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LEADERSHIP IN HIGH-RISK ENVIRONMENTS: CROSS-GENERATIONAL PERCEPTIONS OF CRITICAL LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES PROVIDED BY MILITARY SPECIAL OPERATIONS PERSONNEL

Jerry D. Estenson, California State University, Sacramento

ABSTRACT

Military cultures tend to be perceived as hierarchal thus creating a climate where there may be a disconnect between the definition of leadership attributes by senior officers and soldiers on the ground. Data provided by 302 former special operations personnel was used to determine the degree of separation between how senior officers (strategic leaders), mid-grade officers (mid-level leaders) and junior officers, senior non-commissioned officers, and junior non-commissioned officers (functional leaders) define exemplary leaders. If the hierarchal hypothesis is correct, each level of the military hierarchy will perceive the attributes of an exemplary leader differently. The data indicates that senior officers, mid-grade officers, junior officers, senior non-commissioned officers, junior non-commissioned officers and covert government operatives spanning a period from World War II to the Afghanistan War all saw competence as the most significant behavior of an exemplary leader. The ranking of the remaining nineteen leadership attributes used in the study provides a worthwhile insight into how this unique population views exemplary leaders. This study may be of value to other governmental organizations designing teams to conduct high-risk ventures and private sector companies constructing teams to engage in high-risk economic projects.

INTRODUCTION

As early as 1953, a stream of leadership research was developing to encourage the leader to be considerate, accepting, and concerned about the needs and feelings of other people (Fleishman, 1953: Stogdill, 1974; Bowers and Seashore, 1966 and House and Mitchell, 1974). This trend continues into recent leadership literature which portrays the effective leader as one who encourages the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 1999), leads without power (De Pree, 1997), makes everyone a leader (Bergmann, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999), and is collaborative (Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Svara, 1994). Fiedler (1967), Hersey and Blanchard (1984, 1993) introduced the concept of leadership effectiveness as being situational. This shift in thinking about leadership provides the opportunity to study leadership in a context where almost all the decisions are hard, time sensitive, information limited, and the consequences significant. This paper explores leadership in the context of the United

States Military's special operations community. This perspective is provided by former members of the community (operators) who completed a survey and demographic profile. Data from the survey provides an insight into this unique environment and culture and how they define exemplary leaders. This profile may be of value to business, government, and not-for-profit organizations in search of leaders who can guide their organizations during difficult times.

THE MILITARY WARRIOR SUB-CULTURE

Before looking at units and individuals that operate at the tip of the military's spear, it is worthwhile to look at the structure of the military. In the eighteenth century, the modern military system took shape and with it came the command and control hierarchal structure led by a professional officer corps (Witzel, 2002). Within this structure officers and non-commissioned officers are selected for a progression of command positions, each of which require a broader view of the role of the military and their place in the institution. This maturation process also required that the individual not loose sight of the basic leadership behaviors dictated by the culture. As a result there is an expectation that as one increases in rank, there will be a corollary development in leadership skills. (Janowitz, 1971). In the United States Army, rank is currently divided into four classifications: Officers, Warrant Officers, Non-commissioned Officers, and Enlisted Personnel. The following chart defines the designated ranks in each category.

Table 1: United States Army Rank Structure			
Officers	Warrant Officers	Non-commissioned Officers	Enlisted
General O–10	Chief Warrant Officer W-4	Sergeant Major E-9	Private First Class E-3
Lieutenant General O-9	Warrant Officer W-3	First Sergeant/Master Sergeant E-8	Private E-2
Major General O-8	Warrant Officer W-2	Sergeant First Class E-7	Recruit E-1
Brigadier General O-7	Warrant Officer W-1	Staff Sergeant E-6	
Colonel O-6	Sergeant E-5		
Lt. Colonel O-5	Corporal E-4		
Major O-4			
Captain O-3			
1st Lieutenant O-2			
2t Lieutenant O-1			

The challenge facing researchers is to capture, in an academic analysis, the intensity of feelings toward leadership and leaders by men who lived their lives in hard places, performing secret life threatening missions, and who use a unique set of behavioral absolutes as their compass. This study is an attempt to do justice to perspectives of individuals who dedicated a significant part of their life to upholding these absolutes.

Since World War II these absolutes have been evolving into a tight set of constructs articulated by members of the United States Armed Forces. As an example, the United State Army articulates their behavioral absolutes as: honor, integrity, selfless service, courage, loyalty, duty and respect (Naylor, 1996). Within the Army there are two elite units who provide a finer edge to these concepts: Rangers and Special Forces. Special Forces defined their core values in a 2000 internal publication. They include: warrior ethos, professionalism, innovation, versatility, cohesion, character, and cultural awareness (Special Warfare, 2000). The Rangers captured their ethos in their creed:

The Ranger Creed

> Recognizing that I volunteered as a Ranger, fully knowing the hazards of my chosen profession, I will always endeavor to uphold the prestige, honor, and high esprit de corps of my Ranger Regiment.
> Acknowledging the fact that a Ranger is a more elite soldier who arrives at the cutting edge of battle by land, sea, or air, I accept the fact that as a Ranger, my country expects me to move farther, faster, and fight harder than any other solider.
> Never shall I fail my comrades, I will always keep myself mentally alert, physically strong and morally straight and I will shoulder more than my share of the task whatever it may be, One Hundred Percent and then some.
> Gallantly will I show the world that I am [is the word "a" missing here, by chance?] specially selected and well trained soldier, my courtesy to superior officers, my neatness of dress and care of equipment shall set the example for others to follow.
> Energetically will I meet the enemies of my country. I shall defeat them in the field of battle for I am better trained and will fight with all my might. Surrender is not a Ranger word. I will never leave a fallen comrade to fall into the hands of the enemy and under no circumstances will I ever embarrass my country.
> Readily will I display the intestinal fortitude required to fight on the Ranger objective and complete the mission, though I be the lone survivor. Rangers Lead the Way!! (Johnson, 1997).

In order to coordinate the efforts of all elite military units, the United States formed the United States Special Operations Command. In 1997 the Commander of this unit, General Henry H. Shelton, articulated four Special Operations Force (SOF) truths:

> Humans are more important than hardware
> Quality is better than quantity
> Special-operations forces cannot be mass-produced
> Competent special-operations forces cannot be created after emergencies occur (Shelton, 1997)

To assist the reader in understanding leadership in special operations units, this paper starts with a short history of military special operations units. The next section discusses general leadership concepts with a linkage to leadership in military special operations units. The next three sections provide a discussion of research used to determine a profile of an exemplary SOF leader. This section includes a discussion of scope, limitations, and methodology. The next section provides the data provided by 302 former SOF operators. Findings are and conclusions are offered.

The conclusion provides a perspective on leadership in high-risk environments for two audiences. The first audience is government and business leaders responsible for making selection decisions regarding leadership of their high-risk units. The second audience is the command structure of military special operations units who are responsible for selecting individuals who will be placed in key leadership roles.

Military Special Operations Units Defined

For the purpose of this paper, the definition of special operations units and special operations personnel is borrowed from the By Laws of the Special Operations Association. Members of this association served in U. S. and Allied military units involved in Special Military Operations conducted in combat areas during W.W. II, the Korean War, The SE Asian conflict, and other post Vietnam era conflicts. To qualify for membership in the association, the individual must have served in a Special Operations unit that:

> "must be or have been composed of military/paramilitary personnel, organized SPECIFICALLY to conduct special unconventional operations, with a mission of conducting covert and classified combat and/or reconnaissance operations as its NORMAL function, within hostile territory and forward of the area of influence of conventional ground support units:
> or
> with the mission to conduct counter-terrorist operations as its PRIMARY function:
> or
> on a ROUTINE basis to provide DIRECT combat support (fire-transport-forward air control) to organizations meeting the above criterion and approved by the Special Operations Association (SOA, 2003).

THE STUDY

Scope and Limitations

This is a privately funded study attempting to capture the perception of leadership using techniques which would not interfere with current military personnel and a few active duty personnel. Because the study has limited financial resources and does not carry the imprimatur of a military command, participation is limited to former military personnel. Given the research constraints, this study uses a definition of leadership attributes contained in a research methodologies which have been used replicated in multiple sectors over an extended period of time.

It is recognized that other instruments and definitions may provide a different focus and may better apply to leadership in the unique military environment.

Methodology

Kouzes and Posner (1985) have studied the phenomena of leadership for several decades. In the process they have created several instruments to measure the behavior of leaders from the perspective of followers, peers and superiors. What their research determined fairly early was that senior commanders (leaders) cannot confer leadership on someone they select to command a unit. Over time it is the followers who will determine whether that person should be – and will be – recognized as a leader (Kouzes & Posner, 1985). To further develop their view of leadership, Kouzes and Posner needed to create a workable list of leadership characteristics (attributes). The list was first developed for a study of 1,500 managers participating in an American Management Association survey. The first list contained 225 different values, traits and characteristics. The list was reduced for a study of 800 senior executives sponsored by the Federal Executive Institute Alumni Association. The list of characteristics was further refined during the next two years using participants in the University of Santa Clara executive seminars. The result was a list of twenty leadership characteristics which have been used internationally to determine differing perceptions of leadership behavior. The list also provided the framework for the development of the Kouzes and Posner's Leadership practices inventory which provides individuals with data on how their peers, subordinates, and superiors see the frequency of certain behaviors associated with effective leaders. For the purpose of this research, the twenty characteristics of exemplary leaders was presented in the same format used by Kouzes and Posner to try to determine if leadership was perceived differently by former and current members of special operations units.

The Kouzes and Posner (1985) twenty characteristics in table 2 were provided in a survey format to members of the Special Operations Association listed in the 2001 membership directory. The survey was also sent to individuals referred to the author by someone who could verify their having been a member or is currently a member of a special operations unit. The SOA membership was chosen because of the careful vetting the association performs prior to granting membership. SOA criteria for membership requires the applicant to have "served in a unit specifically organized to conduct covert, classified combat or reconnaissance operations within hostile territory forward of the area of influence of conventional ground support units." (SOA Bylaws).

Population Profile

There were 1,020 members listed in the Fall 2001 roster of the Special Operations Association. The membership roster was used to create a mailing list for the surveys. Members of the association who could verify that the individual meets the requirements of a SOF operator added 35 additional names to the list. There were 302 males and no female respondents. Military

experience of this population totaled 5,606 years with 2,258 years of experience conducting special operations missions. Table 3 breaks down the experience by rank.

Table 2: Characteristics of Exemplary Leaders			
Kouzes and Posner (1985)			
Ambitious(aspiring, hard working, striving)	Broad-minded (Open-minded, flexible, receptive, tolerant)	Caring (appreciative, compassionate, concerned, loving, nurturing)	Cooperative (collaborative, team player, responsive)
Competent (capable, proficient, effective, efficient, professional)	Courageous (bold, daring, fearless, gutsy)	Dependable (reliable, conscientious, responsible)	Determined (dedicated, resolute, persistent, purposeful)
Fair-minded (just, unprejudiced, objective, forgiving, willing to pardon others)	Forward-looking (visionary, foresighted, concerned about the future, sense of direction)	Honest (truthful, has integrity, trustworthy, has character)	Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient, self-confident)
Imaginative (creative, innovative, curious)	Inspiring (uplifting, enthusiastic, energetic, humorous, cheerful)	Intelligent (bright, thoughtful, intellectual, reflective, logical)	Loyal (faithful, dutiful, unswerving in allegiance, devoted)
Mature (experienced, wise, has depth)	Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined)	Straightforward (direct, candid, forthright)	Supportive (helpful, offers, assistance, comforting)

Table 3: Experience by Rank		
Rank	Years of Military Service	Years in Special Operations Units
Officers	3,156	1,297
Warrant Officers	268	72
Non-Commissioned and Enlisted	2,182	889
Total	5,606	2,258

This demographic profile of former and current military personnel reflects the impact war can have on the members of a combat organization. War's effect is seen in the rank individuals held while in the field conducting special operations missions and the rank they held at the time they separated from military service. The data indicates a number of individuals received a field or Officer Candidate School commission, and a significant number attained the highest Non-Commissioned rank of Sergeant Major.

Table 4: Rank in Field and at Separation			
Rank in Field Conducting Special Operation Missions	Number	Rank at Separation from Military Service	Number
Officers		Officers	
2nd Lieutenant O-1	1	2nd Lieutenant O-1	0
1st Lieutenant O-2	21	1st Lieutenant O-2	7
Captain O-3	22	Captain O-3	34
Major O-4	26	Major O-4	38
Lt. Colonel O-5	16	Lt. Colonel O-5	37
Colonel O-6	12	Colonel O-6	26
Brigadier General O-7	0	Brigadier General O-7	0
Major General 0-8	1	Major General 0-8	
Still Active Duty		Still Active Duty	
Lieutenant General O-9	0	Lieutenant General O-9	0
General O-10	2	General O-10	2
Warrant Officer	11	Warrant Officers	11
Enlisted/Non-Commissioned Officers		Enlisted/Non-Commissioned Officers	
Sergeant Major E-9	7	Sergeant Major E-9	27
First Sergeant/Master Sergeant E-8	24	First Sergeant/Master Sergeant E-8	34
Sergeant First Class E-7	33	Sergeant First Class E-7	15
Staff Sergeant E-6	34	Staff Sergeant E-6	23
Sergeant E-5	41	Sergeant E-5	37
Corporal/Specialist E-4	7	Corporal/Specialist E-4	3
Private First Class E-3	1	Private First Class E-3	1

The demographic profile of the respondents also indicates a significant change in levels of education from the time they served in special operations units until they completed the survey. Table 4 reflects the current education level of respondents holding masters degrees or higher (28%).

