader/Member: This position would focus on business requirements and assess linkage to the organization's overarching strategy. Other issues of focus would include developing a performance management framework and bridging organizational metrics with team specific metrics to ensure consistency and alignment with the organization's strategic goals and objectives.

Change Management Leader/Member: This position would assess the knowledge management strategy for common barriers and develop risk mitigation strategies common to change management initiatives. This would include addressing change challenges such as communication planning, cultural alignment and misalignment, and developing human capital incentives. Other elements of performance and execution considered would be the evaluation of internal and external stakeholders, and other organizational-based change management opportunities and challenges.

Existing documented support for these or similar positions (labels withstanding) and team mechanisms and controls is currently captured in the literature. As stated at the outset of this section, the knowledge management team is charged with not only producing project related, tangible deliverables, but also to help implement and facilitate a knowledge sharing culture. These positions highlight capture both of these expectations.

Knowledge Management Strategy Development (Refinement): Within this step, the specific activities, tasks, goals, and objectives are outlined and targets and measures are refined. The initial knowledge management strategy development processes and planning takes on a focus consistent with organizational high level strategy planning, looking toward environmental factors and how the organization's knowledge management program and project contributes to creating value for the organization. In this step, the planning gets more detailed with a specific focus on operationalizing the high level strategy planning that has taken place. Also significant to note in this step is that the strategy refinement is ideally accomplished by the newly formed team consistent with top management teams and the principles of shared management (Mendibil & MacBryde, 2005; Pearce & Sims, 2002).

Resource Support and Allocation: As mentioned earlier, essential to the success of knowledge management change efforts is building a business case for the effort (Robinson, Carrillo, Anumba, & Al-Ghassani, 2004). Part of building the business case is deciding upon and forecasting the economic benefit and the forecasted return of the knowledge management initiative. In formulating and realizing the economic benefit, the factors of input are required to be known in order to assess how the organization plans to create and maintain value as a result of pursuing its knowledge management effort (Robinson et al., 2004). In short, resource requirements have to be identified, tracked, and measured as deemed critical to the success of the knowledge management change effort (Davenport et al., 1998; Robinson et al., 2004). This step not only consists of capturing how needed monies to fund the knowledge management efforts are pursued by the organization, but also brings forth the role of the organization's leadership and management, specifically its commitment and sponsorship of the organizational efforts. As

Robinson et al. (2004) point out, an additional challenge and difficulty in building the business case is determining not only the inputs and the cost of those inputs but also determining the expected outcome. The reason for this is twofold: First, in order to justify pursuit, the economic benefit must be clear. Second, the impact of resources will allow for more effective future resource planning and allocation efforts.

Next, it is important to understand that these requirements are inclusive of human capital costs, information systems and technology costs, and the cost of other physical and intangible resources needed to fund the organization's knowledge management initiative. The actual underwriting of an organization's knowledge management efforts is of course up to the organization; however, there are some commonly employed options and considerations. One option is to allocate funding from the senior sponsor's existing budget. Another option, which is arguably more equitable, is to allocate a fixed fiscal contribution percentage across key manager budgets. A third option would be to provide standalone funding depending on the organization budgetary and fiscal funding processes. Experience suggests that the latter will come at a later date during funding out years once successful implementation, to include achieving suitable return, is achieved. Other approaches included implementing a market-based approach and having a centralized office of knowledge management oversee the resource support and allocation efforts are also employed within organizations (Davenport et al., 1998). Also included in this area is the level of access to internal and external organizational resources (Davenport, 2011). This is an essential element of resource support for as pointed out earlier, tool availability and technology system functionality alone do not equate to organizational success in the area of knowledge management and cost is a constraint that should be considered. Also important to note in this area is not just initial resource support and allocation, but also transferability and permanent downstream support. Thus a knowledge management governance framework that puts forth an explicit consideration of issues such as knowledge extrapolation, process flow, and access would be included (Hongli, et al., 2011).

Structural Mechanisms, Human Capital Planning and Incentives, and Performance Measurement: With a clear knowledge management strategy defined coupled with a selected team that is resourced for the short term with mechanisms in place (or being developed) to capture long term objectives and desired outcomes, the structural development, human capital planning, and performance measurement framework can be initiated and implemented within the organization. Perhaps what the practitioner will find in this step is that the parameters and specific inputs for this step have likely been identified as a result of executing the previous steps and pursued in accordance with generally accepted strategy development and deployment processes as well as project management principles. The value in this step is that the information captured in the aforementioned steps is beginning to be incorporated and integrated within a developing framework that benefits from the knowledge management team's ability to develop a comprehensive, organizational view that identifies specific levels of support along with specific mechanisms and tools needed to deliver and measure its effort as well as determining what can

realistically be achieved in context of the knowledge management strategy and the resources provided. Some may consider this step as framework outfitting that puts in place the mechanisms and controls needed to delivery on the knowledge management strategy. Such consideration would be appropriate.

A critical goal in this step is to define success within the context of what the project is set to accomplish. Davenport et al. (1998) provide comment stating that "[s]uccess and failure are ambiguous terms when applied to so nascent a field as knowledge management" (p. 44) with Davenport and colleagues going further to explain the importance and value of defining initial success dimensions. Also, in this step, it is important to identify how the organization's structure is poised to support the team goals associated with the knowledge management initiative, how will success be measured, and what behaviors need to be influenced that will help facilitate achievement of the goals associated with the organization's knowledge management initiative (Davenport et al., 1998; Robinson et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2010).

In the area of structure, the knowledge management team should seek the source motive and core objective of the knowledge it intends to capture and employ, and how it relates to its efforts. The goal here being to assess and evaluate just how the organization supports facilitation of the three underlying drivers of access, classification, and transfer of knowledge information. An additional area of consideration and review shall include what specific efforts are needed to implement and sustain the goals and deliverable(s) associated with the knowledge management initiative (Robinson et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2010). In the area of influencing behavior, the knowledge management team can formalize monetary and non-monetary incentives that ideally were framed in the preceding steps. The experience of practitioners finds a wide range of monetary incentives being employed to incentivize the implementation and sustainment of knowledge management change strategies classified under such monikers as skill based pay, knowledge based pay, and pay for performance that provide incentives for team performance and individual performance within the team (Celani & Weber, 1997; Gupta, Schweizer, & Jenkins, 1987). Avoided here is any prescriptive structure or incentive scheme; for incentive pay, in writer's view, is contextual and unique across organizations. Experience both direct and observed does suggest that a proper and well-planned mix of both monetary and non-monetary awards is suitable and can facilitate behavioral changes (Davenport et al., 1998; Gupta et al., 1987; Smith et al. 2010).

Attached to the development and consideration of any pay scheme is just what specific behaviors are needed by the team. The human capital planning effort should identify both soft and technical skills that directly relate to the principles of shared leadership. Going further, a prioritized weight structure should be considered determining the value of the skill and its related shared leadership dimension related to the team's efforts and the initiative itself. As an example, coaching and empowerment could be two soft skills that align with the knowledge management team goals of facilitating knowledge transfer across cross-functional teams to provide product

development teams and professionals real-time customer feedback needed to support a customer-centric strategy.

IS/IT Tools and Technology Development and Deployment: A consistent finding and shared generalization in contemporary knowledge management literature is that technology alone is insufficient to guarantee the successful implementation and sustainment of an organization's knowledge management efforts (Alavi et al., 2005; Austin et al., 2008; Davenport et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2010). That point is becoming increasingly accepted to be now considered general information; yet, equally important is that the organization's underlying technology infrastructure along with the accompanying technology tools do matter (Davenport et al. 1998; Teo et al. 2011). Key technology considerations include recognizing the role, purpose, and value of the organization's information systems and information tools. This would include defining in specific terms the expected role and use of external knowledge, expected role and use of structured internal knowledge, and expected role and use of unstructured and informal internal knowledge (Davenport et al., 1998). These considerations will serve as the foundational blueprint along with the organizational goals and objectives, for developing or scaling the organization's IT architecture and accompanying IS tools. Some specific questions that require answering would include *what is the most effective and relevant means to share information; how does our technology infrastructure contribute to building a knowledge sharing culture; and, how does our technology infrastructure support collaboration.*

Knowledge Management Team Strategic Execution: There are two important points to make related to this step. The first point is that the execution step should not be viewed as the last step in this model. Instead, the model should be viewed from a process-oriented perspective with the execution step marking an ongoing cycle of project refinement and team organizational learning that is ongoing throughout the team's life cycle. The knowledge management cycle is both continuous and iterative. Second, the importance of reconciling the difference between knowledge management formulation and execution must be planned for with enablers and contributory drivers captured and efficiently integrated in the organization's strategy (Smith et al., 2010). Finally, feedback assessments and evaluations developed based on the above steps must be readily employed to aid in the shaping of realistic expectations, recognizing windows of unforeseen opportunity, and solidifying and crystallizing success (Davenport et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2010).

PART 4: IDENTIFYING AND DEVELOPING KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT TEAM PRACTICES BASED ON SHARED LEADERSHIP PRINCIPLES

The knowledge team's role throughout the knowledge management implementation process has several goals, which makes this a complex yet achievable undertaking that mastered can serve as a form of competitive advantage or distinctive capability for the organization. First is the team's dual role of influencing culture and driving and achieving the tangible outcomes

projected by the knowledge management initiative. Explicit goals for an organizational knowledge management team can range from implementation of a systematic knowledge management process that can be employed across the organization and across functions to a more narrowly defined goal that directly seeks to achieve a specific product and service outcome, and there is of course (and most likely will be) a continuum between these two ends. For example, a project may require the successful implementation of a knowledge transfer process between a conceptual research team to project implementation teams that explore, operationalize, and implement concepts into the organization. These teams may be empowered to take products and services from concept to market. Another, project may focus on collecting, sharing, and disseminating information and knowledge exchange between field sales professionals and their corporate and divisional headquarters. In both cases, knowledge management teams employing shared leadership principles are expected to accomplish two critical objectives. One objective is to develop a process, method, and/or tangible deliverable that will provide value to the organization; an economic return or at the very least a discernible unit of value. A second objective will be to drive the change initiative in a way that is consistent with the organization's culture. Both can be accomplished leveraging principles of shared leadership. The following are the shared leadership principles and objectives considered by the knowledge management team:

Dedicate and maintain focus on group and organizational goals: This is a continuous and ongoing step that seeks to develop and maintain alignment with the organizational goals and objectives. Developing a coherent and shared vision within the team also plays a key role in helping team members maintain focus on both organizational and team goals. This collective vision can serve as an encompassing source of relevancy and alignment between team goals and the organization's goals (Ensley et al., 2003; Katzenbach, 1997; Pearce, 2004)

Develop and maintain appropriate balance between self-management and self-awareness: Practices such as collaboration, information sharing, and dynamic leadership are all attributed as being elements related to shared leadership and commonly found in top performance teams within organizations (Ensley et al., 2003; Mendibil & MacBryde, 2005; Pearce & Sims, 2002). In engaging and executing these practices and principles, an ability to execute and recognize emotional maturity, the ability to adapt, a capacity to remain optimistic and the willingness to exercise initiative are all associated with effective self-management and self-awareness and as pointed out by Meindl and Shamir (2007) can be logically linked and related to shared leadership and are inherent factors within effective teams. In a practical context, self-awareness would underlie the confidence needed to recognize shifting needs that require the employment of shared leadership principles while self management would permit team members to consider and employ the principles of shared leadership needed to accomplish knowledge management and cultural change goals. In short, self-awareness and self-management would allow for team members to demonstrate the necessary levels of empathy and

recognize how to adjust behaviors as the informal team leadership dynamic changes over the course of the project.

Recognize, implement, and employ empowerment: Team members must not only recognize the value and role of shared power as it relates to their leadership and functional roles, they must be empowered to deliver on the positive benefits from value recognition and execution. Empowered teams are confident in identifying courses of action needed to achieve knowledge management goals. Further, empowered teams have an empirical history of being self-managed while encouraging independent actions and engaging in collaborative group behaviors (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Important here is for team members to recognize that they are empowered during the team formation and selection stage and to develop parameters and expectations that will result from the team's empowered state. As an example, a functional team member should be empowered to develop the process framework and propose policy that will provide governance for that framework in capturing end-user requirements.

Recognize, implement and promote a collaborative environment: A key element of knowledge management is building and maintaining a collaborative approach needed to accomplish team goals and objectives (Davenport, 1998; Robb, 2003; Thompson et al., 2011). Here, the specific need and value of collaboration should be developed and communicated between team members with incentives and rewards structured to foster and promote collaboration (Celani & Weber, 1997; Gupta, et al., 1987).

Recognize, implement, and balance cultural change, task management, and team strategy and operational perspectives: Noted consistently throughout this article, is the role and importance of cultural change. Collectively, the knowledge management team during its formation and project execution phases help create an environment that embraces knowledge and information, helping the organization to recognize the value of knowledge and how it relates to achieving the organizational goals (Davenport, 1998; O'Dell & Hubert, 2011; Robb, 2003). Next, effective knowledge management teams demonstrate an ability to recognize how their efforts impact not only the accomplishment of team goals and outcomes, but also how their actions are perceived within the organization (Davenport, 1998; Thompson et al., 2011). Important here is the need for team members to remain focused on their individual and group roles while also retaining an understanding and awareness of the change management impact of their efforts (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Finally, the team should recognize and retain an awareness of the strategic value of their efforts. Here, knowledge of the organization's strategic themes and underlying business objectives are known and linked with the knowledge management team efforts. This linkage helps to maintain and provide visibility of the knowledge management team's efforts while also providing an overarching guide for the knowledge management team efforts. In short, it helps avoid the strategy-knowledge management divide noted by proponents and critics of knowledge management initiatives (Donahue, 2001; Smith et al., 2010).

PART 5: KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT TEAM CULTURAL PROCESS ASSESSMENT AND REVIEW

It's important to note that an organizational knowledge management team's success cannot take place within a vacuum. The ability to not only execute the aforementioned steps but also be viewed as central to accomplishing organizational goals requires senior leadership visible support and commitment (Davenport et al., 1998). Senior leadership should be viewed as key partners and perform as visible cheerleaders of the knowledge management team's knowledge sharing and project team implementation efforts (Davenport et al., 1998; Donahue, 2001; Smith et al., 2010). Some of the specific cultural challenges well noted in the literature, which may come as a result of the knowledge management team's project and organizational change efforts include the following:

Identify Knowledge Gaps: A key step for the team would be to identify gaps in knowledge and assess the impact of these knowledge gaps. Similar to a strategic gap analysis, the organizational knowledge management team would identify gaps in knowledge held by both individual workers and work groups and seek to mitigate these gaps by clearly identifying the needed knowledge and learning required to accomplish project deliverable and cultural change objectives.

Identify Organizational Structure Misalignment: As noted herein, knowledge management and cultural change requires selective and effective leveraging of the organization's structure; its inherent mechanisms and controls. There will predictably be gaps and areas of misalignment and knowledge management teams must be prepared to learn and quickly incorporate learning into the organization's structure. Further, where misalignment occurs, the knowledge management team must be committed to quick action that reconciles the organization's structure and/or the knowledge management team project planning efforts. Here again, the principles associated with shared leadership are critical.

Recognize and Remove Learning Barriers: Here, the knowledge management team is expected to recognize barriers that prevent organizational members from understanding the goals and objectives of the knowledge management team's efforts and to facilitate means to enhance organizational learning. Some specific actions here would include promoting boundaryless behaviors between the team and the organization. Also included here is consideration by the knowledge management team in how to leverage information-based tools that promote organizational learning. Finally, the knowledge management team would also work to ensure that suggestions to improve organizational learning and understanding are considered and implemented where appropriate.

Act as Change Leaders/Agents and Toxic Handlers: From team inception to team execution, team members must form awareness that they are indeed change leaders and change agents. In fact, the aforementioned activities above are consistent with the behaviors and expectations of change leaders/agents. In addition, acting as change leaders/change agents will

require that knowledge management team members identify and recognize the social, political, and economic elements related to the knowledge-based change effort. Next, consistent with the lesson of change management success and failures are the importance of being able to recognize resistance and that resistance requires voice and attention. As a result, it will be important for knowledge team members to provide a means for organizational members' voices to be heard and where appropriate, captured to facilitate understanding of the knowledge-based change effort and gain buy-in and support of the change while also addressing employee concerns.