Table 4: Current Education of Respondents	
Highest Degree Held	Number
Medical Doctorate	1
Doctor of Dentistry	1
Doctor of Veterinary Medicine	1
Doctor of Philosophy	12
Juris Doctorate	7
Masters	64
Respondents 86/302	28%

DATA

The unique traits necessary to lead individuals engaged in high risk operations may not be dissimilar to the behaviors necessary to lead current knowledge workers. In a prescient piece written by Peter Drucker (1968), he describes an environment that closely resembles the special operations community. In this unique community:

> "Knowledge workers still need superiors…But knowledge work itself knows no hierarch, for there are no "higher" and "lower" knowledge. Knowledge is either relevant to a given task or irrelevant to it. The task decides, not the name, the age, or budget of the discipline, or the rank of the individual plying it… knowledge, therefore, has to be organized as a team in which the task decides who is in charge, when, for what, and for how long." (289-290)

If the reader substitutes "covert SOF operator" for "knowledge worker" and "mission" for "task," Drucker's perspective of leadership may have value to special operations context. The following section provides a set of tables reflecting the views of former and some current SOF operators on leadership attributes of an exemplary leader. The data was sorted to determine the entire respondent population's selection of commander and team leader exemplary attributes. To provide data to answer questions related to a possible gap between how senior leaders and functional leaders see leadership, subsequent sorts were made using rank when leaving the service (separation) as the sort criteria. Rank at separation was used to provide the respondents' most current perspective on leadership.

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to determine if the military hierarchical structure creates a systemic disconnect between a senior commander's definition of leadership and that of line soldiers. The study also examines the leadership attributes expected by followers performing high-risk missions. The study collected data from 302 SOF operators who provide a perspective on leadership that may differ from traditional military units as well as government, non-governmental agencies and private sector firms. Within this narrowly defined population 72% of all respondents perceive competence to be the most important leadership attribute for a SOF unit commander. Another attribute selected by fifty percent or more of the participants was honesty. When data on SOF team leaders was analyzed, competence again surfaced as the most desirable attribute. There were two additional attributes for team leaders selected by fifty percent or more of the respondents: honesty and dependability. Looking at the other end of the spectrum, the two least selected attributes for an exemplary commander were: caring and ambition. For team leaders the same two attributes were viewed and least important. The following chart provides the percentage of respondents selecting these attributes.

Table 6: Most often and Least Often Selected attributes	
All respondents	
Attribute	Percent Selecting
Commander	
Competent	72%
Honest	64%
Caring	9%
Ambitious	6%
Team Leader	
Competent	84%
Honest	72%
Dependable	60%
Ambitious	9%
Caring	9%

A finer cut of Commander data indicates that both Officer and Non-Commissioned Officers see competence as the most desirable leadership attribute followed by honesty. Among all

respondents, civilian operators provided the only differing view of leadership. This group selected honesty as the most important with supportive, mature, loyal, intelligent and dependable in second place. Officers placed supportive as the least selected attribute while Warrant Officers viewed several attributes as less important: supportive, caring, forward-looking and broad-minded. Non-Commissioned Officers placed caring, supportive and ambitious in that category. Civilians placed ambitious, broad-minded, caring, determined, fair-minded, forward-looking, independent, self-controlled, and supportive in the not selected category. Table 7 provides a view of the percentage selecting each attribute.

Table 7: Least and Most Selected Attributes in a Unit Commander Sorted by Rank		
Attribute	Rank	Percentage
Commander Officers n = 147		
Competent	1	87%
Honest	2	71%
Dependable	3	61%
Caring	4	8%
Supportive	5	8%
Warrant Officers n = 11		
Competent	1	73%
Honest	2	64%
Intelligent	3	64%
Mature	4	55%
Caring, Forward Looking, Broad Minded	5	0%
Non-Commissioned Officers n= 141		
Competent	1	68%
Honest	2	57%
Caring	3	9%
Ambitious, Supportive	4	7%
Civilian n= 3		
Honest, Supportive, Mature, Loyal, Intelligent, Dependable, Competent	1	100%
Caring, Cooperative, Fair Minded, Forward Looking, Imaginative, Independent, Inspiring	2	0%

Viewing the data from the perspective of exemplary team leaders Officers, Warrant Officers and Non-commissioned officers see competence as the most desirable leadership attribute followed

by honesty. Again, civilian operators provided a different view of leadership attributes. This group's selection of exemplary team leadership attributes mirrored their selection of attributes to be found in an exemplary commander. Officers placed supportive as the least selected attribute while Warrant Officers included supportive with caring, forward-looking, and broad-minded. Non-Commissioned Officers again selected ambitious, caring, and supportive in the least selected category. Civilians placed caring, cooperative, fair-minded, forward-looking, independent, imaginative, and inspiring in the not selected category. Table 8 provides a view of the percentage selecting each attribute.

Table 8: Least and Most Selected Attributes in a Team Leader Sorted by Rank		
Attribute	Rank	Percentage
Team Leader Officers n = 147		
Competent	1	81%
Honest	2	71%
Dependable	3	61%
Ambitious	4	9%
Caring Supportive	5	
Warrant Officers n = 11		
Competent	1	91%
Honest	2	82%
Determined	3	73%
Mature	4	64%
Supportive, Caring, Forward Looking, Broad Minded	5	0%
Non-Commissioned Officers n= 141		
Competent	1	81%
Honest	2	71%
Dependable	3	61%
Caring	4	11%
Ambitious	5	9%
Civilian n= 3		
Honest	1	100%
Supportive, Mature, Loyal,, Intelligent, Dependable, Competent	2	67%
Caring, Cooperative, Fair Minded, Forward Looking, Imaginative, Independent, Inspiring	3	0%

As the data is view granularly, other differences in perceptions start to develop. In selecting attributes of commanders, company grade officers placed honesty above competence. This is

contrary to the view of more senior officers and Warrant Officers who selected competence. Other differences appear when data is ranked using a 50% or greater criteria. This ranking method places Warrant Officers and Company Grade Officer's view of commander traits the same while Majors and Lt. Cols add dependability. Colonels add courageous and determined to the traits they would look for in an exemplary leader. General Officers expand the list even more adding: cooperative, imaginative, inspiring, loyal and straightforward to the list. Table 9 summarizes the Commander traits selected by 50% or more by groups of Officers.

Table 9: Commander Traits Officer Selection					
Trait	Warrant Officers % Selecting	Lts. And Captains % Selecting	Majors Lt. Cols. % Selecting	Colonels % Selecting	General Officers % Selecting
Competence	73%	59%	81%	85%	100%
Honest	64%	61%	74%	73%	100%
Intelligent	64%	51%	40%	50%	50%
Mature	55%	41%	48%	54%	50%
Dependable	18%	29%	60%	38%	100%
Courageous	45%	32%	25%	54%	50%
Determined	18%	24%	19%	50%	0%
Cooperative	0%	10%	7%	8%	50%
Straight Forward	18%	22%	33%	23%	50%
Imaginative	18%	22%	32%	31%	50%
Inspiring	18%	24%	29%	42%	50%

Officers tend to be somewhat closer on their views of exemplary traits to be found in team leaders. As with Commanders, General Officers cast a wider net in search of leadership traits. Another deviation between the officer ranks is senior officers viewing loyalty as important while company grade officers place loyalty below the 50% line. Table 10 displays attributes selected by 50% or more by Officers when ranking team leader traits.

Non-Commissioned Officers (NCOs) tend to have a tighter construction of leadership attributes than Officers or Civilian operators. NCOs of all ranks expect commanders to be competent and honest. Senior NCOs add dependable to the list of commander attributes. At the bottom of the list both groups placed supportive and ambitious. In viewing Team Leaders there is a degree of difference between senior NCOs and junior NCOs. Junior NCOs view competence as most

important followed by honesty, dependability, and intelligence. Senior NCOs remove intelligence from their over 50% selection list and add loyalty and maturity. Both groups view caring second from the bottom but disagree on the last place. Junior NCOs place ambitious last while Senior NCO place forward-looking last.

Trait	Warrant Officers % Selecting	Lts. And Captains % Selecting	Majors Lt. Cols. % Selecting	Colonels % Selecting	General Officers % Selecting
Table 10: Team Leader Traits Officer Selection					
Competence	91%	76%	91%	85%	100%
Honest	82%	54%	74%	85%	100%
Determined	73%	51%	33%	50%	0%
Mature	64%	51%	40%	38%	0%
Dependable	27%	54%	63%	65%	50%
Courageous	45%	49%	38%	58%	50%
Intelligent	27%	54%	44%	35%	100%
Cooperative	9%	10%	21%	12%	50%
Loyal	45%	41%	51%	54%	50%
Imaginative	27%	39%	36%	42%	100%
Inspiring	18%	27%	21%	31%	50%

CONCLUSIONS

Some current leadership literature tends to recommend that new leaders be collaborative, supportive, caring, nurturing and sensitive to the needs of others. This study of individuals operating in high-risk environments shifts the definition of leadership skills to the area of competent and honest. The results also support the importance of Hersey and Blanchard's work on the need to pay attention to situational leadership.

This attempt to capture leadership in a very unique population validates the military's special operations community's efforts to inculcate common values. When 72% of respondents who served in special operations units ranging from World War II to Afghanistan and who vary in rank of Private First Class to General all agree on competence as required leadership attribute, there is a strong indication that a common definition of leadership has been forged.

The forging of a conception of leadership in these elite units probably started with the rigor used to select individuals for membership. Quality selection, however, does not provide the only answer. Research and history tells us a high performing culture can only be maintained through a series of leaders who helped refine and clarify the role of leader.

While competence has been selected by this distinguished group of men, it provides current commanders and others in business and government leadership positions a challenge. The challenge is to continually refine the definition of competence in the context of their organizations. Relying on the Kouzes and Posner definition (capable, proficient, effective, efficient and professional) does not provide enough texture to assist in the leader selection processes. Attention to recent work by Larry Bossidy and Ram Charan (2002) related to getting things done and Jim Collins (2001) prescription for moving organizations from good to great may be of value.

The author attempted to provide an unfiltered view of the expectations of a group of men who risk all for a cause greater than self. The study does not capture the intensity of feelings of the respondents who ask that current leaders pay careful attention to selecting only the best to lead the best the nation has to offer.

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EXECUTIVE COMPENSATION: HOW MUCH IS ENOUGH? AN IN DEPTH LOOK AT THE RISING COST OF EXECUTIVE COMPENSATION COMPARED TO THE PERFORMANCE OF THE FIRM

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the rising cost of executives in today's corporations. The principal findings show that the cost of an executive has risen and not always in accordance with the performance of the firm. This has been to numerous factors including varying the compensation packages and the tax benefits that corporations can obtain while granting the various forms of compensation. Furthermore, this paper investigates various companies and the manner in which the executives were paid in relation to their performance.

INTRODUCTION

In today's world of large businesses we have seen companies go out of business and hundreds of thousands of people lose their jobs. Investors have lost their life savings and retirement funds have been seriously hurt. With the spiraling down of retirement savings and stock prices, it appears the only people who haven't been affected have been the executives who run these businesses. We are now seeing executives making decisions that only help themselves and not the entire company, which is leading to a problem with shareholders buying into the huge compensation packages that are often awarded. Executives are under more pressure to deliver accurate and consistent numbers to the street, and, accordingly, being in the hot seat of corporate America is causing those executives to be rewarded in record amounts. This not only is a burden to corporations but might well drive incorrect and unethical behavior amongst executives whose pay is closely tied to the performance of the firm.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The general problem in this study is to determine whether the compensation of executives is in line with the overall performance of the firm. Specifically: to compare salaries amongst executives in large corporations; to review aspects of the firm's performance; and to discuss the cost of these high price executives and their burden on firms.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to compare firm's performance with the level of compensation that executives receive. The study will also show that executives have not been doing what is in the best interest of the companies they control. They are not being paid for the results of the company. Whether a company does well or not should make a difference in the compensation of the people who run the company. The findings in this study will show the impact and burden on both the executive and the firm to commit to the numbers.

Sources, Scope and Limitations

Only US companies will be considered in our analysis. The information discussed in this study was obtained from multiple sources and all of the sources are from either academic journals or trade related newspapers. All journal articles used have been peer reviewed and published. The study will show that executive salaries and firm performance are not parallel. The paper will show the types of arrangements that top executives have and when the companies do not perform up to expectations nothing was done and no changes were made. Judgment will not be passed or opinions given on what amount an executive should be paid or how to judge the performance of an executive.

REPORT PREVIEW

The paper is organized in the following manner. The first part will analyze executive compensation packages, including stock options and other bonus features. A portion of the first section will discuss the golden parachute clause and investigate any tax havens that exist for non-monetary compensation. The second part will then analyze company performance, other employee compensation and retirement plans. Finally, the two previous sections will be compared and a conclusion will be formed.