Taken altogether, the knowledge management team's cultural impact has the potential to be both significant and supportive of the project specific goals as well as the overall climate needed to effectively implement change. These tools, in whole or part, are well captured in the literature as being able to help facilitate change and garner support for knowledge management initiatives (O'Hara & Hubert, 2011; Thompson, et al, 2011; Davenport et al., 1998). Also important to note is that these goals need not be viewed as being mutually exclusive and some organizations may decide to pursue multiple activities simultaneously. Yet, it is also important to point out a consistent summative and key point that pertains to the knowledge management team efforts, which is that the knowledge management team's value is helping to build and maintain a culture of where employees willingly share knowledge (Gratton, 2005).

Figure 2: Knowledge Management Team Process Assessment/Cultural Review
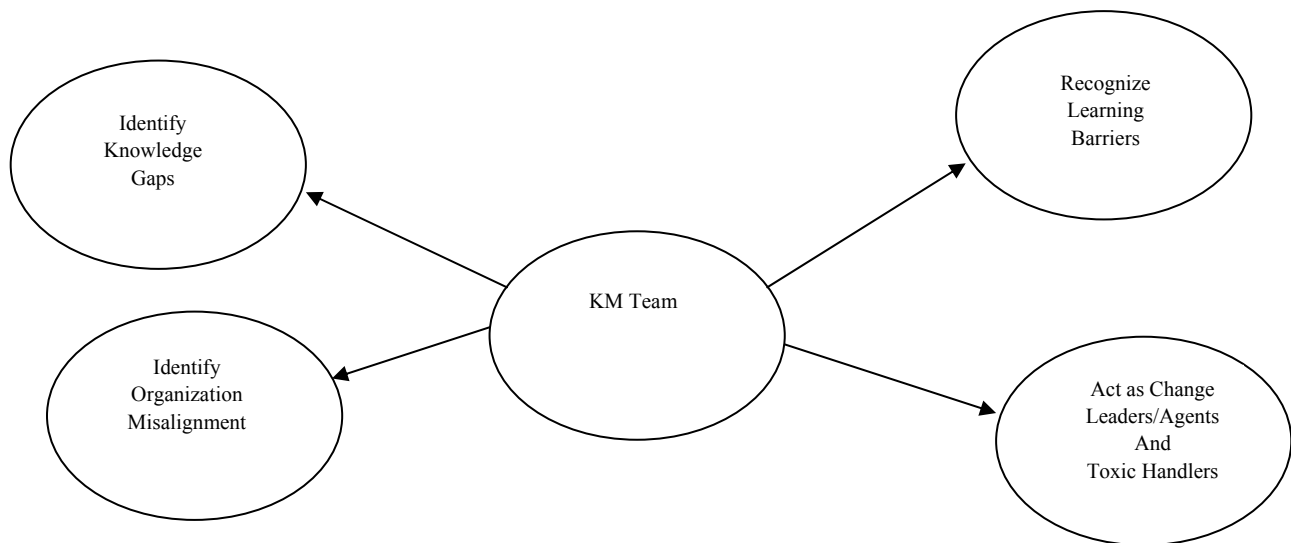
PART 6: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Knowledge management programs and projects coupled with the use and employment of organizational teams are predicted to remain key drivers of change and sources of value-creation for the organization (Alavi et al., 2005; Austin et al., 2008; Davenport, et al., 1998; Mendibil & MacBryde, 2005; Robb, 2003). Underlying and receiving increased attention are the constructs and dimensions that help contribute to the promotion, development, and sustainment of a knowledge sharing culture, and creating and employing knowledge management teams throughout the organization with a focus on delivering on knowledge management change goals that support the organization's strategy (Mendibil & MacBryde, 2005; O'Dell & Hubert, 2011; Pearce & Sims; Robb, 2003, Thompson et al., 2011). Together, the organization is logically expected to create and maintain a knowledge sharing culture while also employing teams to accomplish knowledge management projects. These teams need a framework to facilitate formation and performance consistent with the principles of shared leadership while also demonstrating an ability to deliver the tangibles associated with these knowledge management projects to create the culture and meet the knowledge management goals and objectives. This is a tall yet important order, for work in the two areas of effective teams and successful knowledge management programs and projects are not areas where there is shared consensus or shared frameworks. Further, the underlying contributory dimensions and constructs to include organizational culture and shared leadership also find uneven findings and in the case of shared leadership uneven periods of focus (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce & Sims, 2002).

In light of these challenges, academics and practitioners cannot stand idle. Thus contained herein is an appropriate start. In creating this framework, reflecting on experience, and reviewing the literature, what can be observed is that knowledge management teams often employ shared leadership principles that contribute to organization's ability to achieve its goals while also maintaining high levels of morale, increased efficiencies, and enhanced strategic and task focus (Pearce & Conger, 2003, Robb, 2003; Thompson et al., 2011). In addition, a comprehensive review of the literature suggests that knowledge management teams that balance organizational cultural considerations with an even and holistic focus on knowledge management processes, systems and tools are able to implement and sustain knowledge sharing cultures (Thompson et al. 2011). Many of these teams exhibit and possess shared leadership principles (i.e. empowered, cross-functional, self-managed, etc.). Missing is a model that allows the organization to purposively consider these dimensions and employ a deliberate plan and course of action within a conceptual framework. The model presented herein is a start. It will require both application and further research, specifically related to its utility and value. It will also require continued debate noting its strengths and its weaknesses. Next, not only does this model address the challenges and barriers related to knowledge management project implementation and sustainment, it also brings forth the value of shared leadership and its accompanying principles. These principles have long been applied to effective teams and successful knowledge

management initiatives that employ teams. Finally, this model brings forth the linkage that will ideally prove usefully in expanding the debate and relating the value of shared leadership and the role of knowledge management teams in helping to develop and sustain a knowledge sharing culture (Davenport et al., 1998; Mendibil & MacBryde, 2005; Robb, 2003).

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GENDER (IN)EQUALITY IN KOREAN FIRMS: RESULTS FROM STAKEHOLDERS INTERVIEWS

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ABSTRACT

Through in-depth interviews with stakeholders in Korean organizations, this paper explores the under-utilization of women within Korean firms with respect to organizational characteristics, recruitment, organization of work, and treatment in the workplace. The researchers wish to find out why given mass education, equal opportunity legislation and affirmative action, discrimination persists.. The findings from stakeholders indicate that the underrepresentation of women in modern Korean firms is still based upon cultural norms and practices that may have a negative economic effect on firms. It will take time for the Korean workplace to treat everyone as equals.

INTRODUCTION

Despite legal improvements in women's rights since 1988 and increased access to education in the past fifty years for women, female labor participation in Korea as of 2011 stood at 49.2%, one of the lowest rates for an OECD country (Korean National Statistical Office (KNSO) 2011). In 2010, young Korean women surpassed males in attaining higher education, but they have not made proportionate advances in employment equity (Eun and Yoon 2010; Joo and Lee 2009). Existing literature suggests that cultural explanations have greatly influenced the characteristics of Korean human resource management in Korean firms, their executives, and their organizational cultures. This research will add to the existing body of knowledge by providing additional evidence through the findings where discrimination is most likely. Through in-depth interviews with stakeholders in Korean firms, the researchers will (1) identify the causes for gender workforce imbalances within Korea; (2) determine why women are downsized more often than men and how this differs from elsewhere, and (3) investigate the form(s) gender discrimination takes within Korean organizations, and why legal measures have not corrected the social and organizational attitudes that hinder career progress and foster discrimination based on gender stereotyping, incomplete information, and a traditional, paternalistic organizational culture.

The purpose of this paper is to ascertain why this phenomenon continues despite the high educational attainment of Korean women. Interviews of key stakeholder groups, public, private, and non-profit organizations, about employee relations within Korean organizations with a focus

on gender division were conducted to illuminate the under-utilization of Korean females within Korean firms. After exploring the literature, this paper outlines the approach and methodology and concludes with a discussion of the findings.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Feminist literature has discussed this subject for over twenty-five years. Neo-liberalism, with its emphasis on the importance of individual "choice" for the work environment, has attempted to explain women's decisions about work (Cha and Thebaud 2009; Crompton and Lyonette 2005; Standing 1999). Women are said to be less likely than men to participate in the labor force because of demographic, social, legal, and cultural trends and norms (Pan 2002; Elder and Johnson 1999). Neoliberalist policies force women to accept lower average wages and average earnings than men in most occupations in most countries because they emphasize "choice" (Walby, Gottfried, Gottschall, and Osawa 2007). Neo-liberalism concludes that outcomes result from individual choices.Korean society's attitude is that women choose to stay at home due to Confucian values, instead of participating in the work force (Joo 2008; Chun 2007).

According to various feminist theories, women are temporary, supplementary, pliant, patient, and cheap labor (or labor made cheap) (Pettman 2003; Beechey and Perkins 1988; Bruegel 1979), and globalization is rapidly increasing the demand for women's labor. The three most important theoriesof gender relations are the male breadwinner, gendered politics, and the gender regime, which will be assessed in the context of the Korean workplace (Walby et al. 2007; Turner and Monk 2007; Ridgeway and Cornell 2006; Lee, Roehl and Choe 2000; England 1992; Crompton and Sanderson 1990). These ideologies state: 1) in the male breadwinner model, Marxist feminists see gender inequality as part of social class inequality and the capitalistic market system of production that creates social class inequality and women's economic dependence on men (Lee et al. 2000); 2) gender politics refers to the historical exclusion of women from public roles, power, and citizenship (Walby 1988; Klein 1984); and 3) organizations are posited to have "gender regimes," e.g., internal structures, processes, and beliefs that place women and men in different tasks and positions in which there is a systematic interrelationship between different dimensions of gender relations (Acker 2006; Pan 2002; Blackburn, Browne, Brooks, and Jarman **2002**).

Due its rapid industrialization from the 1960s to the 1990s, Korea now ranks as one of the world's top fifteen economies (International Monetary Fund 2010), resulting in a rapid increase in the number of professional positions within Korean businesses. Nevertheless, Korean females continue to be marginalized in leadership and decision-making contexts, with limited employment opportunities in middle and upper management or executive or boardroom positions (Siegel et al. 2011; World Bank 2007). The female labor force participation rate jumped from 39.3% in the 1970s to 50% in 2008, decreasing slightly to 49.2% in 2011 (KNSO 2011).

Recent research demonstrates greater profitability for firms that employ women in higher level positions in Korea, but their overall employment rate is 10% below that of key advanced nations (Werner, Devillard, and Sancier-Sultan 2010). A noticeable wage gap exists between comparably educated men and women who perform the same jobs (Cho, Kwon, and Ahn 2010; Jones and Tsutsumi 2009). Sex-segregation is more predominant in traditional societies than in advanced nations in educational levels, fields of study, and occupational segregation (Buchman, Kriesei, and Sacchi 2010; Yukongki and Rowley 2006; Yukongdi and Benson 2006; Ahn 2006).

Current research on gender equality in the Korean workplace shows that it continues to be inflexible in its treatment of women (Patterson and Seo 2010; Eun and Yoon 2010; *Legal and institutional framework against employment discrimination in force in OECD countries in 2007* 2008; Kim, Kim, Lee, and Choi 2007). The gradual changes that have been made are due to legislative changes and the effects of foreign firms entering Korea or Korean firms expanding abroad (*2011-2012 Progress of the World's Women* 2011; *Global Employment Trends for Women Report* 2009). Although these changes have initiated a radical shift in the traditional cultural belief of the "male breadwinner" (Cha and Thebaud 2009), the effects of this shift are minimal, and gender discrimination continues compared to other Asian countries. When women are economically dependent on men, their societies will support men having better access to social power, prestige, material resources, and the desire to maintain the status quo (*Global Employment Trends for Women Report* 2009; World Bank 2007; Baxter and Kane 1995). For indicators such as Gender Empowerment Measure, Gender Development Index, and the Global Gender Gap Rankings, Korea ranks as one of the lowest OECD countries (Cho, Cho, and Song 2010; Park 2010). Korean women's career progress is negatively affected by individual, organizational, and societal factors (Park and Gress 2010; Lee and Rowley 2008). The literature review will consider the Korean government's policies on equal opportunity, Korean human resource management characteristics, and Korean firm/executive characteristics and organizational culture.

Korean government policies on equal opportunity

Korea's female labor force has grown, but its actual female working population has not, because employment is more difficult for women due to the gender division of jobs and failure to employ highly educated women (Joo and Lee 2009; Cho and Kwon 2007). In the past two decades, Korea's government has made legislative changes emphasizing gender equality through such reforms as affirmative action (Cho, Kwon and Ahn 2010; Park 2010). The legal rights of Korean women have improved with implementation of gender mainstreaming strategies, but traditional genderized roles are the norm (Eun and Yoon 2010; Park 2010) due to *a slow transition to a dual-earner model retarded by Confucian ideals (Chin, Cho, and Baek 2011;* Kim 2007; Moon 2007). These ideals have also resulted in insufficient female representation in the government, which other countries have achieved (Park 2010; Joo 2008). Part of the Korean

gender mainstreaming plan is gender-sensitive budgeting, but the level of female workers within the Korean government is inadequate because its society considers hiring female civil servants a low priority (Kim 2007; Kugelman 2006). The focus of the policies is on gender equity, but discrimination in treatment and practices against diverse groups continue to be the norm, despite a constitution and labor laws forbidding discriminatory treatment (Ahn 2006). Women continue leave the labor force to bear and raise children (*Childcare Policy in Korea* 2008; Brinton and Choi 2006; Park 2005). Korea has a pervasive, gender-biased cultural mindset at all levels of the male-dominated workplace, preventing the leveraging of female talent (Park and Gress 2010; *ILO Action Plan for Gender Equality 2008-09* 2008). In 2009 (KNSO January 2010), lower female participation rate figures validated the argument that women disproportionately suffered from downsizing during financial crises (Buvinic 2009). Full-time employees, the majority being male, were not laid off because many firms predicted an economic recovery, but they continued to lay off "non-essential" workers, with women being hardest hit. This is further evidence of the "male breadwinner" model, which may create unequal treatment of men and women in dismissal, social security entitlements, and rehiring (Siegal et al. 2011; Lee 2010).

Korean Human Resource Management Characteristics

In Korea, human resource management (HRM) had traditionalist rigidity as it focused on specific cultural features but today, it is moving toward more modern, western-influenced HR practices (Chang and Lee 2006; Rowley, Benson, and Warner 2004). A major influence on the attitudes of business managers are the core cultural values of harmony, unity, and vertical social relationships that have slowed modernization of human resource practices (Lee et al. 2000; Song and Meek 1998; Hofstede 1980). Singh-Sengupta (2005) argues that the cross-cultural management perspective is particularly appropriate for understanding the Korean case where Korean organizations are characterized by strong notions of collectivism. Managerial recruitment, selection, and compensation practices are influenced by traditional cultural values (Aycan 2005), affecting national policies, institutions, and responses to market opportunities and conditions (Chung and Lee 1989; Hamilton and Biggart 1988). Due to modernization and the effects of globalization, Korean society is slowly changing, but its culture still strongly influences its treatment of women (Zhu, Warner, and Rowley 2007; Lie and Park 2006). Cultural accounts are the most common theoretical paradigms used to study Korean HRM, since dimensions of culture such as Confucianism are emphasized. Cultural theories (Hofstede 1980) investigate the influence of a patriarchal society on women and their role in the workplace (Kim 2008; Chong, 2006) and how Confucianism has negatively affected economic activity (Siegel et al. 2011; Meng 2005). The core ideology of the traditional Korean HRM system has changed from a collective orientation toward individualistic and market economies (Oostenderp 2009; Rowley, Benson and Warner 2004) in which Korean women could be more accepted, but

cultural theorists argue that culture will continue to influence firm behavior because it can only change slowly (Cho 2009).

Korean Firm/Executive Characteristics and Organizational Culture

Key influences on Korea's geopolitical environment and downstream effects on Korean culture and its gender workplace environment that cultural theorists have identified are China, Japan, and the United States (Zhu et al. 2007; Bae and Rowley 2003) due to the acculturalizing effects of China and Japan during their occupations of Korean territory and the ongoing post-Korean War presence of the U.S. military. Korean management system's key influences are Japan, the United States, Confucianism, collectivism, *Inwha* (harmony), solidarity, loyalty, cooperation between individuals, *Yon-go* (connections, especially by clan, blood, geography, education), authoritarianism in leadership, and distinct divisions between owners, managers, and workers (Cho 2009). The normative framework for work is also affected by Buddhism and Confucianism (Kuchinke 2009). The effect of female work participation and capital on patriarchal traditions has been minimal, and a principal reason for the persistence of current organizational structures is cultural impressions of gender equalities (Singh-Sengupta 2005; Thompson 2002). Since Korean society is allowed to discriminate against females, employers create major gender wage gaps (Park and Gress 2010; Oostenderp 2009). Confucianism holds that human relationships are hierarchically ordered based on age and gender (Rowley, Sohn, and Baek 2002); its key components are emotional harmony, hierarchy, discrimination against out-groups, networking, and high context orientation (Cho and Yeon 2001; Triandis 2001). Context is important because of wide dimensions and developments of management in culture (Rowley and Bae 2003). Institutional perspectives are important (Whitley 1991), but a key factor to understanding its patriarchal nature, behavior, and practices is its culture embedded within the Korean hierarchal management structure. Three factors—cultural legacy (traditional culture embedded in Confucian values), social climate and corporate leadership (paternalistic of *chaebol* founders), and a cultural paradox—are the sources of Korean corporate culture (Cho and Yeon 2001), a process of collective learning with a major difference in attitudes between the employees of *chaebols* and small companies.

METHODOLOGY

A qualitative study method was selected to maximize the scope and depth of the data the interviewees generated, exploring the areas of discrimination within organizations in Korean firms with a focus on women to develop an understanding of complex issues such as gender discrimination. Qualitative research is appropriate (Marshall 1996) because feminist perspectives view as problematic women's diverse situations and the institutions that frame these situations as qualitative theoretical perspectives (Creswell 2009). One can view theoretical sampling as a

technique of data triangulation in which one uses independent pieces of information to get a better understanding about something that is only partially understood, in this case, continued gender discrimination (Scott 2008; Cassell and Symons 2004). The researcher's goal in using theoretical sampling is not to gain a representative capture of all possible variations, but to acquire an in-depth understanding of analyzed cases and facilitate development of an analytical frame and concepts in the research. Since this study utilizes grounded theory, a strategy in which specific analysis procedures are used to develop an explanation or to generate a theory around core or central themes that arise from the data, theoretical sampling is applied because the cases are interviews with stakeholders (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill 2009). This method is used in some form in most qualitative investigations needing interpretation because theoretical sampling involves generating conceptual or theoretical categories during the research process. The in-depth interviews provide a convincing summary of attitudes and illustrate the broader research problem where the researchers are seeking to identify the gendered processes. The sample was selected from key stakeholders in gender (in)equality in Korea: government ministries, crown corporations, employee and employer groups, women's groups, and labor unions. The stakeholders were selected on the basis of their potential manifestation or representation of important constructs. This process necessitates forming interpretative theories from the emerging data and, based on those theories, selecting a new sample to elaborate on (Patton 2001, 238; Marshall 1996). Data was collected by interviewing stakeholders involved in employee relations within firms or organizations in Seoul. These stakeholders were contacted between May and July 2011.

Questionnaire Development

For the purpose of the study, the survey instrument was adapted from interview questions used in a previous study of HR managers (Patterson and Seo 2011). The questions were modified from the Workplace Employment Relations Survey (WERS 2004) Cross-Section Management Survey with additional questions that focused on diversity and inclusion.

Data Collection and Final Sample

A total of eighteen stakeholders were interviewed, most of whom hold managerial or higher level positions in organizations in Seoul. One researcher conducted interviews, mainly in or near the interviewees' offices. In cases in which the interviewees were not fluent in English, either the researcher or the interviewee's organization provided a translator. Each interview began with a brief explanation of the purpose of the study. The interviewees were encouraged to expand upon their responses to the questions. Responses were written down by either the interviewee or the interviewer, and in some cases, the interviewer transcribed additional details that the interviewee did not record. The length of the interviews varied from 45 minutes to two

and a half hours. Interviews in which responses were given in Korean were then translated into English, and the translations were checked for accuracy.

Propositions

In an earlier study of Korean HR managers (Patterson and Seo 2011), a significant factor in Korean HRM is gender inequality. Korea continues to be a male-dominated society with a broad preference for men as working partners and/or superiors. In general, larger firms are more likely to have specialized HRM functions and standardized procedures that prevent discrimination (Rowley and Yukongdi 2008). Based on this information, the researchers have identified two propositions.

Proposition One: *The researchers will find out if there is still discrimination in Korea.*

Proposition Two: *The researchers wish to find out if discriminatory practices continue due to a lack of enforcement or larger firms willing to pay fines or both. Paying fines is not an actual reason for discrimination (ie. people do not discriminate in order to pay fine) but rather a sign as to how deeply embedded discrimination is in Korea.*

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Data Analysis

Each proposition was qualitatively analyzed due to the size of the sample group, since the focus is the richness of the data collected from the comments.

Respondent Demographics and Profile and Organizational Characteristics

The eighteen interviewees work in organizations within the non-profit (NP), labor organization, and/or employment sector(s). The number of employees of each organization varied from 45 to 3,760. The areas within which interviewees worked varied from planning and global business to human resources. Their titles included various levels of "manager" and "researcher," with the majority in middle to upper management.

Recruitment, Training, and Organization of Work

In this section, the interviewees were asked about firms' recruitment, training, and organization of work.

Recruitment – Gender and age issues

In response to the first question, stakeholders indicated that Korean firms are now being less discriminatory in their hiring practices based on the gender and age of the applicants. An interviewee from a recruiting company stated that in actual practice, discrimination **does** exist in this process. The recruiter stated, "As we are an executive search firm, mostly we work on highly specialized (or skilled) positions within organizations. As they pay high fees to head-hunters, clients tend to hire male candidates who are reputed to have more responsibility and stay longer within the company. Regarding age, the current organization chart always matters. In Korea, working with a younger boss or older junior staff is awkward. To have a safe landing within a new organization, recruiters see the age between bosses and junior and set the right age gap for the position. But it varies from company to company. From our [viewpoint], we have a higher recruitment success rate if we recommend candidates within the right age gap." Other key supporting statements include:

- Companies have started to realize the importance of female work force and they also try to maximize the diversity within employees.
- Korean labor market is a mirror of reality, but it is slowly changing.
- Enterprises hire workers based on their capability and talent. Discrimination, based on their gender or age, is forbidden by Korean labor law.

However, there was disagreement as to what nondiscriminatory practices were, so one can conclude that non-compliance persists despite the Korean government's laws and policies. A recent study (Park and Gress 2010) found that in spite of solid departmental and organizational policies aimed at reducing gender discrimination, an intra-organizational discriminatory atmosphere has a negative effect on the percentage of female managers in Korean firms. Some stakeholders pointed this out.

- There is a certain prejudice about gender regarding women with children that they cannot work full-time. In certain jobs, it is thought that they are not suitable for women. Even if it is better in certain areas, people think women are not suitable.
- In general, they recognize that the male employees are able to work overtime and more obedient to workplace rules compared with females. Administrators generally think that a woman, who gets married, is difficult to control.

When asked if firms are hiring more female full-time workers, some stakeholders thought there is a trend in that direction, showing that the government's recent gender policies are slowly taking effect. A representative from a women's organisation stated, "As women's education has increased, the participation of women in society is also increasing." Others commented:

- When we hire new staff, we can recognize the male and female ratio is similar or the case where females is higher.

Many SME s try to hire female employees based on their competencies and skills. In support of earlier research studies on the lack of permanent female workers (Park and Gress 2010; Park 2005, 2010; Joo 2008). A government official stated, "Traditionally, industries like heavy industry, construction, chemical, automobile, IT, electronics, finance, energy, pharmaceutical, business consulting want to hire men rather than women." However, two interviewees from a government agency and an international labor foundation, did state that lack of enforcement for firms to employ females in permanent full-time positions is a major issue:

- Progress is limited to large enterprises due to Affirmative Action policy by the Korean government since 2006. The big loopholes are the SMEs as AA only covers enterprises with 500+ employees. It is difficult for women returning to the labor market to get hired in the regular full-time market.
- It is mandatory under the Equal Employment Law with the prohibition of discrimination during recruitment and hiring. However, there is a lack of enforcement. It is partially true in the public sector as it is mandatory due to the Affirmative Action program but is not true in the private sector. It is due to the effect of capitalism and a lack of enforcement.

As for discrimination based upon gender, the majority felt it occurs, which supports findings from earlier studies (Park 2010; Joo and Lee 2009; Brinton and Choi 2006). A recruiter stated that, "Not only upon gender or age, they often request us to recommend such talents from limited background. They mention the name of universities, companies, gender, and age gap. There is severe discrimination based on gender, age, academic background, and others. The reason for such discrimination is [the] socially common idea that women are more responsible for housework and raising kids. Employers think women don't work as hard as men as there are so many distractions for women at work due to family matters. It also looks like women tend to take on fewer responsibilities in their jobs, and it's also true women showed such behavior at work in the past and still now. However, there are counter arguments:

- They feel uncomfortable hiring older women although they have the capability of excellent work.

- Childcare and family issues are not solved and women more than 30 years old find it hard to get hired because of marital issues.
- For permanent FT, after 1997 Asian Crisis, the rate decreased and it recovered to around 30%.
- For SMEs, CEOs/presidents need to change as they have traditional management style. SMEs do not have enough resources or the capacity to offer well-being but they would like to but are unable to do so. Larger firms are now, following globalization, are trending toward less discrimination as they are following "best practices."

Discharge issues

As to why women are discharged from their positions, many interviewees pointed out that even though voluntary turnover is the principal reason, it results from issues related to childcare or traditional attitudes within firms. Interviewees stated, in times of financial crisis, women are the first be discharged. A labor federation official said, "With the global meltdown, women got retrenched as [Korean] employers still think [of] men as the 'breadwinner." A government agency officer confirmed, "If there is a need to discharge employees, women are first to be discharged as they have to get married and then take of children/elderly." A policy officer for a women's organization, stressed, "It is difficult to prove due to the fast economic growth model. The wide gap is slowly decreasing as it was influenced by Korean culture and the patriarchal has decreased but it still exists. Women take time off to look after children and companies penalize them when they return to work. Cultural change has not matched the pace of economic growth in Korea." Key supporting statements included:

- Women leave the workforce to raise children. It is extremely difficult to raise a child due to a poor child support from the Korean government as low income families only receive subsidies. To return to work, women have to consider the cost of daycare. Daycare is supported by the government based on family income.
- Companies have a lack of consideration of women's childcare. In fact, we should consider that they're fired, despite of the voluntary turnover.
- They [firms) still prefer single women over married women.

Contract/agency workers

When asked if it is now customary for firms to hire contractor workers through agencies, some interviewees felt this is the case. As to whether more female workers are employed via this method than males, many agreed, supporting earlier research (Buvinic 2009; *ILO Action Plan for Gender Equality 2008-09* 2008; *Legal and institutional framework against employment discrimination in force in OECD countries in 2007* 2008). The stakeholders feel that since 1997,

firms are using more contract workers, supporting previous studies (Joo and Lee 2009; Joo 2008):

- This trend developed after 1997 and now has become the norm. It cannot be reversed. It depends upon the industry and company size. Due to capitalism, more firms are using contract workers as it is also difficult to fire employees.

Types of work

Asked whether the difference in the percentage is based upon types of work, most interviewees agreed. Based on the types of work (permanent full-time (tenure), temporary employment such as part-time, contract, or agency work), the responses varied. A government agency researcher explained the low number of female managers, "Managers prefer male employees than women employees as [prefer them to be] subordinates." Other interviewees commented:

- Part-time workers are mostly women, around 60-70%.
- Full-time for females are in positions like a secretary or personal assistant or specialized occupations [white collar jobs].

Effect of gender policy past decade

As to whether the gender policies enacted in the past decade have made any significant difference to permanent tenure work, many agreed. A director with a government ministry pointed out, in recent years, the situation for women has been improving, "More women are found in the management level in recent years and keep on increasing. And women workers are protected by various labor laws granting maternity leave and childcare leave." A researcher with a labor institute indicated, "Mandatory; programs will improve the quality of work but not hiring into or switching to permanent full-time work." However, other interviewees pointed out that despite these changes, discrimination persists:

- The percentage of women's temporary position and wage discrimination is declining. However, discrimination in employment still exists.
- Except for public sector or large companies, there are differences in payment and promotion between men and women.
- Government policy is working as to non-discriminatory practices. SMEs should change voluntarily. Because of Korea's low birth rate, they are being forced to change but it is difficult to change the attitude of owners/presidents of SMEs.
-

Change for female employment in near future

Regarding a change in the near future toward employment of women in firms, the majority agreed with a common thread in the responses. A government official stated that, compared to ten years ago, non-discriminatory policy is now very effective, but obstacles to promotion to high-level management positions in male-dominated industries persist, with career stagnation after childbirth. Many interviewees believe that even though there has been definite progress in the past decade, the working environment for Korean women shows continuing discrimination.

- An increase in the number of women hired in permanent full-time positions, women returning to the workplace after childbirth, and decrease in the gender wage gap. But it must be expanded.
- Most importantly, labor laws regarding protection of female worker should promote a sound environment for childbirth and provide women better opportunities in business.
- Since 1998, there have been laws passed by the Korean government; in ten years time, there may be more female middle managers and it may change the [Korean] corporate culture to be more family friendly. It will take another ten years for women to go up the promotion ladder to the executive level.

(In)equity in recruitment process

Asked whether firms' recruitment processes are fair and equitable, many interviewees disagreed, supporting earlier studies (Cho et al. 2010; Eun and Yoon 2010). Some stated that one reason for ongoing gender discrimination is the lack of an equitable recruitment process. One government official stated, "Compared to ten years ago, non-discriminatory policy is now very effective. Career path now AFTER this in order to be promoted but there is still the "glass ceiling" and it is also difficult to balance personal and work life. The rate of university graduates has surpassed men in 2010 showing great improvement bringing change to Korea society. Research by MoGEF in 2010, as to obstacles to being promoted to high level management positions in male-dominated industries, showed career stagnation after childbirth. Based on that research, a family-oriented culture is necessary with the participation of SMEs as to the approval system for promotion." Other interviewees' comments are:

- We should focus on why women quit their jobs when they become pregnant prior to considering the adoption of a quota.
- They [SMEs] have neither time nor money to hire disabilities, over age 55 or female.

- Formally it is fair but in reality, it is not. There are many different ways to hire people so it is easy to recruit unfairly.
- Because of the Affirmative Action program [it is] but small firms do not. Based on J. Rawls theory of justice, the ability to hire should be proportional to sales or profits.
- In [the] case of female workers: the same requirements and standards are applied to all applicants.
- Males, not handicapped workforce, are preferred: in their late 20s to early 30s; college graduates are preferred because of the vertical company culture.

There was contradiction but interviewees stressed that discrimination is difficult to prove. A government ministry director cautioned, "The process itself is fair, but the results may not be (informal factors)."

(In)equity in promotion

The stakeholders identified promotion as the area firms most typically discriminate in, supporting earlier studies (Chin et al. 2011; Park 2010; Joo 2008). Park and Gress (2010) argue that with wage work, an overall gender-biased discriminatory atmosphere leads to decreased equality in opportunities, resulting in females receiving fewer promotions. A recruiter confirmed this gender-biased atmosphere, "There is severe discrimination by gender. The reason this is more severe than recruitment by employer is that this is not open to public. The HR personnel can give us their requirement without any hindrance. In this case, when they give us their recruitment requirement, they mention gender, age, etc. For example, positions, like an executive assistant, [are] always female. Planning and business development, there are more men and marketing and accounting, there are more women. So hiring women is fair but promotion of women is harder than men." The reasons identified by other interviewees varied:

- Recruitment of relatives/acquaintances and development of SME industries is a challenge (provides more than 80% employment for Korean workers).
- They prohibit discrimination based on gender or age, but it happens naturally in the process of hiring.

Government wage subsidies

The Korean government offers wage subsidies as incentives for hiring recent university graduates, people over age 55, the physically challenged, women returning to work, and other special groups. Among the interviewees, there was some awareness of these subsidies,

supporting earlier studies (Eun and Yoon 2010): "Women returning to work after childbirth generally end up in part-time employment."