CEO COMPENSATION PACKAGES

Between 1990 and 2002 US CEO pay has risen 279%, far more than the 46% increase in worker pay, which was just 8 percent over inflation (Anderson, S., Cavanaugh, J., Hartman, C., Klinger, S., 2003, p1.). From 1980-1994 the average CEO salary and bonus went from $650,000 to $1,300,000 (Hall, B., Liebman, J., 1998, p.13). During the same time the mean values of stock option grants went from $155,000 to $1,200,000, a 682.5% increase (p.13). If the average worker had seen this same percentage increase the average salary would be $68,000 instead of the $26,267 it is today (Anderson, A., Cavanaugh, J., Hartman, C., Klinger, S., 2003, p.21). This has led many people and shareholders to question the structure and amount of money paid to executives. With the crash of Enron, Tyco, and WorldCom executive compensation packages are now under the microscope. Congress has enacted the Sarbanes-Oxley act which requires companies that are publicly traded to provide key information regarding the compensation that is given to their executives. This is being done in hopes to put an end to the exorbitant packages that CEO's are receiving while often draining the company of money. A survey of companies in the late 1990's showed that 90% of companies that responded had bonuses as a part of the compensation package (Beer, M., & Katz, N., 2000, p.8). The concern of some companies is that the bonuses, like the options, might drive bad behavior. The executives are concerned with increasing their bottom line in the near term rather than the long term increase in value. In the current economic times companies are often on the brink of meeting expenses, the high packages that are given to executives only put more pressure on the firms to perform. This can lead to behavior that might push executives to do extraordinary things to make the numbers that the shareholders are expecting to see.

Certain schools of thought blame the Federal Accounting Standards Board and the Securities and Exchange Commission for the out of control nature of executive compensation. When faced with the question on how to handle the accounting for stock options, the Accounting Principals Board issued a request for experts to write a paper on their opinion on how these items should be treated. The responses varied so much that the board issued the following opinion: Inasmuch as none of the experts can agree on a single figure that a company ought to charge to its earnings with respect to a stock option grant, therefore the charge to earnings will be *zero* (Crystal, G.S., 1991, p.22.) This had allowed corporations to grant excessive option awards without taking the charge to their earnings. Thus, the FASB and Congress can be blamed for the runaway effect of CEO pay and for helping the corporations avoid paying income taxes. The Securities and Exchange Commission requires that all cash and non-cash based compensation be disclosed. There have been loose interpretations of this rule and the methods used by corporations can make the CEO look as if they are not being over-compensated when in fact they are.

Recent legislation defining rules that accountants must abide by when they provide opinions on publicly traded companies has now been adopted. Under Section 402 of the Sarbanes-Oxley act, personal loans are now prohibited to top executives of public companies (McGowan, D., & Briensdale, T., 2003, p. 5). These loans became popular when companies wanted their top

employees to invest in stock in the company. The company would in effect "loan" money to executives who would buy stock which they felt would make the executives feel more compelled to deliver the results that were expected. Often there were provisions for debt forgiveness if certain performance goals were met and the company would cover any income tax burden that the executive's might face.

Stock Awards

There are several different kinds of stock awards that can be granted. First are "incentive based options" which have the following tax treatments: there is no liability except for Alternative Minimum Tax until the stock is sold and when stock is sold it is taxed as a capital gain; IRC § 162 does not apply in this case; the company does not get a deduction unless it is a disqualifying disposition; it is only available to employees, and the option price must be equal to the Fair Market Value at date of grant (Shinder, 2002, pp. 75-78).

The second type of stock award is "non-incentive based" and different rules apply to this type of award. This is treated under IRC § 83 and has the following guidelines: the primary difference is that companies are allowed a deduction against ordinary income at time of exercise; there is no AMT; the option price can be less than fair market value, and it can be granted to non-employees (pp. 80-85).

The third type of grant is a" restricted stock award" which usually takes form of a bonus with restrictions and has the following tax guidelines: there is a vesting schedule attached to each award that is given and is treated under IRC §83; ordinary income is not recognized unless a IRC §83(b) election is filed. If it is filed then the grantee records ordinary income for the amount of the stock at fair market value on date of grant. If the §83(b) election is not filed the income is not recognized until the restrictions lapse (pp.85-90).

The fourth type of stock are "employee stock purchase plans" (ESPP or ESOP) which abide by the following: these plans are treated under IRC § 423; all employees are eligible to participate; the price of the stock can be as low as 85% of the fair market value on the start of the grant period; and most often these plans are in six month terms but can go as long as 27 months with different stock purchase dates depending on when the employee enrolled in the plan (pp. 91-95).

Tax Treatments of Compensation

IRC §162 limits deductions on salary to $1 million per year. This rule applies to the CEO and the 4 other highest compensated employees and must be disclosed to the SEC. If a non-incentive stock plan is exercised it would apply towards the $1 million limit. Certain items are excluded from the limitation. These include fringe benefits, payments to qualified retirement plans, and qualified performance-based compensation. (Crystal, G.S., 1992, p.138)

The IRS also regulates what is termed "Golden Parachutes" in IRC §280G. Golden parachutes are the payment that is received when a company is sold or acquired by another company. In general, §280G provides that any payment in the nature of compensation made by any party to certain "disqualified individuals" that is contingent on a change in ownership or control constitutes a "parachute payment" (p. 99). If the payment exceeds three times the base salary the excess is subject to a 20% excise tax, where the base salary is determined by an average of the five previous tax years. To be considered a parachute payment the payment must be contingent upon a change in ownership. These provisions are important in today's times of merger and acquisitions. Executives can have large parachute clauses in their contract that would drive them to act on certain offers where they are subject to benefit monetarily.

Several bills were introduced into Congress which would tighten the ways in which executives were compensated and the tax treatment of certain "fringe benefits". One such example is H.R. 5095 which would place a 20% excise tax on certain stock transactions undertaken by executives. One other notable section of Sarbanes-Oxley is section 501 which repeals section 132 of the Revenue Act of 1978 (p7.). Section 132 defines rules regarding fringe benefit compensation. This section stated that certain items were excluded from the gross income including transportation benefits, working condition, and no additional cost services. The repealing of this section does not imply that the Treasury department can have full reign on deferred compensation but rather was intended for the IRS to issue additional guidelines. The bill also sets forth some guidelines for withholding on compensation in excess of $1 million.

There have also been regulations for tax shelters introduced for reporting via their tax returns. This new regulation would require not only corporations but also the executives to disclose on their tax return any compensation treated as tax shelter.

Another item that Congress changed was the treatment of split-dollar life insurance arrangements. Under these arrangements, the company pays the premium on the life insurance policy and in turn receives a portion of the payoff at time of death. The new regulations *Prop. Reg. Sec. 1.61.22* and *Prop. Reg. Sec. 1-7872-15* treats the parties in the transaction as either owners or non-owners depending on the wording in the agreement (p.8). These payments are treated like loans for the premiums. The Congress also added IRC §457 which indirectly addresses the granting of stock options to executives of non-profit companies. Essentially if an employee received stock options they would be considered taxable as deferred compensation. Currently under the Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB) companies can choose how they handle stock options that were granted to employees. They can either expense them using one of many different methods to compute value or they do not have to expense them however it must be disclosed in the notes of the financials the estimated cost of the options. Due to the various accounting crises that have come to light over the past two years the FASB is now considering a rule whereby all companies would have to expense the options that were granted.

Compensation Evaluation

Currently in major publicly traded companies executive compensation is set by a group of people who are outside directors named by the Board of Directors and are referred to as the compensation committee. Serving on a compensation committee is considered to be "the pits" by many outside directors (Crystal, p.1). These groups meet several times a year to review and update any changes to the compensation plans put into place. Often negotiations ensue between the executive and the committee where the executive is basically selling his services and the committee is the buyer. In this scenario the CEO is most likely the Chairman of the Board who hires the committee members he is negotiating with and often a conflict of interest can and does arise.

When the compensation committee meets they often consult with compensation consultant firms. These firms are hired by the company to analyze the current packages given to executives and offer opinions and comparisons to others in the industry. The problem that many have with the consultants is the owner-agency problem. Who are these consultants working for? They were hired by the corporation whose customers are the shareholders yet the report findings are given to the CEO. Therein lays a conflict of interest. In reality, if those recommendations did not cause the CEO to earn more money than he was earning before the consultant was hired, he was rapidly shown the door (p.13). Often the compensation committees do not suggest methods to the board they rely on the consulting firms to do the work for them. Once again, this can lead to higher packages for executives because these firms are hired by the CEO. The primary concern of the compensation committees and companies is whether or not the companies are attracting, motivating and rewarding the executives to promote the companies needs. The owner-agent problem is common when considering compensation packages due to the fact that you need to motivate the CEO of the firm to act in the best interests of the shareholders (Duru, A.I. & Iyengar, R.J., 1993, p. 108).

These consulting firms also perform surveys of many firms asking various questions about the types and amounts of compensation packages offered. This data is then compiled and used in the analysis of the executive's compensation. Often there is a pride in what companies pay their employees so if the results yield that the executive is underpaid compared to others in the industry the company will most often receive an increase in pay.

Executive compensation in the past was based on stock price however some companies determined that this didn't provide an accurate measure so other measures such as earnings per share were implemented. Even with this plan CEO stock ownership was ten times greater in the 1930's than in the 1980's (Crystal, G.S., 1992, p.138). Additionally, many believe that CEO pay packages should be comprised of company stock because of the motivational factor involved with stock price. As a result of all the emphasis on stock price, today 60% of CEO compensation and 30% of executives is in Stock Options (Elson, C., 2003, p. 5). The effect this has had is for CEO's to focus on the short-run instead of building a company that has long term value. Granting of options as compensation is not without drawbacks. Options were popular in packages until the compensation committees looked at these further. CEO's would be granted a certain number of shares and if the

stock price went up the CEO would make money but if the stock price went down often times they still made money. When this came to light the committees changed from granting options to granting restricted stock. This happens when the option price is so low that the grantee's can exercise the options even if the stock price doesn't go up.

According to a recent survey of executives many different variables effect the perceptions of compensation. First, the majority of respondents said that they do not consider the effect of day to day decisions on the price of the stock (Beer, M., & Katz, N., 2003, p. 8). The survey also reported that when a majority of their compensation is based on bonuses it has a negative impact on their decision making. Interestingly, the factor that was considered to be the most motivating was team work amongst employees of the company. Given this, it would seem that management would want to invest time and money into cultivating an environment where people feel a part of the team. By fostering this type of environment people would be naturally motivated to work for the better of the company because the personal and professional gain is theirs.

There as been much research into the study of CEO compensation. The pay scale has been compared to that of a tournament where first place is often much greater than the following places. On the surface this argument has merit because the package of the CEO is much larger than that of the other executives. Another theory is that the CEO's are paid like bureaucrats. This school of thought goes along with the theory that if a bureaucrat isn't doing the job the people won't elect him in again; in a corporation this would mean that if the CEO didn't turn in results that were expected than the pay would be reflective of that.

COMPANY AND MARKET PERFORMANCE

From the middle of May 1993 to July 1999 the Dow Jones Industrial Average grew from 3,500 to over 11,000 points which is a 315% increase in 6 years. In order for the Dow Jones Average to increase the stocks that make up the average must increase. Companies grew throughout the 1990's at an overwhelming pace, as did their stock prices. This created a "bubble" in the market that could not be maintained. (Baker, Dean. "The Costs of the Stock Market Bubble." CEPR (2000), [journal online]; accessed Nov. 2003; available from http:// www.cepr.net) The average Price to Earnings ratio (P/E) of the companies that make up the Dow Jones was 30:1 in 2000. The 50-year historical PE average of the Dow Jones is less than half that, 14.5:1. (Baker, Dean. "The Costs of the Stock Market Bubble." CEPR (2000), [journal online]; accessed Nov. 2003; available from http:// www.cepr.net)

Companies such as Tyco and Enron made huge jumps in stock price throughout the 1990's causing many people to become rich by purchasing their stock and riding the rising stock market. In 1985, Enron began its business as a company that shipped natural gas through pipelines. Its role changed rapidly over the next 16 years, making it one of the nation's most dominant energy traders. As the company grew in size, power, and prestige, Enron began engaging in ever more complicated contracts and undertakings. But alleged illegal, off-the-balance-sheet transactions and partnerships

were helping to conceal Enron's growing debt problem. By the time investors, employees, and the public learned of the company's crisis, the downward spiral was virtually unstoppable. Enron stock was trading in the mid-teens in 1993 and reached a high of just under $90 per share in late 2000. While the stock was falling and Enron was going out into bankruptcy the CEO was still receiving a salary of more than $10,000,000 per year with bonuses and "perks" that none of the employees had the ability to enjoy. The investors and employees were losing billions from the dropping stock price. Because of the structure of the 401K plans at Enron, employees were not permitted to move the matching company stock they received for a period of time. ("Accounting lessons" Writ. and prod. Hendrick Smith & Marc Shaffer. PBS, WGBH, Boston MA., 20 June 2002) When the public became aware of what was happening at Enron the stock started to drop and a percentage of the stock owned by the employees was unable to be liquidated. To date there have been more than a dozen ex-Enron Directors and managers indicted for their participation in what took place at Enron. Additionally, there are lawsuits against the law firm that worked with Enron and their former Auditor, Arthur Anderson, has gone out of business and is facing charges for the work with Enron