FAIR TREATMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

Equal opportunity policies and practices

Asked whether most firms have a formal written policy on equal opportunities or managing diversity/inclusion, some of the interviewees agreed, indicating that [because of] the Korean government's policies, firms have implemented EO policies. A government ministry director pointed out, "In recent years, the number of companies practicing transparency management increased." Stakeholders stated that policies were formal, informal, or non-existent, depending upon firm's size:

- The rule is fair; they never have any kind of discrimination.
- There is a Discrimination Remedy Team under KLF.
- By law [firms] must have a formal written policy on Equal Opportunities and, if there is discrimination, the employee can file a lawsuit with the Korean Labor Relations Commission.

A researcher in a government agency countered with, "They [SMEs] don't feel the need to be stipulated." An officer from a women's union stressed, "Related laws exist, but are not effective."
Asked whether these organizations have equal opportunity policies, some again agreed that organizations have EO policies. The highest groups are: "policy does not specify any particular group" and "gender." Two interviewees commented that a firm's EO policy does not prevent discrimination: "Pregnant women, when they apply for a job, are being discriminated against." "There is a labor law but, in reality, there is discrimination." A union official pointed out that despite EO policies, discrimination does occur: "Some cases have written documents where they state they do not discriminate but in reality, they do. There is a Labor Law but, in reality, there is discrimination."

Monitoring and promotion

Regarding whether firms monitor recruitment and selection by gender, age, educational degree, race, and physical or mental disability, majority agreed, with gender as the highest, suggesting that because AA focuses on gender rather than other specific groups, it is more prominent. Regarding whether firms review recruitment and selection procedures to identify indirect discrimination by any of these same characteristics, the majority agreed, with gender

selected as the dominant category; however, an officer with a women's organization commented that it is done "informally." As to whether firms monitor promotions by any of these same characteristics, majority agreed, with an educational degree being the dominant category, supporting the Koreans' drive for mass education. Opinion from a labor federation felt, "It is much better these days and firms have to be more gender conscious in Korean society … Junior or middle level, it is fair due to being evaluated two times per year so they are assessed on merit. For the top level, it may be affected by competency ability and connections."

Asked whether relative pay rates by any of these same characteristics were reviewed by firms, many agreed, with the highest categories being gender and educational degree, supporting reports of Korea's gender wage gap (Joo and Lee 2009). A government agency researcher commented, "Nice to do if the SME fits the category. In Korea, educational level is a poor point as when SMEs first set the wage level, it is based on educational level so it makes a difference."

The question of what is the most common way of promoting people elicited a response in which the vast majority agreed that Korean workers are promoted based on educational background, age, experience in the field, years of service, competence, and performance. One union official commented, "For women, there is no chance to be promoted." Most interviewees agreed that firms use some tool to measure performance. Sales figures, outcome of projects, MBO, and superior and peer evaluations were listed as most commonly used, indicating that firms are moving toward modern performance evaluation tools, except in the case of SMEs. Two government officials commented, "It is not very systematic. SMEs CEO's decision must be considered." "It depends upon the (position) level and industry. Competency is prevailing at lower levels, but at higher levels, other factors are taken into consideration." Based on this, we could possibly see a change to women being promoted on merit.

As to whether working long hours correlated to promotions, some disagreed, indicating that firms are moving away from the traditional practice of workers being expected to work long hours to show loyalty. However, opinions appear to be divided. A government official stated, "The important factor is results, not the way they look. With the generation gap, young people do not wish to work long hours for the firm and are not following the Confucianism work ethic." Since one barrier was the traditional Korean firm having their employees work long hours, this may create greater opportunity for promotion for Korean women in the future because this requirement has been a major barrier.

Alternative working arrangements

When asked about alternative working arrangements, the most common category is working at or from home during normal working hours. This is a recent HR practice in some firms in Korea and is thought to allow women to balance work and home. A labor federation official stressed, "Working at home or from home in normal working hours is a new trend in Korea. The ability to increase working hours is very difficult. Job sharing schemes are a new

trend. It was an emergency measure in 2009 [due to the global financial crisis]. Flexitime is becoming more accepted, but the trade unions are suspicious of it. The ability to change shift patterns is difficult. Night working, the norm is usually manufacturing and medical occupations except for office workers where the firms are effected by globalization, a new trend."

Asked whether employees in firms can choose their working hours, many disagreed, with the most common category being flex-time. A labor federation official feels that, "These are still new trends; many companies are not accepting them. A new trend is to reduce working hours upon retirement." One can summarize that for Korean working women, these trends will be slow to [manifest in] the Korean workplace. A government official pointed out: "A report last year shows 20% of firms have no flex-time." If firms allow employees to choose their working hours, the majority of the interviewees felt that employees with young children would opt for reduced working hours and flex-time. An important observation by a government official cast light on female employees' limited access to flex-time: "The above are for public sector employees only."

Maternity/Paternity/Non-vacation Leave

Asked whether female employees going on maternity leave receive their full rate of pay, many agreed, showing that firms are generally following Korean law by providing paid maternity leave. In firms, if male employees need to take time off around the birth of their child, the highest category is for paid paternity leave. However, even though paternity leave is paid, a government official commented that few male employees ask for it due to peer pressure, giving little help to new mothers. A government agency researcher agreed, "In Korean society, it is not accepted for male employees to take the 5 days allowed by the government for paternity leave. Usual is one day off, if the wife had problems in the delivery, then maybe 2 days off." But there seems to be a move toward more acceptance as a labor federation official indicated, "There must be compliance with the law (5 days); it is becoming more acceptable and common for men to ask for paternity leave."

Regarding whether firms allow employees to take non-vacation leave, for instance, in a family emergency, the majority agreed, with annual leave identified as the most commonly taken. However, one government official observed a lack of flexibility in allowing this type of arrangement: "Everything can be agreed upon with the employer, but it can also be refused." This indicates that child or elder care still burdens female employees.

With the exception of maternity leave, the question of whether firms allowed parents to take time off to look after children and/or elderly parents elicited a positive response from many; however, the common method is annual leave. Other arrangements vary where a labor federation official stated, "It depends upon the circumstances; usually 15 days paid vacation." A public officials' union representative stressed, "Almost impossible—1 or 2 days."

Work Environment

When asked if firms care about the working environment for employment stability, many agreed, with nurseries linked to workplaces being the most common. One government official pointed out that, "Large enterprises usually offer, but not SMEs. For the employees of SMEs, financial help with children and elderly is reflected in their IRS form; they get a tax return from the Korean government. Some large enterprises provide these subsidies via their fringe benefits." One can summarize that for working women, employment stability is minimal unless they work for a large enterprise.

Propositions Validated

The Korean government introduced affirmative action (AA) in 2006, but unlike in other countries where AA is based on race, ethnicity, and/or gender, it focuses on the elimination of gender discrimination (Cho et al. 2010; Park 2010). In the public sector, there are two AA plans, one for women and the other for the disabled (UN 2007). AA's introduction into the private sector has not been completely successful (Cho and Kwon 2010, Cho et al. 2010). This study validated earlier research (Cho et al. 2010) that identified two causes of female workers being concentrated in small enterprises; either they are not qualified, or the firms do not have the resources to deal with gender segregation in the labor market. Some stakeholders commented that the government's weak enforcement diminishes the effectiveness of AA, which was argued in an earlier study (Cho and Kwon 2010). Some of the larger companies take it seriously to improve their management and public image.

The first proposition is validated because the findings from the interviews show that despite mass education of Korean women and rapid industrialization, discrimination still exists. The second proposition is also validated because the findings indicate that despite improved equal employee opportunities arising from recent changes to Korean laws and gender policies, discriminatory practices still occur due to lack of enforcement or, in the case of some SMEs, lack of capability and resources.

CONCLUSION

The aim of the study was to find out where discrimination is most likely and through the rich data collected from interviews with stakeholders, it indicated Korean women continue to be discriminated against, especially in areas of salary and promotion, with variability based upon type of organization, public or private, and firm size. The government has enacted gender policies, but enforcement mechanisms are limited, reflecting gaps in regulatory capability on behalf of the state and/or lack of political will under present administration. Executives or owners of many firms still think women should not be hired or promoted into permanent full-

time positions. Compared to ten years ago, non-discriminatory policy is now very effective, but there is still a "glass ceiling" but it is difficult to balance personal and work life, with career stagnation after childbirth. One can infer that this is due to cultural influences on Korean business society, Confucianism within its patriarchal society and the male-dominated firms. Women lack support both at home and within firms when dealing with childcare or elder-care issues. To solve discrimination, organizations, including SMEs, need to implement a family-oriented culture.

Due to recent changes in gender polices, it appears firms are more conscious of gender in recruitment and promotion, but there is still inequality in many areas such as recruiting, hiring, pay, and promotion. From a global outlook, progress has been limited to large enterprises and the public sector; however, the major problem is with SMEs as it only covers enterprises with 500-plus employees. Women's equality is guaranteed under the constitutions of many countries (UN Women 2011), but inadequate laws and implementation gaps are the reality, and with well-functioning legal and justice systems will adequate mechanisms help women secure their rights in Korea. Working women's lives will only change in contemporary Korean society through pressure from women's organizations and a more adequate enforcement system that penalizes firms that discriminate against women. Further research is required to validate these findings.

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DRIVERS FOR WORKPLACE GOSSIP:
AN APPLICATION OF THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT

Gossip is one of the most pervasive and ubiquitous activities in modern organizations. To date, however, very little attention has been paid to factors that affect an individual's intention to gossip. In this study, we use the theory of planned behavior as the theoretical base and empirically examine the impact of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control on intention to gossip. A total of 152 participants are analyzed using structural equation modeling and the results illustrate that attitude and subjective norms are significant predictors of intention to gossip. Findings of this study may help managers and organizations manage gossip more effectively.

INTRODUCTION

Informal communication is widely known and has been suggested to be important for facilitating communication, improving trust, maintaining cohesiveness, and ensuring a sense of personal autonomy (Charles, 2007; Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, 2009). Although it is often viewed to be less rational than formal communication (Johnson, 1993), informal communication is a natural consequence of human interaction and therefore is an inevitable part of organizational life (Baskin & Aronoff, 1989; Davis, 1953). A typical type of informal communication medium in organizations is gossip, which refers to "informal and evaluative talk in an organization, usually among no more than a few individuals, about another member of that organization who is not present" (Kurland & Pelled, 2000, p. 429). Although gossip might be seen as daily conversations between two individuals, it could damage an organization as it might result in low morale or mistrust (Michelson & Mouly, 2004; Michelson, van Iterson, &Waddington, 2010). Given that gossip has an impact on organizational outcomes, previous studies have discussed the consequences of gossip in organizations. For instance, Rosnow (1977) claimed that gossip serves as a function of providing organizational-relevant information. Kurland and Pelled (2000) claimed that gossip affects organizational culture and organizational learning as it shapes and reshapes organizational members' perceptions. Meanwhile, it has been suggested that the presence of gossip in an organization could result in a climate of mistrust and poor morale (e.g., Baker & Jones, 1996; Burke & Wise, 2003), which in turn could disrupt productivity and damage the organization (van Iterson & Clegg, 2008).

In addition to the analysis of gossip consequences, a number of studies have sought to identify antecedents of gossip. For example, it is argued that gossip reflects the exchange of emotions, opinions, beliefs, and attitudes among organizational members (Michelson et al., 2010). Moreover, Suls (1977) claimed that gossip occurs when an individual has a need for attention and promoting self-interest and self-image. Furthermore, it has been found that an individual is likely to gossip when he or she finds him or herself is in conditions of environmental ambiguity (DiFonzo & Bordia, 2007).

Although gossip in organizations has been investigated from various perspectives, little attention has been paid to factors that affect an individual's intention to gossip. Thus, the main purpose of this study is to explain an individual's intention to gossip using Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) as the theoretical base since it has been shown to be a useful theory in understanding human behavior (e.g., Ferdous, 2010; Fu, Richards, Hughes, & Jones, 2010) and has been used in various research fields such as consumer behavior (e.g., King, Dennis, & Wright, 2008), management information systems (e.g., Harrison, Mykytyn, & Riemenschneider, 1997), health (e.g., Turchik & Gidycz, 2012), public safety (e.g., Parker, Stradling, & Manstead, 1996), leisure activities (e.g., Hyo, 2011), etc. The basic premise of TPB is that an individual's intention to perform a specific behavior is determined by his or her attitude toward performing the behavior, his or her perceived subjective norms related to performing the behavior, and his or her perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior. By using TPB to explain an individual's intention to gossip, this study may provide important insight into managing gossip in organizations more effectively. Figure 1 shows our proposed research model and the relationships among constructs.

Figure 1
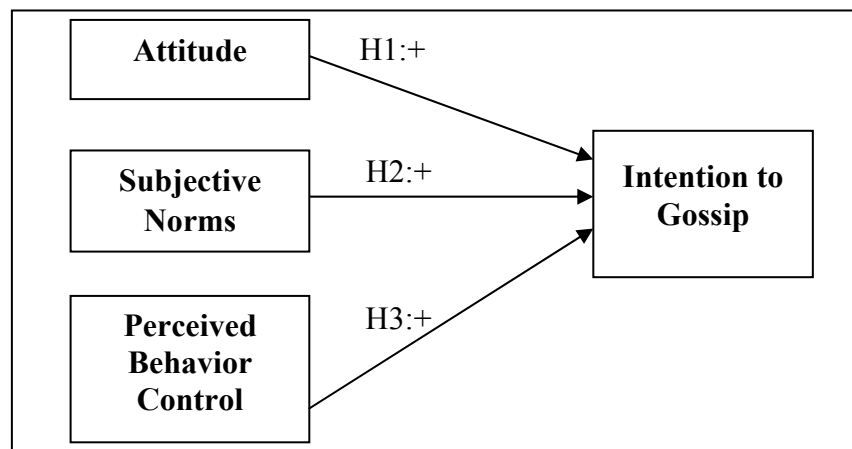
The remainder of this study is organized as follows. In the second section, we provide a brief review on gossip in organizations followed by a review on TPB. Next, we develop our

theoretical arguments and hypotheses for the proposed research model. In the fourth section, we present the procedures of testing the proposed research model empirically. This is followed by the results of our empirical analyses. We then provide a discussion on the implications followed by limitations and future research directions. The final section concludes this study with a brief summary.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Gossip in Organizations

Gossip is one of the most pervasive activities within organizations (Noon & Delbridge, 1993) and yet it could provide potential insight into understanding human behavior within organizations (Michelson & Mouly, 2002). In a similar vein, Kniffin and Wilson (2010) stated that researchers may be able to understand how things work in an organization by examining gossip in the organization as it is an inextricable activity of any given organization.

Because gossip is ubiquitous and has been commonly seen as a socially destructive activity (Grosser, Lopez-Kidwell, & Labianca, 2010), previous research has examined gossip in organizations from two main streams. A first research stream of gossip focuses on individual outcomes. For instance, Herskovits (1937) suggested that gossip serves as a means for an individual to broadcast personal judgments to others. Colson (1953) and Paine (1967) claimed that an individual is able to obtain information and personal gain when engaging in gossip. Based on Colson and Paine's concept, Noon and Delbridge (1993) further argued that gossip involves power-play as gossipers are able to achieve dominance or self-promotion. Similarly, Kurland and Pelled (2000) proposed that an individual is able to attain different types of interpersonal power by engaging in gossip. For example, they posited that an individual is able to obtain reward and expert power by engaging in positive gossip and receive coercive power by engaging in negative gossip.

A second research stream of gossip in organizations emphasizes the impact of gossip on group outcomes. For instance, it has been suggested that groups are able to perpetuate through the process of gossip as it maintains members' morals, values, and beliefs (Gluckman, 1963). Similarly, Elias and Scotson (1965) claimed that gossip maintains and reinforces existing group cohesion. Although gossip often has negative connotations (Gluckman, 1963), it has been found to be beneficial to group functioning in various ways. For example, gossip helps maintain and strengthen interpersonal relationships as the process of gossip often requires high degrees of interpersonal trust and loyalty (Grosser et al., 2010; Noon & Delbridge, 1993). Moreover, gossip serves as a viable communication approach for group members to obtain necessary information that is not available publically (Mills, 2010). Furthermore, gossip provides groups a mechanism for neutralizing the dominance tendencies of those who might attempt to compromise the groups' interests (Boehm, 1999). McAndrew, Bell, and Garcia (2007) supported this view by stating that group norms could be strengthened when group members engage in gossip because social control might be needed in order to share private information.

Although the above two research streams have provided important insight into gossip in organizations, very little attention has been paid to behavioral intention in the context of gossip at the individual level. Specifically, what affects an individual's intention to gossip remains unanswered. Thus, this study intends to identify factors that influence an individual's intention to gossip using Ajzen's (1991) TPB as the theoretical base. In the next section, we provide a brief review on TPB.

The Theory of Planned Behavior

According to TPB, an individual's intention to perform a specific behavior is affected by his or her attitude toward the behavior, his or her subjective norms related to performing the behavior, and his or her perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior. As mentioned earlier, TPB has been used in various research fields. For instance, Jimmieson, Peach, and White (2008) utilized TPB to understand employees' intentions to support organizational change and their results showed that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control were significant predictors of intentions to carry out change-supportive activities. Bulgurcu, Cavusoglu, and Benbasat (2010) investigated the antecedents of employee compliance with the information security policy (ISP) and found that an employee's intention to comply with the ISP was significantly affected by attitude and normative beliefs. Chan, Wu, and Hung (2010) analyzed individuals' intentions to drink and drive and revealed that attitude and perceived behavioral control can be manipulated in order to prevent drunk driving. Ferdous (2010) applied TPB to explain managers' sustainable marketing behavior and discovered that attitude and subjective norms were positively related to managers' intentions to practice sustainable marketing. In their study of software piracy, Liao, Lin, and Liu (2010) applied and modified TPB to capture behavioral intention to use pirated software and demonstrated that attitude and perceived behavioral control contributed significantly to intention to use pirated software.

The brief literature review on TPB suggests that TPB is a viable theory to understand an individual's behavioral intentions. Harrison et al. (1997) confirmed this view by stating that "the theory of planned behavior has been successful in predicting important behaviors in a wide variety of domains" (p. 172). Given gossip is pervasive in organizations and TPB has been applied in various research fields, the focus of this study is on using TPB to explain an individual's intention to gossip. In the next section, our theoretical arguments are presented.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

According to Ajzen (1991), attitude refers to the amount of an individual's like or dislike of a specific behavior. Given that attitude determines the amount of like or dislike of a particular behavior, previous studies have shown the impact of attitude on behavioral intention. For instance, Wiium and Wold (2009) investigated adolescent smoking in Norway and found that attitude toward smoking was one of the main factors that determined an individual's intention to smoke. Basheer and Ibrahim (2010) examined consumers' attitudes toward mobile marketing and their intentions to purchase and found that consumers who received text message

advertisements without their permissions held a negative attitude toward the advertisements, which in turn reduced their intentions to purchase. Lee and Mills (2010) studied the use of handheld devices for tourists and found that attitude toward privacy affected tourists' intentions to buy the handheld devices. In a recent study conducted by Lin (2011), service experience and intention to make online reservations were examined and the findings suggested that a consumer's previous service experience was significantly affected by his or her attitude toward online reservations, which in turn determined his or her intention to make online reservations.

Based on the findings of previous studies, one can expect that attitude affects an individual intention to engage in a specific behavior as attitude determines the individual's like or dislike of the behavior. In the context of gossip, we expect that if an individual feels positively about gossip, he or she will have high levels of intention to gossip. On the other hand, if an individual holds a negative attitude toward gossip, he or she will have low levels of intention to gossip. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H1   *Attitude will have a positive impact on an individual's intention to gossip.*

According to TPB, behavioral intentions are also affected by subjective norms, which refer to the social pressure that causes an individual to think what those who are important to him or her would want him or her to do or not to do (Trafimow, Clayton, Sheeran, Darwish, & Brown, 2010). In other words, an individual's intention to engage in a specific behavior is partially influenced by his or her constant assessments of whether those people who are important to him or her think he or she should perform that behavior. Given the perceived important impact of subjective norms on behavioral intentions, previous studies have examined this relationship in various contexts. For example, Henle, Reeve, and Pitts (2010) examined time stealing at work and found that there was a positive relationship between subjective norms and employees' intentions to steal time at work. When studying why small and medium enterprises go green, Cordano, Marshall, and Silverman (2010) found that managers' intentions to implement environmental management programs were significantly affected by subjective norms. Fukukawa and Ennew (2010) found that ethically questionable behavior in consumption was affected significantly and positively by subjective norms in a metropolitan residential setting.

In the context of gossip, one can expect that if an individual perceives that engaging in gossip is not a social norm among people who are important to him or her, the individual will have little or no intention to gossip. On the other hand, an individual will have high levels of intention to gossip if he or she perceives that people who are important to him or her believe engaging in gossip is a social norm. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H2   *Subjective norms will have a positive impact on an individual's intention to gossip.*

Perceived behavioral control is defined as the degree of difficulty that an individual believes it is to perform a specific behavior (Henle et al., 2010). According to TPB, the greater the perceived behavioral control an individual has over performing a specific behavior, the higher the intention the individual has to perform that behavior. Because of its important role in

affecting an individual's perception of a particular behavior, perceived behavioral control has been found to be a significant predictor of behavioral intentions in various settings. For instance, Broadhead-Feam and White (2006) investigated factors that affect whether youths follow rules in homeless shelters and demonstrated that perceived behavioral control was a key predictor of youths' intentions to follow the rules. Taylor, Hunter, and Longfellow (2006) studied consumer loyalty and revealed that perceived behavioral control had a significant effect on a consumer's intention to be loyal to a product. White, Thomas, Johnston, and Hyde (2008) examined whether students would attend a peer-assisted study session for statistics courses and discovered that perceived behavioral control determined students' intentions to show up to the study session. In their study of consumers' boycott intentions, Farah and Newman (2010) found that perceived behavioral control was one of the significant predictors of intention to boycott.

Based on the findings of previous studies, perceived behavioral control plays an important role in determining an individual's intention to perform a specific behavior. In the context of gossip, an individual only needs to be in a place where at least one individual is present in order to engage in gossip. In other words, we expect that there are relatively few physical and formal barriers exist in the context of gossip. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H3   *Perceived behavioral control will have a positive impact on an individual's intention to gossip.*

METHODS

Sample and Procedure

We employed a cross-sectional survey approach and survey questionnaires were distributed to administrative and support staff at a university in the Southwest region in the U.S. A total of 183 staff members were invited to participate in this study. The participants were informed that participating in this study is completely voluntary and anonymous. After a two-month period, a total of 152 usable responses were obtained. The average age of the participants was 28 years, 55% of the participants were female, 70% of the participants were full-time employees, and the average job experience of the participants was 3.42 years.

Measures

The survey instruments used in this study were adapted from existing validated questionnaires with necessary modifications based on the research objectives. The questionnaire consists of two sections: introduction and TPB measures. In the introduction section, the purpose of this study was stated. The participants were asked to provide their demographic information including age, gender, job experience (in years), and job status (i.e., part-time or full-time). These demographic variables were used as control variables. The second part of the questionnaire includes the TPB scale that measures attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and intentions. The TPB scale was adapted and modified from Cronan and

Al-Rafee (2008) using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The internal reliability, reported by Cronan and Al-Rafee (2008), of attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and intention is 0.908, 0.757, 0.943, and 0.979, respectively.

Validity and Reliability Analyses

For validity analyses, we assessed construct validity using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Specifically, we first assessed discriminant validity by checking whether all items loaded high on only one factor using a threshold value of 0.50 recommended by Hair, Black, Babin, Aderson, and Tatham (2006). Our results indicated that all items loaded high on only one factor and therefore discriminant reliability (i.e., unidimensionality) was obtained. Next, convergent validity was examined by verifying that all items belonging to the same construct loaded high on the corresponding construct. The results of CFA indicated that the model had a good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 143.46$, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.06). Thus, construct validity was obtained.

To assess reliability, we performed an internal reliability analysis for all scales using SPSS 19 for Windows. Cronbach's alpha was used as a measure of reliability and an alpha value of 0.70 represents the lower limit of a reliable scale (Nunnaly, 1978). The results of our analysis indicated that the internal reliability of attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and intention fell within acceptable ranges. In other words, all of the scales were shown to be reliable. Table 1 summarizes the results of CFA, convergent discriminant, and reliability analyses and table 2 shows the descriptive statistics and correlations among major constructs.

Table 1: Results Validity and Reliability Analyses				
Scale	**Number of Items**	**Unidimensionality**	**Convergent**	**Reliability**
Attitude	4	1 Factor	All items loaded significantly on the factor	0.762
Subjective Norms	3	1 Factor	All items loaded significantly on the factor	0.793
Perceived Behavioral Control	4	1 Factor	All items loaded significantly on the factor	0.761
Intention	3	1 Factor	All items loaded significantly on the factor	0.954

Table 2 : Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix for all Constructs (N = 152)					
	M	S.D.	1	2	3
1. Intention	3.975	1.848			
2. Attitude	3.473	1.399	0.658**		
3. Subjective Norms	4.536	1.517	0.565**	0.537**	
4. Perceived Behavioral Control	6.125	0.775	0.238**	0.255**	0.228*
Notes: * $p \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed); ** $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)					

Control Variable Analysis

Before testing our hypotheses, we performed a structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis to test the impact of control variables including age, gender, job experience, and job status on intention to gossip. Our SEM results demonstrated that all control variables did not have a significant impact on intention to gossip. Specifically, age was not a statistically significant predictor of intention to gossip (β = -0.222; p = 0.153); gender (1 = female and 2 = male) did not have a significant influence on intention to gossip (β = -0.110; p = 0.235); job experience was not statistically significant (β = 0.164; p = 0.222); and job status (1 = full time and 2 = part time) was not a significant predictor of intention to gossip (β = -0.087; p = 0.448). Moreover, the four control variables only explained 2.9% of the variance in intention to gossip (R^2 = 0.029; p = 0.487).

Data Analysis

After assessing the control variables, we then evaluated the structural model. Specifically, we utilized AMOS 7.0 to examine the fit of the model and to analyze the relationship among constructs. To examine the fit of the model, we checked the fit indices recommended by Hair et al. (2006). Table 3 summarizes the fit indices, threshold values, and the results of our SEM analysis. Note that we used a significance level of 0.05 to assess the statistical significance for the standardized path coefficients. Figure 2 shows the results of the SEM analysis. As shown in table 3 and figure 2, the results of the SEM fit indices indicated a good fit of our model and our model explained 50.6% of the variance in intention to gossip.
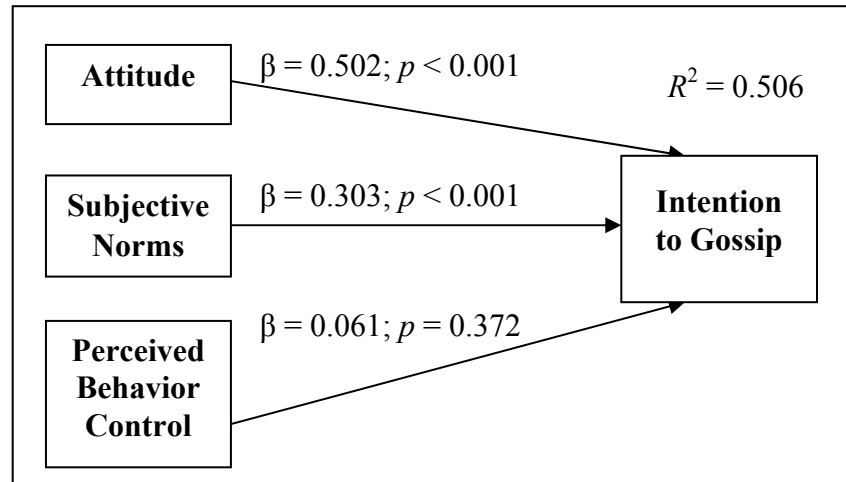
Table 3: Fit Indices and Threshold Values			
Fit Indices	**Threshold Value** (Hair et al., 2006)	**SEM Analysis Result**	**Indication**
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	≥ 0.90	0.93	Good fit
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	≥ 0.90	0.97	Good fit
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	≥ 0.90	0.94	Good fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.05 to 0.08	0.06	Good fit

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1 was supported. Attitude was a statistically significant predictor of intention to gossip (β = 0.502; p < 0.001). The analyses also indicated that attitude was the most influential predictor among TPB constructs. Hypothesis 2 was supported. Subjective norms had a statistically significant positive impact on an individual's intention to gossip (β = 0.303; p < 0.001). Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Perceived behavioral control was not related to an individual's intention to gossip (β = 0.061; p = 0.372). Although the hypothesis was not supported, the hypothesized direction of the effect was found.

Figure 2

$\beta = 0.502; p < 0.001$

$R^2 = 0.506$

$\beta = 0.303; p < 0.001$

$\beta = 0.061; p = 0.372$

Attitude

Subjective Norms

Perceived Behavior Control

Intention to Gossip

DISCUSSION

This study has sought to identify factors that affect an individual's intention to gossip. Specifically, our purpose is to investigate an individual's intention to gossip using Ajzen's (1991) TPB. By doing so, this study may provide important insight into managing gossip in organizations more effectively. Based on the results of our analyses, we discovered that attitude and subjective norms were significant predictors of an individual's intention to gossip. However, we failed to find the support for the positive relationship between perceived behavioral control and intention to gossip. Given this study is one of the first few studies that investigate behavioral intention in the context of gossip; it provides several important implications for theory and managerial practice. In the following sections, implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Implications for Theory

Because gossip has often been considered disruptive (Grosser et al., 2010), it has been investigated from various perspectives. However, there is a lack of research that focuses on explaining factors that affect an individual's intention to gossip. Thus, this study has sought to fill this research gap using TPB as the theoretical base as it has been suggested to be a useful theory in understanding human behavior (e.g., Ferdous, 2010; Fu et al., 2010). Our results demonstrated that attitude was a significant predictor of intention to gossip. This result is not surprising as many previous studies have shown the significant impact of attitude on intention in various settings. For instance, Fu et al. (2010) found that attitude toward selling new products was positively related to intention to sell the product in a sales setting. By investigating undergraduate business students, Henle et al.'s (2010) study demonstrated that attitude was a

significant predictor of intention to steal time. Finally, Stone, Jawahar, and Kisamore (2010) discovered that attitude toward cheating was positively associated with a student's intention to cheat in an educational setting. Given the positive relationship between attitude and intention has been largely supported, the results of this study add additional support to the TPB literature and extend the literature of gossip in organizations.

We also found that subjective norms were a significant predictor of intention to gossip. This is also not surprising as previous studies have shown the significant impact of subjective norms on behavioral intention in various settings. For instance, Park and Lee (2009) studied undergraduate students' participation in alcohol-related social gatherings and found that subjective norms related to alcohol-related social gatherings had a significant impact on their intentions to participate in alcohol-related social activities. Ferdous (2010) investigated factors that influence sustainable marketing behavior of marketing managers and found that subjective norms were a predictor of marketing managers' intentions to implement sustainable marketing programs. In their study of intention to use educational technology, Lee, Cerreto, and Lee (2010) showed that subjective norms affected a teacher's intention to use technology. Since it is suggested that subjective norms reflect an individual's perceived normative expectations (Sapp, Harrod, & Zhao, 1994) and are developed through social exchange and group interaction (Picazo-Vela, Chou, Melcher, & Pearson, 2010), the results of this study imply that gossip can be understood at the group level. For instance, the study of how group network characteristics or social exchange quality and quantity affect gossip in organizations may provide useful insight into understanding gossip at the group level.

Unexpectedly, we failed to find the support for the relationship between perceived behavioral control and intention to gossip. Although previous studies have demonstrated inconsistent results of the relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intentions (e.g., Ferdous, 2010; Fukukawa & Ennew, 2010; Liao et al., 2010; Pelling & White, 2009; Schreurs, Derous, Van Hooft, Proost, & De Witte, 2009; Van Hooft & De Jong, 2009), our descriptive analysis showed that the mean score for perceived behavioral control was relatively high (i.e., M = 6.25). In other words, the participants perceived that it is not difficult to engage in gossip. Meanwhile, Khalifa and Shen (2008) suggested that a high mean score for perceived behavioral control indicates an individual's high levels of confidence in performing a specific behavior successfully, which in turn reduce the relevance of perceived behavioral control on behavioral intention. Thus, this result suggests that perceived behavioral control may not be a relevant measure of behavioral intention in the context of gossip.