Tyco was founded in 1960 when Arthur J. Rosenburg, Ph.D., opened a research laboratory to do experimental work for the government. In 1986, Tyco returned its focus to sharply accelerating growth. During this period, it reorganized its subsidiaries into what became the basis for the current business segments: Electrical and Electronic Components, Healthcare and Specialty Products, Fire and Security Services, and Flow Control. The Company's name was changed from Tyco Laboratories, Inc. to Tyco International Ltd. in 1993, to reflect Tyco's global presence. Furthermore, it became and remains Tyco's policy to add high-quality, cost-competitive, lower-tech industrial/commercial products to its product lines whenever possible. Tyco was trading at just over $5 per share in 1993 and reached almost $60 per share before problems arose with the CEO and the stock started to fall reaching a low of $12 in early 2003. Like Enron the CEO was receiving ever increasing salaries through the run up and the eventual collapse of the stock price. Reports indicate the CEO Dennis Kozlowski was paid in excess of $10,000,000 per year as well as stock options and corporate perks. Mr. Kozlowski has been brought up on charges of stealing company money and illegally using company funds for personal gain. Allegedly Mr. Kozlowski had over $200,000 in home repairs done to his home with company funds. Another incident of this abuse was a $2,100,000 birthday party for his wife in Sardinia that was funded with company funds. Mr. Kozlowski was arrested last year for his actions and the trial started September 29, 2003 and is expected to continue for several months. (McCoy, Kevin. "Kozlowski's spending likely to be major focus" *USA TODAY*, 9 Sept. 2003)

Both Enron and Tyco showed enormous potential when these CEO's took over the helm. They both had fantastic earnings and were well respected by both industry peers as well as analysts, but in the lifetime of the business cycle they both had short-lived reigns. At the time Enron was the largest U.S. bankruptcy in our country's history. It changed the energy market for the entire world and put enormous pressure on the national economy. This has driven a change in government compliance laws as well as the legal and accounting industries put under pressure for their roles in

Enron. (Rarey, Jim "ENRONITIS – A COMMUNICABLE DISEASE." *WORLD NEWSTAND*. Feb. 2002 [magazine online]; accessed 7 Nov. 2003; available from http://worldnewsstand.net).

INDUSTRY AVERAGES

During the time period where stock prices increased and the eventual wrongdoings were starting, Enron and Tyco employee salaries increased by 47% and the CEO average salary increased 279%. Although there are big differences in the type of worked performed by the average employee compared to a CEO of a publicly traded company, 232% is a somewhat disparaging difference. (Anderson, S., Cavanaugh, J., Hartman, C., Klinger, S., 2003, p1.)

CEO salaries of $3,000,000 with bonuses totaling $10,000,000 are not uncommon and need to be compared to the average employee. The CEO hourly rate computes to over $5,700 per hour in compensation. This does not include corporate perks or other compensation that comes with being a CEO. In 2003 the average hourly wage of employees in the U.S. was $22.61 per hour which includes the cost of taxes paid by the employer as well as vacation time and health and welfare benefits afforded to the employee. (Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employer Costs for Employees Compensations Summary* 26 Aug. 2003)

EMPLOYEE RETIREMENT PLANS

Employee retirement plans have been a staple in American society for 100 years. However, with the collapse of many companies in America today, justifiably from the corruption of CEO's and those that sit on the board of directors, the retirement funds of a great number of employees have been severely impacted.

In 1974, congress passed the Employee Retirement Income Security Act (ERISA) which was made law after the employees of The Studebaker Corporation of South Bend Indiana lost their jobs as well as their pensions. Studebaker was one of the largest and longest running automobile manufacturers in the U.S. They had run into some hard times and needed to close their plant in South Bend, where some 5000 employees were laid off, 2000 had already retired and 1800 eventually lost their jobs. The retirement plan that was in place was severely under funded which created a liability when these people became eligible for benefits. When Studebaker opened the South Bend plant in 1952 past work credits were given to new employees which created an under funded liability in the plan. When benefit increases were given throughout the lifetime of the plant the liability grew until it couldn't match what would be owed. (Wooten James, "The Most Glorious story of Failure in the Business': The Studebaker-Packard Corporation and the origins of ERISA" Buffalo Law Review, Vol. 49, (2001) : 683)

The ERISA Act of 1974 was created to protect employees from what happened to the employees at Studebaker. Congress created funding requirements that must be maintained by companies using defined benefit plans. The Pension Benefit Guaranty Corporation (PBGC) was

created by ERISA. PBGC is an insurance policy that companies pay into to help protect their employees from bankrupt retirement plans (Wooten James, "The Most Glorious story of Failure in the Business': The Studebaker-Packard Corporation and the origins of ERISA" Buffalo Law Review, Vol. 49, (2001) : 683).

By 1990, 77 million workers participated in almost 900,000 private retirement plans with assets totaling $1.7 trillion (Young, Tracey. "Actuaries Urge Congress to Protect Defined Benefit Pension Plans." (2003) 1-3). This added with the public plans of Federal, state and local governments, pension assets total almost $3 trillion – it totals 25 percent of the combined value of the New York, American and NASDAQ stock exchanges (unk. "Private Trusteed Retirement Plan Assets – Second Quarter 2000." *EBRI Online,* (2000) [journal online]; accessed 7 Nov. 2003; available from http:// ebri.org.). Because of the decline in the stock market and the lagging U.S. job market, the pension requirements set forth in the ERISA legislation are becoming more difficult for companies to match. American companies are billions of dollars short in funding the retirement plans of their employees. In 2003 congress passed legislation, giving company's additional time to increase reserves in these plans so they become compliant with the ERISA (U.S. Congress. House of Rep. Committee on Education & the Workforce. Enhancing Retirement Security for Workers in Defined Benefit Plans. Washington D.C.: HEWC 2003). Without the legislation companies would be looking at fines and sanctions for not meeting the requirements set in ERISA. As discussed above many of the Enron employees lost all of their retirement savings they had in 401k plans due to the restrictions on moving money held in company stock. Many companies have stopped matching the employee 401(k) plans with company stock and are letting employees move their money around in the plans much more freely.

CONCLUSION

The problem the study was defining was to determine the reasonableness of an executive's compensation compared to the performance of the firm. The problem was discussed in the following manner: First, the salaries of executives were looked at. Secondly, the firm's performance was reviewed. Third, the cost of the executives and the burden to the firms. The purpose of the study was to compare the firm's performance with the pay of the CEO to analyze any correlation that might exist. US companies were analyzed in this report using only peer reviewed articles or trade related sources.

There is no doubt that most executives in large corporations dedicate a large portion of their time to the company and therefore should be compensated for this. The question that is at hand is what amount of compensation is considered adequate and reasonable. In the past 10 years what was once considered reasonable compensation is not adequate. It seems as if executives of the companies often let their own needs and the short term gain of the company dictate the basis for the decisions made. Too often the compensation of the executives is tied to short term goals rather than long term value building. One such measurement for long term success is customer satisfaction and

quality of products or services delivered. For incentive compensation to work, corporate boards must choose both the right measures and the right levels of performance. (Rapport, 1999, p. 92). Stock options do provide this measure because their worth is driven by the stock price.

The following measures could be implemented to stop the abuse of stock options issued as compensation: require options to be expensed by an appropriate FASB pronouncement (while reasonably allowing for the inevitable exceptions and unique problems of certain industries), and if the FASB fails to do so act, then demand Congress adopt appropriate laws to regulate these stock options accounting handling; change the accounting procedures that allow corporations to deduct the perks for executives; regulate the amount of Pension Funding that is required to protect employees; and require shareholders to more directly approve large pay packages or bonuses to the executives.

The question that must be answered is: "do these options measure the right level of performance?" Often shareholders want to reward executives for above average performance, however the compensation structure is not measured in that manner. For stock options to provide both the right measure and correct level of compensation, a comparison to the performance of the competitors would be needed. This would provide shareholders with a gauge of how the industry they are competing in is performing. However, with inconsistent accounting requirements, such a comparison may not be available.

The conclusion found after researching this topic is CEO's need to be paid in relationship to how their company is performing. A system needs to be in place that does not entice CEO's to make short term decisions to increase stock price or meet short term goals that helps them get bonuses; rather the system should reward for doing what is in the best interest of the employees and stockholders of the company in the long term. The CEO's main objective is to increase shareholder wealth and this should be a large factor in determining compensation for those who run publicly traded companies.

Congress has stepped in with new legislation such as Sarbanes Oxley and they are adding new regulations to ERISA in an effort to provide clear direction to these CEO's and their board of directors. Congress and its watchdogs need to maintain a sharp lookout against corporate corruption and give the SEC the tools and power to go after companies breaking the laws and after the people who willfully break the law. By setting a precedence of not tolerating the corruption that we have seen a strong message will be sent to those who are at the helm of large companies.

While CEO salaries have kept increasing almost exponentially, the employee's salary increases have not followed. The Board of Directors must maintain independence when determining the compensation of the executives. In the current structure there is a definite owner-agent concern that might drive undesirable behaviors. This shortcoming should be addressed and a solution implemented where both regular employees and executives are rewarded on the same metrics.

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ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND BEHAVIORAL ISSUES AFFECTING A BUSINESS COLLEGE IN A UNIVERSITY DURING AN ACCREDITATION PROCESS

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ABSTRACT

This paper analyzes the organizational structure and behavioral issues affecting a Business College in a university during an accreditation process in the areas of process impact, leadership challenges, and customer service. Looking at the organization, three main organizational behavior challenges face them. The challenges are threefold. First, organizational behavior issues caused by accreditation by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) influence the organization. Secondly, the dramatic change in the leadership structure to support this accreditation effort is trying to settle into their management style and deal with the effect internal politics from their every decision. Finally, the paper discusses customer service issues pertaining to the College's customers trying to remain competitive among the local colleges and universities and establishing relationships with its customers – the students. This paper will address these organizational structure and behavioral issues. The paper identifies and properly cites current research in support of possible interventions a College of Business should implement to remedy some of the shortcomings.

INTRODUCTION

Columbus State University is a public regional university in a southern state with an enrollment of 6250 students (ATCOB, 2003). The College of Business (COB) (The College) faces three main organizational behavior challenges. Upon entering the accreditation process, the COB faculty assessed many challenges and organizational projects that they must address in order to become accredited. This paper will address three of them. The first challenge is the organizational change caused by the accreditation process conducted by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). The second challenge is the dramatic change in the leadership structure necessary to support this accreditation effort. The third challenge is assessing customer service issues pertaining to The College's customers, (the students), more effectively in their academic pursuits.

A primary, most visible challenge affecting the COB is the COB's business school accreditation. The COB faculty and staff see business school accreditation as the license for long-term acceptance by the local business community to prove the College is making the efforts to improve quality and productivity. The accreditation process has lasted the last five years with the College, in a self-evaluation year (2003). Whereas the accreditation effort has been stressful, it has also been a unifying factor for much of the COB in terms of assessing goals. All faculty and staff have contributed to the process and results. This involvement has created a sense of ownership in the process. The accreditation effort helped bring about a new commerce and technology center with state of the art technology. Negative impact of the accreditation process influences many areas. Besides the challenges mentioned above, the accreditation process has strained the two additional areas, The College's budget and the outreach mission. Competition from local unaccredited alternative educational institutions places additional pressure on the COB. The College's stakeholders (business community and students) demand increasing levels of services. However, the accreditation guidelines limit the COB's ability to respond as quickly to market needs as the number of competing (unaccredited) institutions has been able to do.

The second challenge facing the COB is the success of the new leadership team, which has been in place for about eleven months. The new administrative team still is trying to settle into its management style and internal politics threaten every administrative and instructional decision. Luthans (1998) examined the types of managers who try to align themselves politically with their employees and become are good managers. The former COB dean attempted to do this, thus creating an ineffective type of management. Luthans explained in his article, "just because they are political/successful managers does not mean that they are effective managers" (Luthans, 1998). The COB has experienced and continues to experience a lot of this political posturing among the faculty and staff in the hopes a new leadership team does not take charge. Thus, the COB went through more than enough "successful" (Luthans, 1998) managers. The new leadership faces problems over the management of diversity. The faculty is diverse and includes Asian-American, African-American, Indian, and Caucasian members. As faculty and staff members' average ages drop, turnover is starting to increase partially due to frequent leadership changes and political liaisons. The COB is, by nature, a service-oriented organization. As a higher education institution, a great challenge remains in staying competitive among the local colleges and universities. Therefore, it is dependent upon the relationships the faculty and staff have with its customers – the students. The issue is more than a student seeking a degree. It is the quality of instruction, advising, mentorship and professional guidance the College has to exhibit and needs to demonstrate in order to keep student enrollment up and continuing to grow. If students are not satisfied, enrollment will decrease and reorganization will be possibly result. To satisfy these students' needs, The College must improve its quality of service and expand its service. This opportunity might affect the balance of traditional students versus non-traditional students' needs.

ACCREDITATION IMPACT ON THE COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

The first challenge the faculty determined that affects either COB is the accreditation effort (ATCOB, 2003). "Accreditation is a process of voluntary, non-governmental review of educational institutions and programs" (AACSB Web Site, 2003). Institutional accreditation reviews entire colleges and universities. Specialized agencies award accreditation for professional programs and academic units in particular fields of study. As a specialized agency, AACSB International grants accreditation for undergraduate and graduate business administration and accounting programs. Recognition by AACSB International requires "an institutional commitment to fulfill its mission, and continues to sustain and improve educational quality of its undergraduate, master's, and doctoral degree programs according to the standards of AACSB International as interpreted by its Peer Review Team(s), accreditation committees, and Board of Directors" (AACSB Web Site, 2003).

The D. Abbott Turner College of Business of Columbus State University delivers high quality business programs. The College offers the Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA) and the Master of Business Administration (MBA) degrees. The Dean of the College of Business perform administration over the faculty, supervises the faculty and staff, and influences curriculum of these degree programs. Students pursuing the BBA may major in accounting, computer information systems, finance, general business, management, or marketing. The MBA is a general business degree.

As demonstrated in the COB's mission statement (Loughman and Hadley, 2003), The College achieves program quality by effectively using available resources to accomplish its mission to provide management education to the region. Mindful of its mission, The College follows accepted practices for institutions that provide management education and uses assessment information to develop its faculty, improve its curriculum, and enhance its teaching. As part of its initial accreditation candidacy for AACSB International—the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business—the D. Abbott Turner College of Business has undertaken a thorough review of its resources, programs, processes, and achievements. The self-evaluation report represents The College's best efforts to portray the results of that review. The Self-Study report provides the data and annotated processes necessary to seek an accreditation visit (Loughman and Hadley, 2003)

Exhibit 1 is a list of College of Business goals (Loughman and Hadley, 2003) which the accreditation self-evaluation report identified for college accreditation. The COB faculty, while compiling and working on the accreditation processes identified by the AACSB accrediting body, developed these goals. They address short term and long-term strategic goals for The College and its stakeholders.

Faculty animosity lies deep in the faculty's experiences and embarrassments in not having achieved accreditation prior to this effort. These experiences contributed greatly to their cognitive dissonance, which has been detrimental to the leadership's ability to get the accreditation self-study year to begin.

Exhibit 1

1. *Goal #1: Offer business programs that are recognized throughout our region for their quality and preparation of students for career success.*
    a. Obtain accreditation by AACSB International
    b. Continue the process of curriculum assessment and act on results.
    c. Continue annual review of curriculum for relevance and effectiveness.
    d. Adapt curriculum to better prepare students for local employment opportunities.
    e. Provide facilities and technology consistent with our mission.
    f. Provide training to all faculty on the use of the new technology in the classrooms and lecture halls of the Center for Commerce and Technology.
    g. Explore development of joint Bachelor of Science in Information Technology program with College of Science.
2. *Goal #2: Obtain Long-Term Funding to keep information technology and instructional resources current and appropriate to our mission.*
3. *Goal #3: Recruit, retain and develop a faculty committed to the pursuit of excellence in teaching.*
    a. Recruit faculty who support the mission of the College of Business.
    b. Perform annual review of faculty performance, qualifications and workloads.
    c. Maintain "teaching" as the highest priority component in the faculty annual review process.
    d. Provide support for faculty development in instruction.
    e. Regularly assess learning outcomes to identify areas requiring improvement.
4. *Goal #4: Encourage and support applied research and instructional development.*
    a. Maintain "scholarly activity" as an important component in the faculty annual review process.
    b. Continue support of faculty scheduling and assignments to allow blocks of time for research.
    c. Provide funding for direct journal submission fees.
    d. Provide funding for conference participation and professional association fees.
    e. In the long-term:
        1. Obtain funding to create Endowed Chairs in Banking and Finance, CISM and Insurance.
        2. Obtain funding to create rotating professorships to reward intellectual contributions.
        3. Initiate a working paper series.
        4. Launch a peer-reviewed, semi-annual publication.
5. *Goal #5: Increase interaction with students and alumni and expand student activities and organizations to enhance our students' learning environment.*
    a. Formalize organization of a Student Advisory Committee.
    b. Establish an honor society for business students.
    c. Expand ATCOB student internship program by recruiting participating partners.
    d. Increase efforts in career placement.
    e. Increase and improve communication with alumni (*The Exchange*).
6. *Goal #6: Increase service to ATCOB alumni and other stakeholders.*
    a. Maintain "service" as a component in the faculty review process.
    b.   Support student organizations that provide service to the university and the community.
    c. Provide business courses to non-business majors.
    d. Offer Area B seminars in business.
    e. Improve the alumni database.
    f. Increase and improve communication with alumni.

<table>
<tr><td>7.</td><td colspan="2">*Goal #7: Engage in collaborative efforts aimed at increased economic development and enhancement of the quality of life in the region.*</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>a.</td><td>Revitalize the college's Center for Regional Economic Development and Information Technology (CREDIT).</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>b.</td><td>Hire economic development professional.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>c.</td><td>Apply the intellectual capital of the college to community issues.</td></tr>
<tr><td>8.</td><td colspan="2">*Goal #8: Foster a collegial and supportive culture among faculty and staff.*</td></tr>
</table>

Source: (SER, Loughman & Hadley, 2003)

Robbins (2003) suggested that rewards influence the degree to which individuals are motivated to reduce dissonance. Therefore, the COB faculty must get past these experiences in order to receive the high rewards and recognition of accreditation and will thus reduce the tension felt in the dissonance (Robbins, 2003, p. 74). These implications could mean the difference between being accredited and not if not corrected.

These detractors have not benefited the College of Business in its efforts. In fact, the COB has experienced the removal of one dean, an extended visitation by the AACSB accreditation visiting team, and a fifty percent turnover rate within the College of Business (Loughman & Hadley, 2003). Robbins (2003) states using employee involvement programs, such as participative management for employee involvement, can encourage an employee's commitment to an organization's success. Nevertheless, poor leadership and that leadership's failure to motivate the faculty into a concerted effort has resulted in poor faculty motivation in relation to the accreditation goal, a decrease in the business graduate enrollment due to poor customer service, and a reduction in outside community service by College of Business faculty.

Professionals are often harder to motivate. Robbins (2003) discusses how salary fails to motivate professionals such as faculty. They are motivated by "job challenge" (Robbins, 2003, p. 206) and want others to value their work. Not initially challenged by the first accreditation attempt, the leadership team has challenged the COB faculty to meet that challenge.

The remedy for this poor academic environment and accreditation effort, imposed by the university's central administration, was a leadership change in the college administrative team. The leadership change had to reflect a true assessment of the COB's limitations. The university leadership had to find a team that would turn the accreditation effort around.

LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES IN THE COLLEGE AND THEIR IMPACT

The College faces a second challenge of the acceptance and performance of the new leadership team. As stated by Robbins (2003), trust, or a lack thereof, is an important leadership issue. The new leadership team must build up its trust to become effective. Of the five dimensions of trust Robbins (2003) discussed, "integrity, competence, consistency, loyalty, and openness" (Robbins, 2003, p.336), integrity is the most important in building the bonds of trust. It is in this

area that the new leadership team must correct the actions of the past dean. However, leadership style is also very important in creating a successful organizational environment. Eagly (Eagly, 1997) demonstrates in his article that women tend to be more participative and democratic in their leadership style than the "autocratic or direct style" (Eagly, 1997, p. 247) than men tend to adopt.

This research explains how the different leadership styles utilize the gender differences best. It posits that women tend to be more collaborative and participative. The former dean did not solicit enough input on goals and decisions. His style eroded the trust the faculty had in him. The leadership continues to face problems over the management of diversity. The faculty is diverse and includes Asian-American, African-American, Indian, and Caucasian members. As the faculty and staff members' average age drops, turnover is starting to increase partially due to frequent leadership changes and political liaisons. Table 1 (Loughman & Hadley) below shows that during the Fall 2002 semester, seven of the 27 faculty (26%), including the dean, were females and five of the faculty (19%) were foreign-born. Faculty holds degrees from 43 colleges and universities.

The demographic profile of the College of Business has changed over the last few years. The College has been able to enhance the diversity of the faculty through retirements and turnover. This increase in diversity is a factor in the animosity of some of the older faculty. The new leadership is attempting to address these issues.

The new leadership team at the College of Business became effective in August 2002. The university conducted a dean's search from 2001-2003 but could not find a suitable candidate. The university leadership appointed the Associate Dean to the position of Interim Dean. The university administration replaced the entire COB administrative team in 2001 with the Assistant Dean being appointed Associate Dean, a new Financial and Information Systems Department Head and a new Business Administration Department Head. Since the College was currently undergoing an accreditation effort, the university administration named the Interim Dean permanent Dean in August 2003 because she had been such a unifying factor in holding the College of Business together during the last two years.

Research on organizational behavior such as the Ohio State Studies examined two dimensions of leadership (Robbins, 2003, p.316). The studies explain how 'initiating structure" (Robbins, 2003, p. 316) leadership behaviors try to have the leader organize work; those work relationships, and work goals. The studies also explain how a leader shows extensive "consideration for the employee's ideas, regard for their feelings and job satisfaction" (Robbins, 2003, p. 316). The Dean's leadership style demonstrates the dimension of initiating structure due to her daily reinforcement of "defining structure for her role and the faculty's role in search of goal attainment" (Robbins, 2003, p. 316) for College of Business goals. The COB leadership team currently has a mix of leadership styles that appear to be working better together since the leadership changes made by the university administration.

Table 1: Gender, Ethnic, and Educational Diversity of Full-Time Faculty in the College of Business, Fall Semester 2002			
Gender	**Country of Birth/ Ethnic Group**	**University**	**Degree/ Teaching Field**
Female	U.S./Caucasian	Louisiana Tech University	ABD/FINC
Female	U.S./Caucasian	Mississippi State University	DBA/ ACCT
Male	U.S./Caucasian	Georgia State University	PhD/ECON
Male	India/Indian	University of Tennessee	PhD/FINC
Male	U.S./Caucasian	Georgia State University	PhD/MGMT
Male	U.S./Caucasian	University of Illinois	PhD/CISM
Male	India/Indian	Louisiana Tech University	DBA/MGMT
Female	U.S./African-American	Auburn University	PhD/FINC
Male	U.S./Caucasian	Louisiana Tech University	DBA/MGMT
Male	Hong Kong/Chinese	Georgia Tech University	PhD/MGMT
Male	U.S./Caucasian	South Texas College of Law	JD/BUSADMIN
Male	U.S./Caucasian	University of Texas at Arlington	DBA/CISM/ACCT
Male	U.S./Caucasian	Ohio State University	PhD/ACCT
Male	U.S./Caucasian	Ohio University	MBA/ACCT
Female	U.S./Caucasian	University of Kentucky	PhD/MKTG
Female	China/Chinese	Southern Illinois University	PhD/MKTG
Male	U.S./Caucasian	University of Virginia	PhD/ECON
Male	U.S./Caucasian	Louisiana Tech University	DBA/ACCT/FINC
Male	U.S./Caucasian	Columbus State University	MBA/CISM
Male	U.S./Caucasian	Auburn University	PhD/BUSADMIN
Male	U.S./Caucasian	University of Tennessee	PhD/CISM
Male	DR Congo/African	Auburn University	PhD/ECON
Female	U.S./Caucasian	Auburn University	PhD/MKTG
Female	U.S./Caucasian	Auburn University	PhD/CISM
Male	U.S./Caucasian	Florida State University	PhD/MGMT
Male	U.S./Caucasian	Auburn University	PhD/ECON
Male	U.S./Caucasian	University of Arkansas	PhD/ACCT
Source: (Loughman & Hadley, 2003)			

Whereas the main COB goal currently is the accreditation effort, the Dean's leadership style will need to reinforce goals number three and four (Loughman and Hadley, 2003) from the self-evaluation report. Goal number three of "recruiting, retaining, and developing faculty" (Loughman and Hadley, 2003) and goal number four of "encouraging and supporting applied research and instructional development" (Loughman and Hadley, 2003) are goals the leadership must support that will directly affect the trust this new leadership team seeks to build.

The remaining administrative team members, the two department heads, exhibit leadership behavior more closely to the University of Michigan studies (Robbins, 2003, p.317). They are more "employee-oriented" (Robbins, 2003, p. 317) in their daily administration of duties. This behavior is more evident due to their having to interact daily with their departments more on and individual level ensuring that the COB administrative team meet the individual faculty member's needs. The Dean is more expressive of her decisions and it is forthright and bold in her explanations.

As demonstrated with the Kring study, women tend to exhibit positive expressions in response to happier stimuli and exhibit amore negative response to sadder and negative stimuli (Kring, 1998, p. 691). The study explained that while women were more expressive than those men tested, the women did not experience more emotion than men did. The study demonstrated the normal characteristics of femininity is called "expressiveness" (Kring, 1998, p. 692) are closely related to nurturance and warmth but the Dean's leadership style tends to actually be more to what Kring described toward masculine traits – independence and dominance. This would label her as "androgynous (or non-sex-typed)" (Kring, 1998, p. 692). A leader classified as this does not adhere to the rules associated with one's gender. According to Kring, an individual is less likely to modify his/her behavior to fit the male-female molds (Kring, 1998, p. 692). She explains that the individuals are "less neurotic" (Kring, 1998, p. 692) and the Dean's self-assured leadership style is representative of this study. The Dean's self-assurance and inability to fit into the typical male-female role explains her success as Dean up to this point.