Implications for Practice

In addition to the implications for theory, this study provides several implications for practice. First, given attitude has a significant impact on an individual's intention to gossip, organizations and managers can minimize or eliminate destructive gossip by changing an individual's attitude toward gossip, which in turn may reduce his or her intention to gossip. For instance, it can be done by implementing a progressive disciplinary process to curtail destructive gossiping behavior and violations can result in disciplinary actions ranging from verbal and written warnings to probation. After implementing such a disciplinary action, employees may

perceive that gossip is neither allowed nor tolerated in the workplace. If this policy is clearly stated and understood by all employees, this may help develop and reinforce their negative attitudes toward gossip. In addition, organizations and managers may consider implementing an open communication policy where employees are encouraged to openly discuss issues that they are unclear about or that may bother them with management for clarification. This open communication policy, therefore, may change employees' attitudes toward gossip in terms of reducing the need for gossiping with others.

In terms of subject norms, a practical implication is that organizations and managers may reduce employees' intentions to gossip by proactively and regularly conveying clear expectations about the forbiddance of gossip using group exercises such as group discussions or meetings. Moreover, by explicitly pointing out that the organization views gossip to be disruptive and to be a barrier for achieving group and organizational goals, managers may be able to minimize or eliminate employees' subjective norms related to gossip.

Although we failed to find the relationship between perceived behavioral control and intention, our analysis showed a relatively high mean score of perceived behavior control (i.e., M = 6.25). This implies that it is relatively easy to engage in gossip. From this perspective, organizations and managers can implement practices that increase an individual's perceived difficulty in engaging in gossip. For instance, this can be done by assigning adequate levels of workloads, which in turn allows less time for idle chitchat. Moreover, managers can implement mobile workstations that allow individuals to complete work assignments via the Internet, which in turn reduce the ease of physical interaction. Furthermore, managers can established a staggered scheduling system where employees are regularly and randomly separated into different work shifts. This not only can prevent an individual from establishing frequent break room contacts but also reduce the ease of idle chitchat.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study empirically examines the impact of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavior control on intention to gossip using TPB as the theoretical base. Although this study uses sound statistical approach to systematically examine the proposed research model, it is not without limitations.

A first limitation is that this study did not differentiate positive and negative gossip. Specifically, we only focused on gossip as a dependent construct and examined how attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control affect intention to gossip. However, as Grosser et al. (2010) pointed out, gossip can occur in both positive and negative forms. Thus, future research may be needed to strengthen our model by examining intention to gossip in both positive and negative forms.

When examining intention to gossip, we neglected the impact of macro-level factors on an individual's intention to gossip. For example, it has been suggested that national culture can affect an individual's perceptions, values, and beliefs (e.g., Hofstede, 1980). In the context of gossip, cultural differences might affect an individual's perception of what constitutes gossip. Moreover, individualism or collectivism might influence an individual's attitude toward engaging in group activities such as gossip. Thus, a second limitation is that this study was

conducted in a Western culture. The results, therefore, may be inconsistent across other cultures and should be used with caution. Meanwhile, future research may be needed to determine whether macro-level factors affect an individual's intention to gossip.

A third limitation of this study is that we did not include other important internal factors such as personality when examining intention to gossip. As it has been suggested that individual behaviors can be explained by personality traits (e.g., Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991), future research may expand our proposed model by including personality traits.

A final limitation is that this study used a cross-sectional survey approach and the results of this study can only show the causality of our proposed model. Since all cross-sectional studies suffer this limitation (Gallivan, Spitler, & Koufaris, 2005), future longitudinal studies are needed to validate our model.

CONCLUSION

We have sought to explain an individual's intention to gossip by using Ajzen (1991)'s TPB. This emphasis has been neglected in the gossip in organizations literature. Thus, we believe that gossip can be better understood when factors that influence behavioral intention are examined. Our results suggest that attitude and subjective norms are significant predictors of intention to gossip. In addition, our model explains 50.6% of the variance in an individual's intention to gossip. With some limitations, this study provides several important implications for theory and practice and the findings of this study may be used by organizations and managers to structure a work environment where disruptive gossip is minimized or eliminated.

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THE MELTING POT VS. THE SALAD BOWL: A CALL TO EXPLORE REGIONAL CROSS-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES WITHIN THE U.S.A.

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ABSTRACT

*This paper renews the call for studies of **intra-**country cultural differences. This is especially true within geographically large countries such as Russia, China, India, Brazil, and the U.S.A. Sampling should be centered upon theoretically sound literature-supported cross-cultural predictors such as wealth, latitude, population density, ethnic diversity, and the like. It is very likely that geographically large countries are not homogeneous cultures. This paper illustrates that further intra-country studies are in order and offers a framework for conducting regional cross-cultural studies.*

INTRODUCTION

Culture impacts nearly every aspect of business, including managerial decision making, planning, organizing, leadership, human resource management, marketing, and consumer behavior to name only a few. Researchers within the field of management have made significant contributions in terms of **inter-**national cross-cultural studies (Adler 2008; Hofstede 1980a, 2001; Hofstede and Hofstede 2005; House, et al. 2004; Kirkman, et al. 2006; Trompenaars 1993a; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1998). These same researchers have called for **intra-**national or regional studies based on validated models used in cross-cultural research. Despite this call, little research has been performed on regional or **intra**-national cultural comparisons **within** countries.

This call for intra-country cultural research recognizes that the vast size of some countries, along with immigration patterns, and varying sources of cultural influence can result in regional cultures. Alesina (2003) states that geographic borders that define nations are a man-made institution and, as such, should not be taken as part of the natural landscape. In fact, even the geographic nature of a country is man-made. Alesina goes on to discuss how borders change with relative frequency. In 1946 there were 76 independent countries in the world. At the time of Alesina's article in 2003, there were 193. Is it reasonable to assume that the cultural impact of a Russian child growing up in Moscow (which, according to Figes (2002), has received much of its cultural heritage from the West) would be the same as the cultural impact of a Russian child growing up in a region influenced by the Buriats or the Tatars? The significant size of Russia would likely result in regional cultures or national subcultures. Similarly, would a French-

Canadian school-aged child growing up in Quebec have the same cultural nurturing as a Canadian school-aged child growing up on the other side of Canada in Vancouver, British Columbia? There have been several critics of past research that treats larger societies as one single homogeneous culture (Kirkman, et al. 2006; Lenartowicz, et al. 2003; Sivakumar and Nakata 2001). It is easy to see the validity of such critiques. Huntington (1993) and Schwartz (1999) are two examples of how the international management literature has treated national cultures. Collectively, it has been offered that political boundaries do not necessarily correspond to the shared cultural boundaries of societies. National cultures seldom reach 100% homogeneity (Holt 2007).

Regional Cultures in the U.S.A.

Within the U.S., Garreau (1982) offers the concept that the U.S. culture is ***not*** homogeneous but that the North American continent is actually segmented into distinctly different regions. It stands to reason that Scandinavians and Germans who settled the upper Great Plains of Garreau's "Breadbasket" may very well have had a cultural impact, transcending the generations from settlement to contemporary times, that is significantly different from the ethnic makeup and history of the regional culture of Garreau's mid-Atlantic "Foundry" or southern "Dixie" states. Borders, at least as they define the collective nature of the United States, may very well be arbitrary when it comes to the impact (or at the very least, the existence) of local or regional cultures. Why is this relevant? As Garreau (1982) stated concerning sub-nations of North America: "Each nation has a distinct prism through which it views the world."

Much of the published research treats the cultures within an entire nation homogeneously. One would be hard pressed to believe that the vast size of the United States, along with immigration patterns, settlement, dates of statehood and the like would lead to one homogeneous culture. Yet, the literature seems to suggest that there is, indeed, only one collective American culture (e.g. the melting pot) that has been studied in the management literature. Other than demographic studies (e.g. Jewish culture, Black culture, generational studies, etc), there has been little done in the realm of cross-cultural studies based on geographic or regional comparisons within the U.S.A.

Indeed, the international management literature treats the United States as a culturally homogeneous society. Based on the assumption that this is incorrect and that Garreau's (1982) concept of distinct cultural regions in North America has value (e.g. the salad bowl), this paper suggests the need to explore further Garreau's sub-nation hypothesis. Specifically, researchers should explore similarities and differences between samples of managers drawn from different regions within the U.S.A. Such research should explore perceived values as held by adults born, raised, and currently residing in different regions ***within*** the United States. To help create hypotheses in such cross-cultural comparisons, criteria such as population density, wealth per capita, latitude, ethnicity, immigration patterns, religion, and length of time since initial settlement are important determinants (Hofstede 1980a, 2001; House, et al. 2004; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1998).

Melting Pot vs. Salad Bowl

As editors of a compilation of anthropological, psychological, and business works in 2000 titled *Culture Matters: How Values Shape Human Progress*, Harrison and Huntington (2000) offer discussions of black culture, gender-based cultural comparisons, the culture of certain groups who have something socially in common such as homelessness, membership in a gang, race, etc. Glazer (2000) suggests that discussions of cultural differences in the United States have been avoided because such discussions may communicate the idea that some cultures are better than others, at least in the sense that they do more to promote human well-being. Glazer implies that the risks of pursuing cultural comparisons, at least within the United States, may be greater than the gains and may further be of little long-term significance as the supposed melting pot model of the U.S. tends to attenuate cultural differences (Harrison and Huntington 2000, p. xxxi). Additionally, researchers have concluded that some immigrants can be acculturated to a new dominant culture yet hold on to their own cultural identity (Ogden, et al. 2004). Some may give the impression they have become assimilated into the host culture but, in fact, are simply modifying their behavior to fit in (Shackleton and Ali 1990).

Barlow, et. al. (2000) mentions that European immigrant groups may identify themselves as being American because the United States is their chosen country of residence. However, they may still not want to assimilate because, in doing so, they might lose valued cultural characteristics from their countries of origin. This desire to hold on to a native culture is, in turn, instilled in the younger generations resulting in greatly resisted dilution and change despite prolonged exposure to the host culture. Culture develops in the course of social interaction, is taught from early infancy, and results in deeply held values (Hansen and Brooks 1994; Hofstede 1991; Hofstede 2000; Weisner 2000).

Hofstede (1985) hypothesizes that Latin European and Mediterranean countries' pattern of large Power Distance and strong Uncertainty Avoidance was set in Roman days as all these countries are the cultural heirs of Emperor Augustus. Additionally, modern day Latin American cultural patterns are a result of the merger of 16th century colonists' values and those values which were prevailing in the local civilizations at the time of colonization resulting in hybrid cultures between immigrants' cultures and host cultures. Hofstede (1985) concludes with several questions. One most interesting and applicable to the thesis of this paper is, "To what extent are problems of migrants and minorities transferred to the next generation (if they remain in the host country) and are their children stigmatized or integrated into the host culture?" Expanding on this question from Hofstede, several questions are relevant to this call for further research: (i) "Is there an eventual *hybrid* in the local region's culture influenced by the country of origin of the ancestral immigrants?"; (ii) "Can it then be hypothesized that the modern day regional cultures within the U.S.A. are derived from the respective immigrants (along with influence from American Culture) to make a unique local hybrid of cultures?"; (iii) "Are the local modern day cultures geographically unique?"; (iv) "Are the local cultures an amalgamation of the predominant groups' countries of origin?"

The concept of immigrants creating a hybrid culture within the host country is, at times, supported within anthropological studies. For example, Glazer (2000) suggests that cultural descendents of every ethnic or racial group now in the United States may no longer represent

their ancestor's native cultures; while at the same time, they may not be representative of the "American" culture either. An American visitor to Ireland will not encounter the same culture as the Irish of Boston, MA. Therefore, culture in a large society (e.g. modern day "U.S.A.") must be disaggregated to the very specific variants that characterize the ancestral immigrants' native cultures (Glazer 2000).

Many social scientists believe that the world is converging toward a single core global culture, citing interracial marriages, religious conversions, and global travel as primary reasons that people of one culture are adopting behaviors and practices of other cultures. In this regard, it has been said that one can more easily adopt a new culture even if they cannot change their race or ethnicity. At the same time, social scientists agree that people are becoming more aware of their own inherent culture and such local interpretations are becoming more popular, resulting in an increasing resistance to cultural change and assimilation. In effect, culture does matter and will continue to be a fact of life and, similar to race, resistant to change (Glazer 2000; Shweder 2000; Weisner 2000).

Various schools of thought have been offered concerning the impact of studying culture (e.g. divergence, convergence, assimilation, etc). Warner and Joynt (2002) attest to dichotomous schools of thought – divergence vs. convergence – and the subsequent impact and consequences in a managerial and organizational setting. Convergence supporter and esteemed Harvard Business School professor Michael Porter stresses that globalization includes cultural transmission that will tend to homogenize culture and make it easier for countries to overcome cultural differences. In order to participate in the global economy, developing countries may be forced to change long standing practices and beliefs. For some researchers, the idea of convergence is not limited to the idea of *whether* a developing country's culture system will change, but rather, *when* it will change. Such researchers believe that the collective convergence of the world's developing nations will result in a core global economic culture shared by all participating nations (Kerr, et al. 1973; Porter 2000). Another convergence supporter, albeit more subtly, is Glazer (2000) who states that, at least within the supposed melting pot model of the United States, attenuation of cultural differences results in convergence through assimilation. However, even Porter admits that local cultural differences will remain. "Globalization will not eradicate culture, as some have feared" (Porter 2000, p. 128). This observation by Porter is in line with the observations of Adler (2002, 2008) and Child (2002) who both advocate convergence on the macro level including organizational structure and governance while at the micro level, interpersonal behaviors, norms, and values will continue to be influenced by culture (Holt 2007).

Yet for others, the fact remains that we live in a multicultural world and it is a fact that cannot be ignored or overlooked. Hofstede's (2001) research indicates that cultures are very stable. For many researchers, cultural differences within nations are becoming increasingly important to study and to understand (de Barros 2002; Grennes 1999; Holt 2007). Indeed, cultural differences are a fact of life for many nations and in the end, cultures will not converge (Shweder 2000). There will continue to be cultural elements which will be resistant to change, even if the convergence theorists are proven correct (Hofstede 2001). Javidan, et al. (2006) state a case for divergence-centric positions more succinctly and urgently: "[T]he future of our planet depends on better understanding and acceptance among people of differing cultures" (p. 911).

A CALL FOR REGIONAL CROSS-CULTURAL STUDIES

For many years, the general theory of managing an international business consisted of a single 'best way' to manage people and organizations. The success of the U.S. economy, along with the dominance of U.S. business schools, had led many academics and practitioners to believe that the 'American way' of management is, indeed, the 'best way' to manage regardless of the local context. (In the context of this research, the word "America" will be used in reference to the United States of America). One cultural anthropologist went so far as to claim this attitude to be ethnocentric monism (Shweder 2000). This philosophy went relatively unchallenged for several decades. Although the most significant authors of cultural research have not agreed on much concerning the cultural models and methods of measurement, they do agree that a single 'best way' to manage in any given context is a philosophy in need of updating (Hofstede 1980a, 1980b; House et al. 2004; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1998). As stated by Huntington (1993), in the post-Cold War era, the distinction between groups of people will no longer be made along political or economic lines, but rather along cultural lines. Even within the world of anthropology and political science, cultural values and attitudes have been deemed to be important yet neglected factors in scholarly work (Harrison and Huntington 2000).

Although culture has been a much studied and much debated topic in recent decades within the management literature, the vast majority of that literature has been focused on cross-cultural comparisons across *nations* (Hofstede 1980a, 2001; Hofstede and Hofstede 2005; House et al. 2004; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1998). Little work has been done concerning the regional impact that culture has *within* a nation. Huntington (1993) tells us that, "The culture of a village in southern Italy may be different from that of a village in northern Italy…" (p. 24). Hofstede has been criticized for assuming that cultures follow political boundaries and for not accounting for *within*-country differences (Jaeger 1983; Shackleton and Ali 1990). Due to the geographical size of some countries (e.g. Russia, Canada, the United States, China, Brazil, etc), it would seem more regional cultural studies are in order. There exists a gap in the literature concerning the existence of subcultures within national boundaries (Lenartowicz et al. 2003; Ogden et al. 2004).

Very little attention in the management literature has been given to the concept that American culture is ***not*** homogeneous. However, researchers are increasingly dropping the notion that the U.S.A. is a melting pot of cultural groups whereby all cultures eventually mix into a single homogeneous culture (Ogden et al. 2004). In addition to Garreau's (1982) discussion of distinct cultural regions within North America, cross-cultural differences have been linked to several factors including population density, wealth (income and production per capita), and the distance from the equator of a group of people (Edgerton 2000; Hofstede 1980a, 2001; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1998).