The College of Business' administration works well together due to the strong leadership instilled by the new Dean. The team has worked hard to overcome motivational and behavior problems caused over the past few years. During the course of the past three years, there has been a strong rift in the faculty because of weak leadership. Faculty factions sought to undermine committee assignments, delayed timely submission of committee work, and worked hard to find fault with every College of Business strategic goal. Cognitive dissonance was present until this leadership change happened.

Some remaining faculty and staff from previous accreditation efforts were instrumental in causing this dissonance. They instilled a lack of motivation in any new faculty on this third accreditation effort. Their motivational problems spread into the leadership's ability to organize committee efforts toward a sequential goal thus causing a feeling of cognitive dissonance among some of the individual faculty members. Festinger defined cognitive dissonance as "any incompatibility between two or more attitudes or between behavior and attitudes" (Festinger, 1957). These tenured faculty members created and reinforced the attitude of "we can't get accredited so lets

not work so hard on it" and only went through the motions of helping get the effort moving forward. They knew that achieving accreditation was in the best interests of the college not only for them but also for the students, university, and the community.

As Robbins stated, if the employees feel that they have no control over "the elements that cause the dissonance" (Robbins, 2003, p. 74), they will be less likely to try to change their behavior and will try to rationalize it (Robbins, 2003, p. 74). The identified COB faculty tried to justify their actions and behaviors instead of correcting the behaviors. The tenured faculty has been successful in the past by cultivating some negative detractors. The main negative detractor has been the conformity by new faculty wanting acceptance by the older tenured faculty. Robbins explains "conformity as the adjusting of one's behavior to align with the norms of the group" (Robbins, 2003, p. 230) and is the result of peer pressure within the organization. The older, tenured faculty sought to take advantage of using conformity to their benefit by the use of this pressure.

In the Wageman article, the Xerox study showed that with self-managing teams, the group norms that reinforced strategic thinking among employees were more effective employees and more productive in their jobs (Wageman, 1997, p. 57). The College of Business has been lax in this department. The Xerox study showed how it takes a leader to further the efforts of a group norm along in order to make the team successful. Wageman (1999) stated, "norms that are left alone do not emerge as strategic thinkers" (Wageman, 1997, p. 58). Most successful organizations rely on leaders who take charge, foster the group norm development, and seek to reinforce creative and audacious thinking. Wageman discussed seven critical success factors with the seventh factor relating to the management of group norms (Wageman, 1997, p. 89). These success factors are "clear direction, designating a real team task, team reward, providing basic material resources, authority to manage the work, team goals, and strategy norms" (Wageman, 1997, p. 59). Wageman explains further that the leader will not use all of these factors at the same time. This proactive approach to a naturally occurring organizational behavior is a smart way to manage employees and get better productivity out of them. The COB did not use these factors in the past. Wageman (1997) goes further by stating that a successful leader will use these factors in stages. Wageman breaks them down into three roles. Those roles are "designer (when the leadership team is first launched), midwife (after startup and during the determining of team goals), and as a coach (assuming more of a mentorship role in leading)" (Wageman, 1997, p. 60). The COB's new leadership team must establish these three roles to become successful. The COB is currently in the "designer" (Wageman, 1997) role category at this time.

The root of the dissonance in the College of Business unfortunately has been one of personal conflict. Among the academic community, personalities have collided and conflicts over items such as teaching loads, outreach efforts, outside consulting, and committee assignments used to be the norm. The former dean was not a solid leader who could deal with multiple academic personalities. He wanted to please everyone. Unfortunately, his desires to achieve this lead to enormous conflict among the faculty. Conflict as defined by Wall and Robbins, is "a process in which one party perceives that its interests are being opposed or negatively affected by another party" (Wall, 1997,

p. 517), (Robbins, 2003, p.396). The question for the college of business became whether the conflict was either functional or dysfunctional. It was highly dysfunctional. Could functional conflict better manage the College of Business' behavior? The answer is yes. One intervention to solve this is the use of participative management. Robbins discusses in his text, "Conflict is constructive when it improves the quality of decisions, stimulates creativity and innovation, and provides the medium through which problems can be aired and tensions released" (Robbins, 2003, p. 405). Since conflict can be "functional as well as dysfunctional for the individual and the organization" (Pondy, 1967, p. 298), conflict can originate with either the individual or the organization and needs to be addressed in order to assess productivity. Functional conflict allows for increased productivity and improved relations among employees, labor and management, and business parties. Wall alluded in his article that in extreme instances, "conflict can resolve issues that if left alone could have dire long-term effects" (Wall, 1995, p. 526). When conflict is personalized, it can be felt and a dysfunctional scenario can set in (Pondy, 1967, p. 302). The College of Business' conflict was highly dysfunctional and resulted in the accreditation effort being postponed for two years. The first answer was to replace the Dean and the appointment of the new Dean has achieved that. She is an interactionist in her dealings with conflict. The interactionist view believes that "conflict is not only a positive force but absolutely necessary for a group to perform effectively" (Robbins, 2003, p. 396). The conflict present depends on whether it is functional or dysfunctional. Functional conflict can be a positive reinforcing form of conflict whereas dysfunctional conflict can tear apart an organization's effectiveness (Robbins, 2003, p. 397). She has demonstrated that by supporting the questioning of methods but proposing viable alternatives to them, she is willing to reduce the conflict among the faculty.

The Dean organizes her leadership style to facilitate her work, superior-subordinate relationships, and all goals for the college. She retains the authority and usually decides to name all work relationships, committees, and job responsibilities. As authoritative as she is, she displays the second dimension of the Ohio State leadership study of consideration more often. Robbins defines consideration as "the extent to which a person is likely to have job relationships that are characterized by mutual trust, respect for employees' ideas, and regard for their feelings" (Robbins, 2003, p.316). The Dean is definitely approachable, friendly, and seeks to treat all subordinates and her academic peers the same. Employees in the College of Business feel at ease in her presence because they understand she will be fair and compassionate.

Further comparison of her leadership behavior correlates to what the Ohio State studies show as having a "higher rate of grievances and turnover" (Robbins, 2003, p. 317). Her high standards and enforcement of those standards has frustrated some faculty to where the college has experienced a turnover rate of 50% in the last year. This increase in the turnover rate was the result of tenured and newer faculty experiencing low job satisfaction. In this instance, it affected employee productivity, absenteeism, and turnover in a circular fashion. One is a trait and the other is a behavior. Each one affects the others to the point where one cannot happen without the other. Since

job satisfaction is the individual's general attitude toward his or her job (Robbins, 2003) these individual employee traits negatively affected the faculty's job satisfaction.

Since research has shown that satisfaction is negatively related to absenteeism and turnover (Robbins, 2003), the faculty that was satisfied with his/her job had low or nonexistent absenteeism, and a low desire to leave the College of Business. On an individual level, research has shown that satisfied employees are more productive and thus contribute to a more productive organization (Robbins, 2003, P80). Whereas her leadership style contributed to an upward spike in turnover rate, the long-term goals of accreditation and faculty support of those goals benefited from her style. She has mandated certain decisions to take place based on her leadership style and her authority. However, a small change in that leadership style – a participative one will determine the long-term success for the Dean and the College of Business. This participative leadership style will enable the college to address a few of their customer service challenges with their main customers – the students, the university, and the community.

CHALLENGES TO THE COLLEGE OF BUSINESS' COMMITMENT TO CUSTOMER SERVICE

A college/university is by nature a service-oriented organization. As a higher education institution, the last challenge identified by the faculty during the accreditation process is to remain competitive among the local colleges and universities.

As Loughman describes (Loughman & Hadley, 2003) undergraduate and graduate business students come primarily from the university's service region that includes approximately nine counties in the west south-central portion of Georgia. The typical Columbus State University student is from West Georgia (66% from the nine-county service region and an additional 20% from other counties within the state). The average student enters the university with an SAT score of 973, and a high school GPA of 2.97. The average age of a CSU freshman is 20.2, while the average age of all other students is 27.3. Taken together, the average CSU student is 25 years of age. Females comprise approximately 58.8% of the student population, and minorities account for approximately 31.5% (Loughman & Hadley, 2003).

Since Columbus State University has many non-traditional students, a need identified those in the work force who want to either further their professional education or prepare for a second career. The College of Business has so far been able to offer enough evening classes to ensure a student can get a degree from attending at night, but there is a growing demand for weekend classes.

The table on the following page shows the breakdown of graduate and undergraduate student population of Columbus State University.

A few of the College of Business' customers are the other colleges and staff at the university. Since moving into a new Commerce and Technology Building for classroom use, the college must serve the university's needs for state of the art technological equipment. This has caused conflicts

throughout the university. This large conflict resolves issues among colleges, staff, and university leadership to better service the internal university customers.

Table 2: CSU Enrollment by Students' Place of Residence											
	2002						2001				
Place of Residence	Undergrad		Grad		Total		Undergrad		Grad		Total	
	CSU	ATCOB	CSU	ATCOB	CSU	ATCOB	CSU	ATCOB	CSU	ATCOB	CSU	ATCOB
Muscogee	2761	657	348	30	3109	688	2495	624	393	18	2888	642
Harris	299	83	31	2	330	85	244	71	33	2	277	35
Troup	231	45	23	0	254	45	205	38	28	1	233	39
Meriwether	91	22	12	1	103	23	79	18	14	2	93	20
Marion	47	13	10	1	57	14	45	12	5	1	50	13
Chattahoochee	41	11	1	0	42	11	28	8	2	0	30	8
Talbot	37	8	9	0	46	8	43	9	6	0	49	9
Stewart	26	4	6	1	32	5	27	3	6	0	33	3
Webster	4	0	0	0	4	0	2	0	0	0	2	0
Other Ga Counties	1005	125	381	58	1386	183	734	115	307	40	1041	155
Alabama	375	79	50	1	425	80	312	73	56	6	368	79
Other States	326	39	44	1	370	40	344	49	36	1	380	50
Foreign Countries	76	27	16	8	92	35	66	25	12	3	78	28
Total	**5319**	**1113**	**931**	**103**	**6250**	**1217**	**4624**	**1045**	**898**	**74**	**5522**	**1081**

Source: (Loughman & Hadley, 2003)

The main customer for the college is of course the student. The biggest advantage of trying to achieve accreditation has not been the accreditation itself. The process has identified and shown the benefits resulting from the identification of those internal processes helping the students achieve their academic goals. The COB did not track and advise students well in the College of Business. Accreditation has forced the college to set up a Student Services Center dedicated to serving the students' needs at the college level. The university has departments dedicated to this effort. However, often a student was finding out that they were lacking a class or two the semester they were graduating. Faculty was not as knowledgeable about advising the individual students or in advising larger groups of business students. During orientation days, assigned faculty is not as knowledgeable as they need to be. Students have been assigned advisors by the Student Services

Center only to find out that the faculty member cannot meet with them at scheduled times. The Cob must address this problem. Students are disillusioned and disappointed in the faculty's support as an advisor.

The main educational competitor is a local regional university from Alabama. It has an increased enrollment in its masters program due to the convenience of its weekend classes program. It also has started an online masters program whereas the College of Business has not. Since Columbus State University is a regional university, it must remain competitive within this market. It currently allows the residents of that state to enroll here at in-state tuition rates. It is not a cost problem. It is a convenience problem. Columbus State does not have a weekend program yet the residents of the area want that convenience.

Appropriate research and analysis of data

This organizational behavior research on the COB consists of seven main areas. These areas are 1) sex differences in emotion and leadership, 2) conflict management and some resolutions of that conflict, 3) perception problems in the workplace, motivation definitions, and some ethical issues involved, 4) AACSB accreditation standards and the processes involved, 5) leadership problems of successful versus real managers, 6) the College of Business' preparation and processes involved in the accreditation process, and 7) how participative management can possibly resolve some of the organizational leadership problems in the College of Business. This project's purpose was to analyze the organizational structure and behavioral issues affecting a Business College in a university during an accreditation process in the areas of process impact, leadership challenges, and customer service. Each organizational behavior problem identified has solutions and the possible interventions identified can assist in the successful awarding of accreditation to the College of Business.

The following is a discussion of the research utilized in this paper. The Kring article (Kring, 1998) discusses methods in assessing some diversity issue problems present in the College of Business. The article is an analysis of two studies concerning emotional responding and the differences between men and women. This paper provided comparisons between identified College of Business problems and the examples in the article. The Wall article (Wall, 1995) examines some causes of conflict, its core process, and its effects. Conflict escalation and de-escalation, contexts, and conflict management are discussed. It also gives some suggested recommendations for practicing managers. The article was instrumental in assisting in the determination of resolutions for the College of Business organizational problems. The Robbins textbook (Robbins, 2003) was utilized as the primary secondary research source due to its definitive explanations and comparisons of the problems written about. Dr. Robbins explains perception problems in the workplace, motivation and definitions. The AACSB Web Site (The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business www.aacsb.edu/accreditation/glossary.asp) gave information on the AACSB accreditation process. Accreditation is a process of voluntary, non-governmental review of

educational institutions and programs. Institutional accreditation reviews entire colleges and universities. Specialized agencies award accreditation for professional programs and academic units in particular fields of study. As a specialized agency, AACSB International grants accreditation for undergraduate and graduate business administration and accounting programs.

The Luthans article, (Luthans, 1998) explores the equivalence of "successful managers" and "effective managers" and how they perform in their jobs. It narrows 12 descriptive behavioral categories into four managerial activities of real managers. The article analyzes the difference between successful and effective real managers. It compares the two and proposes some implications of successful versus real managers and their effectiveness in the workplace. It helped to identify management problem areas in the College of Business leadership. Also utilized was the AACSB Self-Evaluation Report (Loughman and Hadley, 2003) to discuss motives behind the college's accreditation effort. Dr. Marshall Sashkin's article (Sashkin, 1986) was utilized to discuss participative management, its effects in improving performance, productivity, and job satisfaction. It discussed managerial ethics and the supposition that participative management is not only effective, but also imperative. This paper demonstrated how the current leadership relationship in the College of Business could utilize participative management.

RECOMMENDED INTERVENTIONS TO IMPROVE THE COLLEGE OF BUSINESS' ISSUES.

By implementing the following interventions, the College of Business can possibly overcome some of the organizational behavior issues. The first intervention would enable them to overcome cognitive dissonance. The leadership team must remain vigilant in its leadership styles. To make accreditation successful, a great deal of effort must be given by each faculty member and staff member. The leadership team should continue to minimize the dissonance by meeting with the faculty often to remind the faculty that everyone's help is needed. The administrative team should communicate, explicitly, that accreditation is in everyone's best interest and that everyone has a personal responsibility to make sure it succeeds. The administrative team must work to ensure the faculty increases their job satisfaction.

The COB's self-evaluation report (Loughman and Hadley, 2003) identified strategic goal number three (Goal #3) which is to "recruit, retain, and develop a faculty committed to the pursuit of excellence in teaching" (Loughman and Hadley, 2003). The College must continue to support this goal through quality faculty recruitment and retention. Robbins (2003) stated that rewards can influence individuals to reduce dissonance and by supporting their own strategic goal number four (Goal #4) (Loughman and Hadley, 2003) the COB faculty will reduce feelings of dissonance. Goal #4 dedicates itself to supporting and motivating the faculty's professional needs. Since faculty as professionals are "not motivated by salary" (Robbins, 2003, p.206), the COB must ensure that professional opportunities continue to be made available to the faculty to help motivate them. If the

administrative team fails to minimize the dissonance, the impact will begin to eat away at their leadership efforts.

The Dean must remain steadfast in removing the underperforming and non-contributing faculty. The faculty must stop being negative about accreditation and stop trying to derail the accreditation effort. They must stop the negative attitudes and help to improve their job satisfaction in their contributed efforts. Robbins (2003) discusses how "satisfied employees increase customer satisfaction and loyalty" (Robbins, 2003, p. 83) and since the COB is a service organization, the satisfied faculty members will continue to be a strength to the COB because they should continue to boost student enrollment.

The second recommended intervention is for the administrative team to appoint rather that elect committee leadership. Election of committee leadership negatively reinforces group association. Robbins (2003) explains how group pressure can allow new members of an organization to bend to the will of the established group (Robbins, 2003, p. 230). The COB's new faculty should be guided and advised not to fall prey to this. The faculty is a formal group that, as Robbins (2003) defines, is a "group of individuals who come together to achieve a particular objective or objectives" (Robbins, 2003, p. 219). The administrative team must support Goals # 3 and 4 of their strategic objectives to get the informal faculty groups to support COB goals. This will help to reduce or even eliminate group norms and the influence non-accreditation supporting tenured faculty has on the new faculty. These appointments should last at least through the accreditation effort to ensure a unified effort. Once accreditation is granted, the administrative team can return to elected committee leadership.

The third intervention encompasses a participative management style as discussed by Marshall Sashkin (1986). Using this management style can facilitate the achievement of long-term strategic goals of accreditation and service to the community. Dr. Sashkin (1986) argues that participative management can improve performance, productivity, and job satisfaction. The College of Business currently is surviving on the Dean's leadership style alone along with a few select faculty members that truly want to see the College achieve its accredited status.

Nevertheless, while this leadership style will work in the short term by addressing accreditation shortfalls and issues, participative management will need to be implemented and supported to meet the long-term goals. Dr. Sashkin (1986) explained in his article that "participative management has positive effects on performance, productivity, and employee satisfaction" (Sashkin, 1986, p.11) because it "fulfills basic needs, autonomy, and meaningfulness" (Sashkin, 1986, p.11). If the College of Business addresses these issues, the faculty would feel more ownership in the everyday operation of the College. Dr. Sashkin (1996) explains, "setting goals improves performance" (Sashkin, 1986, p.11). The faculty has not really bought in to the goals of achieving accreditation. A select few have but not the majority. A total effort is needed to succeed. He also explains that participative management increases feeling of ownership or influence and "employee autonomy" (Sashkin, 1986, p.11).

In the past, the same faculty that contributed to dissonance expressed their regrets over being left out of the decision making process. This absence of ownership and autonomy is the root of the lack of supportive efforts made by the faculty. The administrative team must be more participative in its management style. However, based on experiences, they need to phase it in gradually over a period of time – perhaps a year to eighteen months. This would allow committees to plan long term and allow the committees to track progress. Since faculty are evaluated on their committee involvement, this intervention could allow the administrative team to push some of the faculty into these committee leadership positions.

The fourth intervention proposed is that the College of Business begins a weekend masters program to serve the professionals in the west Georgia and east Alabama area. The COB's own self-evaluation report (Loughman and Hadley, 2003) states that competition from accredited and non-accredited management programs are one of their identified threats (Loughman and Hadley, 2003, p. 23). By taking full advantage of new technology and the new Commerce and Technology Center (Loughman and Hadley, 2003, p. 23), the COB can posture its curriculum to expand into asynchronous and weekend course development. This would enable them to be competitive with the other local regional universities by providing an alternative course structure for our students who are looking for alternatives to the traditional class structure. Augmentation of online classes to support this weekend class schedule would further expand the college's service to their students.

The last intervention this paper proposes would be to give the Student Services Center located in the College of Business more authority in advising and changing students schedules. The COB self-evaluation report (Loughman and Hadley, 2003) states "goal number six (Goal # 6), increasing service to ATCOB alumni and stakeholders, and goal number eight (Goal # 8), fostering a collegial and supportive culture among faculty and staff" (Loughman and Hadley, 2003, p. 25) are instrumental in the success of the accreditation effort. The COB must try to improve in both of these areas to better service the students on a daily basis. To support this proposal, the Student Services Center would set up mandatory advising workshops for faculty for both individual and group advising sessions. This effort would arm the faculty with the most current information that the university system expects a student to adhere to during their academic career. However, the Student Services Center must be given more autonomy and authority to make decisions in the absence of a faculty member. This effort will better service the students and help to increase the graduate enrollment.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, this paper has reviewed three organizational behavior challenges facing the College of Business. The first challenge was the organizational change caused by the AACSB accreditation effort. The second challenge was the dramatic changes in the leadership structure and leadership style to support this accreditation effort and their impact on the success or failure of

accreditation. The third challenge reviewed was to look at positive ways to better service the college's customers, the students, more effectively in their academic pursuits. After comparison of these organizational behavior issues with current research, the five recommended interventions are to help correct the organizational behavioral issues. They are 1) overcoming cognitive dissonance, 2) the administrative team to appoint rather than elect committee leadership, 3) use participative management, 4) the College of Business start a weekend masters program, and 5) give the Student Services Center located in the College of Business more authority in advising and changing student's schedules.

This paper concerns itself with some organizational behavioral issues in an academic setting that are manageable once properly identified. The key points this paper described were: 1) every organizational behavior can be identified, 2) surface and everyday behaviors usually have deep rooted causes behind them that can be explained by behavioral techniques, and 3) as the COB's leadership team changed and continues to implement their strategic goals and objectives, this researcher intends to observe whether the interventions suggested by this paper are put in place. The paper compares models and current research by experts in the organizational behavior field and provides a wide range of possible solutions for similar organizational behavior problems. The article identifies one last thought – the academic community is definitely not immune to typical organizational behavior problems.

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LEADERSHIP PRACTICES AND ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION AFTER THE MERGER OF FOUR ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Evidence indicates that a person who is self-identified with an organization will likely behave in the best interest of the organization. The first goal of this study was to learn if members' perceptions of leadership communication practices throughout the organization were related to the strength of members' organizational identification. Analysis of survey results revealed a significant relationship between leadership communication practices and organizational identification, suggesting that specific leadership practices are related to members' organizational identification.

The second goal was to see if there was anything in the results of the survey that would shed light on the continued, non-specific discontent of one of the groups included in the merger. The results show a lack of identification with the merged organization from this group. Suggestions for further study and future directions for research are offered.

INTRODUCTION

Studies indicate that the stronger an individual's sense of identification with an organization, the greater likelihood the individual will behave in ways that represent the best interests of the organization (Tompkins & Cheney, 1985; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). This concept is organizational identification (OID), the social and psychological processes whereby members of an organization develop and maintain an attachment to an organization. Johnson, Johnson, and Heimberg (1999) define OID "as a process of internal and external persuasion by which the interests of an individual merge with the interests of an organization, resulting in the creation of identifications based on those interests" (p.159).

Organizational cultures are created and maintained through socialization, an "active process by which the organization through its layers of management teaches the various rules of behavior and the assumptions that lie behind them" (Schein, 1992, p. 229). Cheney (1983) describes various strategies used to induce employees to embrace the values and goals of the organization in order to foster individuals' identification with an employing company. As Scott (1997) explains, "It is not difficult to understand why most organizations today want their members to commit to the values and goals of the organization" (p. 494).

Alvesson and Willmott (2002) explain that managers practice identity regulation using a variety of rhetorical strategies. However, the examination of management strategies does not provide direct links between specific management behaviors and members' organizational identification. Learning the value and goals and the unspoken and spoken rules of the organization is not enough to generate organizational identification; those values, goals, and rules must become a part of the member's self-concept, which leads to the first research question.

> RQ1: Are members' perceptions and observations of the leadership practices in the organization related to members' degree of organizational identification.

FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS

An extension of the framework developed by Empson (2004) for the analysis of organizational identification and organizational change serves this study. Empson's framework emphasizes the top-down process of organizational identity change in a corporate acquisition. She refers to the management goal of a new, more prestigious identity as the "aspirational organizational image."

The process of change is similar in this study of a merger of four organizations into one new organization. The notion of aspirational organizational image can be seen in the leadership goal for the merged organization: a continuum of service. The new organization would provide one-stop service to clients who were previously required to register and complete the intake process for four different service organizations.

Empson (2004) describes the evolving organizational identity of the newly formed organization as an identity that is challenged by employees' professional identities for incorporation into employees' self-concepts. This study suggests that members' identification with their original organization presents a challenge to the new organization identity, which leads to the second research question.

> RQ2: Are perceptions of leadership practices and degree of organizational identification consistent across all organizational divisions?

RESEARCH CONTEXT

This study examines the relationship between organizational identification and leadership communication practices. The subject organization of this study, AreaServe, is the result of a merger of four long-established community service organizations. One year after the new management structure was in place, the staff was surveyed about the leadership practices of the managers and directors throughout the organization and individual staff members' sense of identification with AreaServe as an organization.

Located in a Southwestern metropolitan community, AreaServe is a nonprofit social service agency with several service sites located throughout the city and surrounding communities. AreaServe is the result of a four-agency merger that became official one year before the commencement of this study. The merged staff of 176, along with over 700 volunteers, serves over 10,000 people.

PARTICIPANTS

The number of AreaServe participants for this study is 92; of the 97 surveys received, five were incomplete. The 92 cases used for this analysis represent 51 percent of the 179 staff members. Sixteen participants identified themselves as male, 74 as female; 2 respondents did not identify themselves by gender. Seven respondents did not identify their positions (or job roles) within AreaServe. Of those who indicated their positions, 24 were in administrative support positions, 23 were managers or directors, and 38 indicated direct service staff. (NOTE: Managers and directors are combined as management because the term director refers to the top manager for each of the AreaServe divisions: director of health services, director of consumer services, etc. AreaServe directors are line managers, not board members.) Of the 89 respondents who reported level of education, 15 reported a high-school education, 32 reported a college degree, and 42 reported that they held graduate degrees.

Except for the Administrative Division, the new divisions are basically the four original organizations. The leadership of the four organizations became the division directors and a new executive director was brought in by the newly combined board. Although the transition was generally well-received by employees within the organizations, both the executive director and the human resources manager indicated that one division—Consumer Services—had not been as supportive of the merger and that staff continued to express strong, non-specific discontent, at this one year point.

Over this first year, several attempts had been made to identify the discontent and specific changes that would improve the situation. This division's discontent led to this study when the human resources manager requested an organizational communication analysis. The initial investigation sought to learn how staff across the entire organization felt about the newly merged organization and leadership.

METHOD

The variables are (1) staff members' perceptions of leadership communication behaviors throughout the organization and (2) staff members' ratings of their individual sense of organizational identification. The study employs two well-established survey instruments to measure each of these variables.