A FRAMEWORK FOR INTERSTATE CROSS-CULTURAL STUDIES IN THE U.S.A.

Any interstate cross-cultural study should attempt to apply cultural theory and a relevant theoretical model to the ***intra***-national cultural context. In this case, such research should seek to

determine whether interstate cultural differences exist ***within*** a given nation; specifically, what are the similarities across and differences between perceptions of values within the dimensions of culture in managers from the chosen regions? In order to explore the possible existence of interstate or regional subcultures within a given nation, future research should explore dimensions of culture in the context of regional ***intra***-nation cultural comparisons.   The remainder of this paper suggests steps to follow for such regional cross-cultural research.

Proposed Framework Chapters 1 & 2: The Context and Literature Review

The primary intent of regional cross-cultural research is to determine whether cultural differences exist ***within*** nations.   More specifically, what are the similarities across and differences between perceptions of values within the relevant dimensions of culture in managers within the same nation yet geographically or otherwise divided? Guided by such a research question, a literature review must first set out to define the concept of culture (Earley 2006). Past scholars have debated the existence and measurement of various dimensions of culture due to the lack of consistency in definition and assessment. Properly defining the concept of culture is necessary due to the ambiguity and murkiness of the topic (Earley 2006). The researcher is encouraged to include a brief discussion of culture in each subculture (e.g. each 'society'). This should include information centric to how culture can be found everywhere groups of people are found, how culture manifests itself, and descriptive aspects of culture such as its normative nature. In addition to the context, the literature review should also include the assessment of culture including the actual dimensions used to measure, assess, and compare cultures. A key outcome of a thorough literature review would be to find a representative theoretical model in order to assess meaningful cultural dimensions. Such a model would be drawn from relevant and applicable cross-cultural research and studies and would be applied to the new context of a regional cross-cultural study ***within*** a nation. The purpose would be to ferret out meaningful cultural dimensions using existing tested and validated survey instruments applied to the new context.

In order to avoid the pitfalls identified by Schein (2004), Earley (2006), Harrison and Huntington (2000), and many others, the concept of culture would need to be clearly defined and presented as a means of settling on a definition to help guide the remainder of the research. The underlying intent of a thorough literature review, as suggested by Earley (2006), would be to answer the question, 'What is culture?'. Once a definition is derived and the concept of culture is explored, the literature review should include a discussion of how culture manifests itself in the given regions. Here, the questions to answer is 'How can one recognize culture in the chosen regions?' and 'Where can one recognize culture?' Finally, the literature review should include an outline of how previous researchers have gone about assessing culture. Although there have been several models put forth to ferret out measurable aspects of culture, a regional study would do well to focus on those that have been the most instrumental in shaping cross-cultural theory. In order to avoid the pitfalls of new theory in a new context, universally accepted dimensions should be chosen and applied to the new context of regional intra-national cultural studies. Here the question to answer is, 'How does one measure and compare cultures?' In order to formulate the necessary hypotheses to guide the remainder of the research effort, the final section of the

literature review should focus on predictors of culture; and, specifically, as those predictors relate to the chosen context. The question this final section would answer is, 'What are the determinants of culture?'

Assessing Culture.

One of the more challenging aspects of any review of the literature surrounding the topic of culture is the means by which scholars have approached, defined, conceptualized, operationalized, and measured the concept of culture (Earley 2006). Even though many prominent scholars agree that culture is historically determined, learned, persistent, contains subjective and objective elements, is collective and shared, and provides solutions to life's problems, these same scholars universally admit that culture is difficult to grasp. This difficulty is due, in part, to the lack of consistency in developing universally meaningful definitions, dimensions, scales, and measures (Earley 2006; Holt 2007).

Cross-cultural research projects must settle on a framework so meaningful comparison can be made (Earley 2006). This framework inherently must contain well defined dimensions, scales, and measurements in order to provide meaningful differences and similarities across cultures. Cavusgil and Das (1997) provide an appreciable approach to cross-cultural research beginning with theory and construct definition. Repeatedly, cross-cultural researchers emphasize the importance of properly defining the paradigm of culture, its conceptualization relative to the study at hand, and the underlying dimensions and means of measurement (see for example Earley (2006)).

Dominant Frameworks.

There have been several frameworks proposed by scholars. Each allegedly offers researchers opportunities to compare and contrast cultures based on measurable and comparable dimensions (Adler 2008; Cullen and Parboteeah 2008; Deresky 2006; Hofstede 1980a, 2001; House et al. 2004; McFarlin and Sweeny 2006; Phatak, et al. 2005; Trompenaars 1993a; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1998). However, there is a noticeable lack of agreement on a universal definition of the actual dimensions used to make cross-cultural comparisons. Many authors have attributed much attention to the constructs and historical significance of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's initial cultural model. For example, Miroshnik (2001) and Adler (2002) speak of the significance that Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) have had on the study of culture. Sondergaard (1994) and Sivakumar and Nakata (2001) have documented the vast appeal and impact that Hofstede's model has had on management literature. It has been said that the use of Hofstede's model continues to rise (McFarlin and Sweeny 2006). Triandis, when writing the forward to the recent GLOBE project's massive publication, described the GLOBE effort as the most massive and influential cross-cultural undertaking of its kind; going on to say that the GLOBE project will influence thousands of doctoral dissertations well into the future (Triandis 2004). Smith (2006) spoke of the Hofstede and GLOBE models as 'elephants' in the realm of cross cultural studies. In addition, Trompenaars's 7d model is solidly grounded in Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's initial work of 1961. Lastly, the GLOBE authors and Hofstede both cite

Trompenaars's model in many of their respective cultural dimensions. An important decision will need to be made by the researcher: what measure should be used in a cross-cultural comparison?

Hypothesis Generation.

A regional cross-cultural research effort should ground proposed hypotheses in literature-supported environmental variables that theoretically predict a society's cultural manifestations. In other words, what are the environmental variables that attribute to a society's relative placement on the chosen cultural dimension's continuum? Within established cultural dimensions, past researchers have offered "predictors" for each cultural dimension. As offered by culture researchers such as Hofstede (1980a, 2001) and the GLOBE authors (House et al. 2004) – and supported by anthropologists – cultural predictors include population (and population density), wealth, climate and latitude, among others such as religion, social programs and such. Researchers would do well to include such support for hypotheses based on cultural "predictors".

Population & Population Density.

Edgerton (2000) discusses the significant difference that population has on culture. Specifically, he subscribes to a theory that people in smaller societies have lived in far greater harmony and happiness than larger populated societies. Additionally, Edgerton offers that people in small societies continue, to this day, to be more harmonious, happy, and devoted to community. Edgerton offers anthropological views that populous societies and cities are besieged with crime, disorder, and human suffering compared to smaller societies with their much more harmonious communities; and that these views date back to Aristophanes circa 300 BC and Tacitus in the first century AD. This philosophy carried forward to impact the thoughts and research of 19th century scholars such as Ferdinand Tönnies, Henry Maine, Fustel de Coulanges, Emile Durkheim, and Max Weber (Edgerton 2000). Edgerton concludes rather unequivocally that anthropologists agree small-scale societies are better adapted to their circumstances, and hence serve their societal members better than larger urban societies. The bottom line is that members of a smaller populated society are more closely knit. An example of how this impacts a dimension of culture includes the idea that relative Power Distance is positively correlated with more populated cultures where there is more acceptance of a separation of power and much looser ties within the society (Hofstede 1980a, 2001).

Ogden et al. (2004) speak of how the level of homogenization is affected by the urban vs. rural setting in which a person was raised and the amount of consistent exposure a subculture received from the new culture. Rural settings create opportunities for the original culture to be more 'sticky' (a term coined by Hofstede (2002a)) by limiting exposure to the new host culture. Urban areas, with greater population densities, results in a greater exposure to the new host culture and people are more inclined to adopt the new culture (Ogden et al. 2004).

Wealth.

In the massive research project commonly known as the GLOBE study, researchers have empirically shown the effect that wealth has on culture (House et al. 2004). In fact, wealth was such a pronounced determinant, it led Javidan et al. (2006) to proclaim that 12 out of the 18 values and practices measured by the GLOBE study were correlated with societal wealth as measured by per capita production and per capita income (GDP per capital and GNI per capita). Hofstede also concludes that wealth is a predictor of placement within three of his five cultural dimensions, i.e., power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity (Hofstede 1980a, 2001).

Climate and Latitude.

Other social scientists, including political scientists and anthropologists, state that as a variable, culture is influenced by numerous factors such as geography, climate, politics, and other such environmental variables. Tropical and Mediterranean climates result in a relatively larger hierarchical distance or a larger degree of verticality than cold or temperate countries while latitude directly affects societal member interaction, wealth, power distribution, and uncertainty avoidance (Diamond 1999; Etounga-Manguelle 2000; Harrison and Huntington 2000; House et al. 2004). This directly correlates with Hofstede's claims of latitude as a predictor for the relative placement in several of his dimensions. For example, there is a significantly negative correlation between the power distance index score of a country and the distance of its capital from the equator (Hofstede 1980a, 2001; Shackleton and Ali 1990). Such a predictor could help researchers develop theoretically sound hypotheses in ***intra***-national cross-cultural studies.

Religion.

The literature supports that religion plays a role in determining the placement on the uncertainty avoidance continuum, the universalism/particularism continuum, humane orientation, and the performance orientation continuum (Hofstede 2001; House et al. 2004; Javidan 2004; Kabasakal and Bodur 2004; Trompenaars 1993a; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1998). Other researchers have indicated that a higher level of Catholicism will yield a higher placement on the UAI index while societies with higher concentrations of Protestantism, Buddhism, and Islam have lower UAI scores (Tang and Koveos 2008).

Other Predictors.

Homogeneous cultures typically favor collectivism (low IDV scores) while societies that are more ethnically diverse score higher on the IDV scale (Lenartowicz et al. 2003; Triandis 1989). This is particularly true for ethnic groups that make up over 70% of the population (Tang and Koveos 2008). Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) offer that a higher level of tolerance for linguistic variability relates to a lower score on the UAI scale (MacNab and Worthley 2007). Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) have linked low power distance scores to a society's increased

access to socialized programs (MacNab and Worthley 2007). Factors other than national culture have been found to have an impact on some dimensions of culture. For example, Bosland (1985) found that PDI and UAI scores deviated considerably from Hofstede's published scores and that 'years of education' was found to be an intervening variable (Shackleton and Ali 1990). Researchers may wish to attempt to control for years of education to reduce spurious artifact which this intervening variable may cause.

In the end, there are numerous theoretically sound predictors of culture that will allow the researcher to be well positioned to make meaningful and testable hypotheses across each chosen cultural dimension.

Proposed Framework Chapter 3: Methodology

Methodology would include sections devoted to research design, instrumentation, measurement, validity, reliability, questionnaire design, and sampling frame. Researchers are well advised to consider the documented limitations associated with using Hofstede's instruments which past literature has argued are unreliable due to low coefficient alphas. However, as noted by Sondergaard (1994), the scales from Hofstede's Values Survey Module scales have been very popular among researchers.

Both GLOBE and Hofstede have advocated matched samples. Researchers would do well to ensure that samples are matched as closely as possible including demographically and like industries. Hofstede suggests that organizational culture can influence respondents and that matched samples should also include a single firm. This 'limitation' is not universally accepted across the literature as some researchers would consider matched samples at the organizational level a weakness when studying societal cultures (for discussion see Hofstede (2001) and the GLOBE project (House et al. 2004)).

A potential sample design limitation results from the idea that the level of measurement versus the unit of analysis has confounded cross-cultural research for quite some time (Hofstede 1980a, 2001; House et al. 2004). The problems lie in the 'ecological fallacy' and 'reverse ecological fallacy' associated with the levels of measurement and analysis (Hofstede 1980a, 2001; Robinson 1950). Researchers should acknowledge the debate in the literature concerning the measurement of individuals and the analysis of societies in cross-cultural studies. Scales such as those developed by Hofstede and GLOBE are unidimensional where each dimension is measured along a continuum ("more of one trait means less of the other" (Bearden, et al. 2006),

The methodology section should discuss the process, steps, and methodology of assessing the chosen dimensions in the context of an ***intra***national cross cultural study. Issues to be addressed in the methodology include research design, measurement, scaling, validity and reliability of any borrowed scales, and sample design.

Proposed Framework Chapter 4: Analysis

It is suggested that the Analysis section should include (i) examining and scrubbing the data set to identify any erroneous responses and possible outliers, (ii) actually measuring the constructs including construct validity, (iii) testing for normality and performing both

exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, (iv) testing each of the hypotheses with appropriate discussion, and (v) assessing any relevant implications that the cultural differences have in the selected contexts.

Data analysis procedures should include exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory analysis. "Never create a summated scale without first assessing its unidimensionality with exploratory or confirmatory factor analysis" (Hair, et al. 2006, p 139 box).

Data Examination.

Examination of the data would include dealing appropriately with missing data, performing any recoding of survey items, identifying outliers, and testing the underlying data structure to ensure that multivariate data analysis techniques are appropriate. Authors should follow specific guidelines for data examination found in the analytical literature such as Hair et al. (2006), Malhotra (2007), and Field (2009).

Exploring Assumptions.

The next step in 'making friends with the data' (Rosenthal, from Azar, 1999), would be to test the assumptions that are necessary in order to proceed with multivariate analysis techniques such as factor analyses. Authors should follow the collective advice in the literature concerning the steps necessary to test the underlying data structure to ensure factor analysis is appropriate (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2006; Malhotra 2007; Pallant 2007). When exploring the existence of regional intra-national cultures, these steps can be limited to testing the normality of the underlying data. Other tests such as homoscedasticity, linearity, and correlated errors are typically tests used in dependence or predictive relationships (Hair et al. 2006). As such, studies devoted to discovering regional cultures would normally not explore any dependent relationships so tests for homoscedasticity, linearity, and correlated errors may not apply.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA).

Researchers are advised to use factor analyses to first explore the usability of the scale items (EFA) and then to confirm the underlying data structure and relationship(s) between the actual survey item variables and the latent variables that are purportedly being measured (Confirmatory Factor Analysis – CFA). The study of 'culture' is a rather fuzzy concept that is difficult to conceptualize (Earley 2006). Each dimension of culture (e.g. Power Distance, Individualism, etc.) cannot be directly measured. When a concept cannot be directly measured (i.e. it is a "latent variable"), it requires several survey items that are used to attempt to measure the concept (Field 2009). Exploratory factor analysis is a technique that allows the researcher to simplify data from a large number of survey items (variables) to a smaller number of latent variables (Hair, et al. 2003). When conducting exploratory factor analysis in regional cross-

cultural studies, each sample from each respective region should be treated and explored separately (see for example Holt (2007) and Bertsch (2009)).

To guide the process of exploring the existence of factors in the datasets, a list of steps should be developed from the collective literature. These steps are offered below and should be followed for each of the constructs in each dataset (Bertsch, 2012). The first three steps are necessary to determine whether factor analysis is appropriate and are used to determine the degree of correlation between relevant variables in each factor.

1. ***Partial Correlations***. This is the amount of unexplained correlation within a set of variables and is represented in the anti-image correlation matrix in SPSS. If a factor does exist within the given variables, the partial correlations should be relatively small. Values beyond the $\pm$ 0.7 interval are considered inappropriate for factor analysis. Preferably, partial correlations should be within the interval of $\pm$ 0.5 (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2006).

2. ***Bartlett's test of sphericity***. This will determine whether the correlation between each of the survey items (that purportedly measure a single construct) is statistically significant. In other words, are the correlation coefficients of the actual survey items significantly different from zero in order for researchers to reasonably conclude that the items are, indeed, measuring a single latent variable? The χ^2 and significance values are keys to determine appropriateness of the dataset relative to this test (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2006).

3. ***Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA)***. A common method of measuring sampling adequacy is to use the KMO test embedded in most statistical analysis software packages. This test represents the ratio of squared actual correlation between variables to the squared partial correlation between variables. The possible values range from zero (0) to one (1). Values above 0.5 are considered 'acceptable'; values above 0.7 'good'; values above 0.8; 'great' and values above 0.9 'superb'. SPSS provides the overall KMO value for all variables selected. Additionally, the MSA values for individual variables are the diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2006).

After performing steps 1, 2, and 3, researchers can determine whether any of the variables within a construct are worthy of factor analysis. The remaining variables, if any, are then subjected to the remaining steps of exploratory factor analysis.

4. ***Principle Components Analysis (PCA).*** A step in factor analysis is to determine the method of extraction. The literature suggests that Principle Components Analysis (PCA) is the most common method as it is a psychometrically sound procedure and it is conceptually less complex than other methods of factor analysis. Clearly, PCA is not truly 'factor analysis' but has been treated as such in the literature (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2006). Kaiser's suggestion of 'Eigenvalues>1' should be employed when assessing the number of factors extracted (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2003; Hair et al. 2006).

5. ***Factor Loadings.*** Depending on the sample size within each region, authors should determine the appropriate threshold for factor loadings to determine the retention of each survey item (variable). This threshold will serve as the minimum required to ensure

statistical significance given that each sample exceeded a predetermined n (sample size within each region). The significance of factor loadings is dependent on the sample size. As reported by Field (2009), Stevens suggests that samples of 100 requires factor loadings of 0.512 in order to be considered significant while samples of 200 require factor loadings of 0.364 (Field 2009, p. 644). So the range of factor loadings for the samples within any given research effort will be determined by the sample size (n). However, Hair et al. (2006, p. 128) is even more specific by offering that samples above 150 but below 200 would require factor loadings of 0.45 in order to be significant.

6. ***Communality.*** This is a measure of the amount of shared (common) variance in a particular variable. The value of the communality is the amount of variance for each variable that can be explained by the extracted factor(s). Although there are no real 'rules-of-thumb' to guide researchers, communalities of each variable should be considered in conjunction with the factor loadings when determining the retention of variables in a factor solution (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2006).

Steps 4, 5, and 6 will determine whether variables within a given construct should be eliminated. Once these steps are exhausted for each of the chosen constructs within each regional dataset, a final step (Step 7) should be used to determine the final factor loadings within each group of constructs. Step 7 cannot be completed during the initial phase of exploratory factor analysis because only one construct at a time is being explored. Rotation requires at least two factors.

7. ***Rotation:*** The end result of these steps will be to determine which variables, if any, will be retained for each latent variable. Hair et al. (2006) describe several rules of thumb when interpreting the factors during exploratory factor analysis. These steps include looking for high factor loadings, eliminating factors that cross load, and reviewing the communalities. A final suggestion includes the possibility of using different rotational methods to better define the underlying structure (Hair et al. 2006).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

Dubbed the opposite of Exploratory Analysis, Confirmatory Analysis will test (e.g. confirm) the relationship or lack of a relationship that exists between two or more constructs based on theory developed and applied *a priori*. EFA explores the structure of the data regardless of theory (Hair et al. 2006). In this regard and to effectively approach the confirmatory analysis, effort should be made to confirm that the chosen constructs are, indeed, 'constructs' and that there exists sufficient evidence to believe that the constructs are separate, independent constructs. As part of confirmatory analysis, convergent and discriminant validity will need to be assessed relative to the chosen constructs and measures. Assessing convergent validity, although cumbersome, is rather straightforward and can be conducted on the individual indicators within each theoretical construct. However, discriminant validity is easier to test on summated scales and, therefore, should be conducted after the summated scales are created.

Summated Scales.

The previous analysis would have addressed one aspect of confirmatory analysis (convergent validity). The next steps will be to create the summated scales based on the previously conducted analyses and the theory. Specifically, summated scales rely on conceptual definitions, dimensionality, reliability, and validity. Conceptual definitions and dimensionality would have already been satisfied by virtue of the theory described in the literature review, the scale development described in the methodology section, and the exploratory and confirmatory analysis conducted earlier in this section. Within Chapter 4, discussion should include creating the actual summated scales and testing *discriminant* validity of the resulting summated scales. Coupled with convergent validity tested previously, discriminant validity is another testing in the effort to illustrate overall construct validity.

The main purpose of a summated scale is to capture multiple aspects of a concept in a single measure. When reliability and validity of the factor structure have been documented, either in the literature or through statistical techniques, summated scales are the preferred method among researchers (Hair et al. 2006). Once summated scales are created, each hypothesis can then be tested.

Hypothesis Testing.

Researchers should begin the discussion of hypothesis testing by first stating the actual steps that will be followed to test each of the hypotheses. Once the steps are provided, each individual hypothesis can then be tested.

Proposed Framework Chapter 5: Contributions

This final chapter will provide contributions offered by the researcher. Where appropriate, this should include discussions surrounding the contribution to the theory, methodology, and application (context). The results of each hypothesis test should be accompanied by discussion of the social, organizational, and economic implications that are associated with each respective cultural dimension and the respective differences one could reasonably expect between the chosen regions' cultures. For example, higher individualism may result in employees being more likely to be emotionally independent and autonomous from their places of work and showing a preference for quick individual decision making and authority; whereas employees in higher collectivistic societies would have a relationship with employers based on moral terms (like a family link) and would find comfort working in larger organizations where order and group belongingness could be fulfilled. Societies scoring higher along the Power Distance continuum would result in employees more readily accepting authority based on the boss's formal position in the organizational setting and would seldom bypass that structure. Conversely, in societies scoring lower on the PDI index, employees and their superiors often see each other as equals which leads to greater harmony and cooperation. Many other such

examples of differences in employee behavior, management styles, and other aspects of business implications could be unearthed in regional cross-cultural studies.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper set out to offer a framework for studying regional cultures within nations with an emphasis on the United States. There exists a gap in the literature concerning the existence of subcultures within national boundaries (Ogden et al. 2004). Past cultural studies ***within*** the United States have been limited to demographic variables such as religion (Jewish Culture), race (Black Culture), age (Generational Culture) and the like (see, for example, Zemke, et al. (2000), Lancaster and Stillman (2002), and the collection of works edited by Harrison and Huntington (2000)). Although it makes intuitive sense that the rust-belt, the bible-belt, the Midwest, or the Pacific Northwest would have different value systems, there have been few empirical tests supporting the intuitive belief of ***geographic*** cultures within the United States. Such studies would add credence to the sub-nations espoused by Garreau (1982). The notion that the U.S. is homogeneous may be in need of updating. The ramifications of differences in cultures ***within*** the United States may lead to significant and meaningful managerial and leadership differences as well (Adler 2002, 2008; Cullen and Parboteeah 2008; Hofstede 1980a, 1991, 1993b; Phatak et al. 2005; Rodrigues 2001).

Future studies may confirm the existence of subcultures within the broader U.S. culture. Glazer (2000) states that, at least within the melting pot model of the United States, attenuation of cultural differences results in convergence through assimilation. However, Porter offers that local cultural differences will remain. "Globalization will not eradicate culture, as some have feared" (Porter 2000, p. 128). This observation by Porter is in line with the observations of Adler (2002, 2008) and Child (2002) who both advocate convergence on the macro level including organizational structure and governance while at the micro level, interpersonal behaviors, norms, and values will continue to be influenced by culture (Holt 2007). Indeed, further research could continue to explore other geographic subcultures; possibly using the sub-nations model derived by Garreau (1982).

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A COMPARISON OF THE READABILITY OF NEWSPAPER COLUMNS WRITTEN BY NATIONAL JOURNALISM AWARD WINNERS

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ABSTRACT

Multiple factors contribute to the readability of printed documents. Although font size and style, formatting/layout, and writing style may affect reader comprehension, readability formulas typically use other more measureable factors such as sentence length and number of multi-syllable words to determine reading grade levels needed to understand a document.

The purpose of this research was to compare the readability of newspaper columns written by National Journalism Award recipients. Specifically, articles by writers who received awards for commentary were compared to articles written by business/economics reporters.

Significant differences were found between the two groups. Business/economics writers' columns on average were written at about 2.5 grade levels above the columns written those who wrote commentaries. Readability grade levels ranged from 3.9 to 13.8 for commentary writers; for business/economics writers the range was 5.6 to 14.4.

INTRODUCTION

Communication technology improvements introduced in recent years have opened up media outlets to global audiences. Individuals in countries around the globe have Internet access to news media throughout the world, including the U.S. Thus, readership for a U.S. newspaper may extend well beyond the country's borders. With the likely increase in online newspaper readership, factors previously considered in measuring readability in print newspapers may not be sufficient (TxReadability, n.d.). *The New York Times* and Microsoft Corporation collaborated on a program to aid individuals in reading the newspaper online and with mobile devices (Microsoft News Center, 2006). Called the Times Reader, it ". . . provides the increased functionality of the Web, including continuous updates, multimedia and hyperlinks" (p. 1).

In addition to technology advancements, inexpensive and efficient transportation systems have made global travel affordable. Further, flexible immigration rules make the U.S. one of the most diversely populated countries in the world. Ponder, too, that "the concept of readability also is becoming an important aspect to consider in Web accessibility for individuals with disabilities" (p. 1). When all of these factors are considered, one can readily see that literacy and reading abilities vary tremendously throughout the populous.

Do U.S. newspaper columnists consider the diversity of their readership when composing their columns? Do they account for the reading capabilities of their potential audience, including readers whose second language is English? Evidence exists that suggests that writers in other

areas may not always be cognizant of their readers' competencies. One research study showed that 88% of privacy policy statements issued by banks were written at twelfth-grade level or higher (Lewis, Colvard, & Adams, 2008). Another study analyzed printed descriptions for museum exhibits. Of 20 international museums listed, most of which were located in the U.S., only one had exhibit descriptions written below grade level 12; and this despite the fact that "national surveys show that half the adult population reads below the 9th-level" (Plain Language at Work Newsletter, May 11, 2011).

This study examined the readability of newspaper columns written by winners of national journalism awards.

READABILITY EXPLAINED

Wikipedia defines readability as ". . .the ease in which text can be read and understood" (Readability [1], n.d.). Multiple readability formulas have been developed to aid writers in developing documents that meet the needs of their readers. Most formulas produce numbers that show the grade level at which one would have to read to comprehend the material. Factors used to determine readability include sentence length and syllabic intensity, with reading difficulty positively correlated with longer sentences and multi-syllable words. Other items, such as writing style, layout, font size and style, also affect readability; however, the impact of these items is difficult if even possible to measure. Although applying different formulas to the same writing sample might show different results, the differences would be slight. Frequently cited readability formulas include the Gunning Fog Index, the Fry Readability Graph, and the Flesch Readability Formula.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this research was to compare the readability of newspaper columns written by columnists and reporters whose writings had been recognized by the Scripps Howard Foundation with National Journalism Awards. Columns in two specific categories were analyzed: *commentary* and *business/economics*.

METHODOLOGY

An Internet search provided a list of award-winning journalists who write in a variety of subject areas for newspapers throughout the United States (National Journalism Awards, n.d.). Two subject areas were chosen. *Business/Economics Reporting* was selected because of the authors' teaching and research interests. *Commentary* was chosen as a comparison group since several of the award- winning writers were well-known, nationally syndicated authors. Names of annual winners in the commentary division were listed for 1997 through 2008, a total of 12 writers. Although 11 awards were presented in the business/economics category for 1998 through 2008, only six were given to individuals. The remaining awards were presented to specific newspapers.

An additional Internet search was conducted to locate columns written by the award winners for the two specified categories. In an attempt to obtain representative writing samples, three recent columns were selected for each writer. This resulted in 36 *commentary* columns and 18 *business/economics* columns.

Each column was copied and pasted into a Microsoft Word document to complete the readability analysis. Microsoft Word ". . .uses the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level test, which provides the grade level at which someone must read in order to comprehend the material" (Lewis, Colvard, & Adams, 2008, p. 89). The formula for Flesch-Kincaid is:

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

where L = average sentence length and N = average number of syllables per word (Readability [2], n.d.).

FINDINGS

Table 1 presents the mean reading grade level scores in ascending order for the six business/economics writers. Scores ranged from 5.6 up to 14.4, indicating that someone with a fifth or sixth grade reading level could comprehend the material in one document while the other would require a reading comprehension beyond the second year of college.

Table 1: Reading Grade Levels for *Business/Economics* Columnists (sorted in ascending order by mean grade level, rounded to nearest tenth)				
Columnist	Article No. 1	Article No. 2	Article No. 3	Mean
1	13.6	11.3	14.4	13.1
2	13.8	13.8	10.7	12.8
3	12.8	13.1	12.2	12.7
4	9.7	12.3	12.4	11.5
5	11.9	11.7	9.8	11.1
6	5.6	7.2	11.1	8.0
Group Mean				11.5

Table 2 displays the mean reading grade level scores in ascending order for the 12 commentary columnists. Grade level scores for these writers ranged from 3.9 up to 13.8.

Table 2: Reading Grade Levels for *Commentary* Columnists (sorted in ascending order by mean grade level, rounded to nearest tenth)				
Columnist	Article No. 1	Article No. 2	Article No. 3	Mean
1	13.8	8.4	11.70	11.3
2	11.2	10.3	11.9	11.1
3	8.8	10.6	12.9	10.8
4	9.6	10.2	12.0	10.6
5	9.5	9.8	11.5	10.3
6	10.8	7.6	10.9	9.8
7	8.3	11.8	8.8	9.6
8	7.4	7.7	7.5	7.5

Table 2: Reading Grade Levels for *Commentary* Columnists (sorted in ascending order by mean grade level, rounded to nearest tenth)				
Columnist	Article No. 1	Article No. 2	Article No. 3	Mean
9	7.7	6.2	8.5	7.5
10	7.2	8.6	6.1	7.3
11	7.0	5.8	7.1	6.6
12	6.1	7.4	3.9	5.8
Group Mean				9.0

ANALYSIS OF DATA

A two-sample t-test was run to test the hypothesis that the reading grade level group means for business/economics columns and commentary columns were equal. A test statistic yielded a P-value of 0.000, thus the hypothesis that the group means were equal was rejected with 99% confidence. Table 3 shows the two-sample t-test statistics. A one-way ANOVA also indicated a significant difference between the two groups with the same P-value.

Table 3: Two-Sample T-Test for Business/Economics vs. Commentary Columns						
	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	SE Mean	T-Value	P-Value
Business/Economics	18	11.52	2.30	0.54		
Commentary	36	9.02	2.28	0.38		
					3.80	0.000

A one-way ANOVA was run to test whether the mean reading grade levels were the same for all *business/economics* writers. For business/economics writers, a P-value of 0.029 offered a 97% confidence level that the mean reading grade levels were not equal among these writers; thus the hypothesis that there was no significant difference in the reading grade level for this group was rejected. A review of the data in Table 1 will show means for the business/economics writers ranged from a low of 8.0 to a high of 13.1.

Similarly, a one-way ANOVA test among the commentary columnists showed a significant difference in mean reading grade levels (P-value = 0.001; 99% confidence level). Mean reading grade levels for this group ranged from 5.8 to 11.3 (see Table 2).

DISCUSSION

Would readers expect that the readability grade level for business/economics columns would be higher than for commentary columns? Perhaps a plausible explanation for this difference is the intended reading audience. Those who write commentaries might well expect a broad readership of individuals from all walks of life. Business writers, on the other hand, may target a narrower reading group whose backgrounds and interests provide preparation for and expectation of a higher reading level. Targeting the audience is a technique applied by major publications. Reader's Digest, for example, is written at an approximate eighth-grade reading level while the Wall Street Journal is written at roughly thirteenth-grade level (Readability and Word Count, n.d.).

Curiously, one of the commentary columns was written at the fourth-grade (3.9) reading level. The other two articles written by the same columnist were written at the sixth- (6.1) and seventh-grade levels. In each case a conversational (dialogue) style was used with extremely brief sentences and paragraphs.

The range of readability grade levels among commentary writers was intriguing as well. Strangely, almost 10 grade levels (3.9 to 13.8) separated the lowest and highest reading comprehension levels.

APPLICATION

These findings have direct academic and business applications. Students and business practitioners have multiple communication channels available to them. Regardless of the communication channel selected, message content must be constructed at a level understandable by all recipients. Being familiar with the recipients' educational and experience backgrounds is critical when considering readability factors for any document.

How does a writer improve the readability of a document? Perhaps the most basic step is to replace multi-syllable words with shorter and/or more familiar ones. Using *improve* for *ameliorate* or *determine* for *ascertain* illustrates this point. Likewise, shorter sentences usually improve readability. Replacing verb phrases with simple verbs will shorten a sentence while at the same time making the sentence clearer. Substituting *conclude* for *came to the conclusion that* is but one example. Other factors, such as font face or size and document format, may also impact message clarity.

Improving readability increases the probability of achieving the writer's purpose—whether academic or commercial. Therefore, readability should be at the forefront of each writer's thinking when composing any document.

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