Cheney's (1983) Organizational Identification Questionnaire was used to learn how staff members evaluated their sense of loyalty, their feelings of commitment, and their solidarity with AreaServe, in other words, "the nature of the individual's connection with the organization" (Cheney & Tompkins, 1987, p.10).

Leadership is a communicative process (Schein, 1992; Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Kouzes and Posner (1987) analyze leadership from the perspective of the meanings created within interactions. Their approach looks at the quality of relationships from the participants' experiences. The Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 1987) was selected to measure what AreaServe staff members thought about leadership communication behaviors. The five practices that Kouzes and Posner find vital to organizational leadership are 1) challenging the process, 2) inspiring a shared vision, 3) enabling others to act, 4) modeling the way, and 5) encouraging the heart. These practices serve to create, maintain, and transmit the culture of an organization while attending to the diverse needs and collective future of the organization members. Consequently, the use of this instrument could help identify leadership communication behaviors that impact organizational identification.

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

The AreaServe survey instrument adapted Cheney's Organizational Identification Questionnaire and employed a modified version of Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory—Individual Contributor (LPI-IC). Demographic information included gender, education level, division, and role within the organization.

For the adaptation of Cheney's (1982) Organizational Identification Questionnaire, the name of the organization (AreaServe) was inserted into the appropriate items to objectify the survey. The Organizational Identification Questionnaire is a 25-item questionnaire that measures organizational loyalty, solidarity, and commitment on 5-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The three subscales are measured with multiple items: 9 for loyalty (e.g., "I become irritated when I hear criticism of AreaServe"), 11 for solidarity (e.g., "I have a lot in common with others employed by AreaServe"), and 5 for commitment (e.g., "I really care about the fate of AreaServe").

The Organizational Identification Questionnaire has been shown to possess good psychometric properties (Cheney, 1983; Johnson et al., 1999). Section 1 of the AreaServe instrument is referenced as the OID scale for this study; OID is a standard abbreviation for organizational identification. Coefficient Alpha for AreaServe OID scale (n = 88) was found to be .86, which demonstrates high reliability. AreaServe OID subscales are 1) loyalty (Coefficient Alpha .79), 2) solidarity (Coefficient Alpha .56), 3) commitment (Coefficient Alpha .63).

The next part of the survey employed a modified version of Kouzes and Posner's (1987) Leadership Practices Inventory—Individual Contributor (LPI-IC) to measure management communication practices throughout the organization. The inventory was modified by inserting the

following wording at the beginning of each item: "The managers and directors at AreaServe . . . ." Similar modifications of the LPI have been employed to assess organization-wide leadership practices (Okorie, 1990). (NOTE: Managers and directors are combined as management because the term director refers to the top manager for each of the AreaServe divisions.)

The AreaServe LP is a 30-item survey that measures leadership practices on a 5-point scale ranging from very frequently to seldom or rarely. The five subscales are each measured with six items: 1) challenging the process (e.g., "The managers and directors at AreaServe seek out challenging opportunities that test their skills and abilities"), 2) inspiring a shared vision (e.g., "The managers and directors at AreaServe describe a compelling image of what our future could be like"), 3) enabling others to act (e.g., "The managers and directors at AreaServe actively listen to diverse points of view"), 4) modeling the way (e.g., "The managers and directors at AreaServe set personal examples of what they expect from others"), and 5) encouraging the heart (e.g., "The managers and directors at AreaServe give people lots of appreciation and support for their contributions").

Adaptations of the LPI instrument have been tested in over 3,000 cases. According to Kouzes and Pozner (1987), internal consistency measures typically range from .81 to .91 (p. 95). Coefficient Alpha for the AreaServe LP scale (n = 82) was found to be .97, indicating very high reliability. Subscales are 1) LP challenging the process (Coefficient Alpha .87), 2) inspiring a shared vision (Coefficient Alpha .89), 3) LP enabling others to act (Coefficient Alpha .91), 4) LP modeling the way (Coefficient Alpha .86), and 5) LP encourage the heart (Coefficient Alpha .90).

RESULTS

The first step was to ascertain that there was a positive rating of organizational identification across the entire organization. AreaServe participants responded with a greater than neutral rating of organizational identification. Having found a positive indication of OID, the relationship between organizational identification and leadership communication practices was examined.

RQ1: Are members' perceptions and observations of the leadership practices in the organization related to members' degree of organizational identification.

The ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of leadership practices, $F (1, 91) = 7.30$, $p = .008$. Consequently, participants who perceived a high level of leadership practices in the organization had significantly higher organizational identification ($M = 3.88$, $SE = .07$) than participants who perceived a low level of leadership practices ($M = 3.64$, $SE = .05$).

RQ2: Are perceptions of leadership practices and degree of organizational identification consistent across all organizational divisions?

First, a one-way ANOVA was performed on the mean Organizational Identification (OID) scores as a function of AreaServe division, which indicated a significant between groups difference,

F (4, 87) = 3.43, p = .012. As shown in Table 10, participants in the Administration division rated their own sense of Organizational Identification (M = 3.88, SD = .34) higher than those in the Consumer Services division (M = 3.46, SD = .43).

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the mean Leadership Practices scores as a function of AreaServe division. A statistically significant difference was indicated for between groups (AreaServe divisions) for Leadership Practices, F (4, 87) = 3.818, p = .007. As seen in Table 10, participants in the Administration division (M = 3.38, SD = .64) and those in the Housing Services division (M = 3.56, SD = .59) rated the Leadership Practices of AreaServe more positively than participants in the Consumer Services division (M = 2.52, SD = .99).

Next, a one-way ANOVA was performed on the mean Communication Relationship scores as a function of AreaServe division. The Levene test for this analysis indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated, F (4, 87) = 3.48, p = .011. Consequently, the Brown-Forsythe statistic was used which revealed a significant between groups difference, F* (4, 41) = 4.47, p < .01. Table 10 shows that participants in the Administration division (M = 4.20, SD = .35) rated the quality of their communication relationships more positively than those in the Consumer Services division (M = 3.43, SD = .92).

As shown in Table 1, the Consumer Services Division, which was identified by the human resources manager as being discontent, indicated low sense of organizational identification and leadership practices.

Table 1 Means (Standard Deviations) of Participants' Responses on the OID, LP, and CR Scales as a Function of Area Serve Division			
AreaServe Divisions	OID Scale	LP Scale	N
Administration	3.88a (.34)	3.38a (.64)	24
Health Services	3.66 (.34)	3.12 (.74)	32
Consumer Services	3.46a (.43)	2.52ab (.99)	15
Housing Services	3.80 (.32)	3.56b (.59)	8
Life Skills	3.81 (.32)	3.19 (.59)	13
Note. a Means in the same column for the OID and LP scales sharing the same superscript differ at p < .05 the Scheffe post-hoc test. b Means in the same column for the CR scale sharing the same superscript differ at p < .05 in the Games-Howell post-hoc test. Higher means represent more positive responses.			

As shown in Table 2, Pearson product-moment correlations between OID and LP were calculated for each of the AreaServe divisions.

Table 2
Correlations Between the OID Score and LP Score for Each of the Five Area Serve Divisions

Area Serve Divisions	r	N
Administration	.22	24
Health Services	.32*	32
Consumer Services	.56**	15
Housing Services	.36	8
Life Skills	.49*	13

* p < .10
** p < .05

The results indicate a significant and positive relationship between OID and LP for the Consumer Services Division, r (90) = .56, p = .029. Pearson Correlations were approaching significance for the Health Services Division and the Life Skills Division, r (90) = .32, p = .074 and r (90) = .49, p = .088, respectively. Because of the low rating by Consumer Services for LP, the correlation between OID and LP excluding the Consumer Services Division, but including Administration, Health Services, Housing Services, and Life Skills divisions, was calculated; it was found to be significant and positively related, r (90) = .34, p = .002. As reported earlier, the correlation for the entire sample indicates a significant and positive relationship between OID and LP, r (90) = .46, p < .001.

DISCUSSION

The results indicate that there is a positive relationship between the strength of AreaServe staff members' organizational identification and their perception of the quality of the leadership communication practices throughout the organization. Thus, as the quality of leadership communication practices increases, so does the strength of members' organizational identification.

The responses for items such as "The managers and directors at AreaServe actively listen to diverse points of view" and "The managers and directors at AreaServe support the decisions that workers make on their own" indicate how frequently participants perceive behaviors that enable staff members to act on their own initiative. Whether or not AreaServe participants felt the leadership "encourages their hearts" was indicated by responses to statements such as "The managers and directors at AreaServe praise for a job well done." The mean score on this subscale was between "once and awhile" and "sometimes" for the entire organization.

These results indicate that there is a relationship between organizational identification and leadership practices; as one increases, so does the other, and vice versa. Therefore, the results do not

contradict the Hogg et al. (1998) study that suggests management communication practices are outcomes, influenced by the strength of organizational identification. A review of the literature revealed no instance in which the LP scale has been administered in conjunction with the OID scale used in this study. However, Taylor (1990) administered the LPI with a different instrument—the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire measures organizational commitment with a 5-point scale. Organizational commitment is a component of organizational identification as measured in the AreaServe study. Taylor (1990) found a significant correlation between organizational commitment and all five of the components of the leadership practices scale. The AreaServe results extend Taylor's finding to indicate a relationship between all three components of organizational identification (commitment, solidarity, and loyalty) with all five components of the leadership practices measured.

The three components in the OID scale used for the AreaServe study are commitment, solidarity, and loyalty. The scale asked respondents to indicate how they feel about AreaServe and their work with responses ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." A "neutral" response was available along the continuum. Responses to items such as "I have warm feelings about AreaServe as a place to work" and "I find that my values and the values of AreaServe are very similar" are indicators of strength of organizational identification.

Leadership as examined in this study is specifically communicative and behavioral. A contribution of this study is evidence of a positive significant relationship between leadership and organizational identification. In addition, by adapting the LPI-IC for an overall assessment of AreaServe, the study extended the use of the LPI for assessment of leadership communication practices throughout an organization rather than targeting a specific manager or director.

The relationship found between leadership communication practices and organizational identification warrants continued exploration seeking to identify causal relationships. The results support research research findings that management relationships with others are fundamental to their own accomplishment of goals, whether individual or organizational goals (Bass, 1997; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Lipman-Blumen, 1996). This study also supports Empson's framework for analysis, which describes the management identity regulation process as dynamic—pro- and re-actively utilizing rhetorical strategies

The results may contribute to identifying aspects of the non-specific discontent described by the human resources manager. However, without a causal statistical relationship between OID and leadership practices, we would need to further study the Consumer Services Division through qualitative methods to try to determine the basis of the discontent. Anecdotally, one staff member from the Consumer Services Division made a comment as the surveys were being collected that she felt they were "orphans" in the merged organization.

General Limitations of Study

There is limited generalizability from the study of one organization. Communication events that may influence a specific outcome, such as organizational identification, are likely to be a series

of interactions over an extended period of time. Empson (2004) emphasizes the organizational identification also continues to change over time.

In addition, there is still considerable debate in the literature about whether the OID survey measures something different than organizational commitment (see Miller, V. D., Allen, M, Casey, M. K. and Johnson, J. R., 2000, for review and critique). As this research continues, perhaps we will tease out subtle differences, but for now, Cheney's OID survey remains the most widely used instrument. The results of these surveys offer practical insight into how employees perceive their relationship with the organization.

Another major obstacle to the investigation into communication influences on individual beliefs, feelings, and behaviors is the difficulty in identifying and tying such effects back to a communicative antecedent. Longitudinal studies or causal modeling might assist this goal. Even if we could identify potentially causal leadership communication, the concept of organizational identification inherently requires a self-report, rendering inadequate any interpretations based on observation.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

OID must be considered along with related targets of identification such as profession (Empson 2004) and work group (Scott 1997). The AreaServe demographic data show a very highly educated staff. Because of the types of services provided, there are a large number of social workers and counselors whose sense of identification with their profession could compete with their organizational identification.

The scales used in this study should be implemented with expanded responses (such as a 1-10 scale rather than the 1-5) to allow for a broader selection of and a greater distinction in the distribution. This expansion might also facilitate factor analyses of all three of the scales in the search for commonality. I also suggest administering this composite survey to a larger sample size and performing a factor analysis on the data to look for the construct common to all three scales. With a larger sample size, a factor analysis of the leadership practices subscales and organizational identification subscales could help establish possible relationships between specific leadership practices and specific aspects of organizational identification. A drawback, however, is the generally accepted minimum number of respondents for a factor analysis is 550 (25 items on the OIQ and 30 items on the LPI-IP). The additional scale measuring communication relationships would increase the number of respondents needed for a factor analysis to 720.

In addition, Cheney's (1983) position that members with organizational identification will most likely make decisions in best interests of organization should also be examined in terms of multiple targets of identification. Bartel (2001) describes how corporate and personal identity overlap. Bennington, Carroll, Trinastich, and Scott (2000) have begun the examination of how organizational members manage the complexity of multiple targets of identification. In AreaServe, a social worker or counselor would have a professional obligation to make decisions in the best

interest of the client, creating potential competition. At this time, there are no instruments for measuring multiple targets of identification.

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MANAGEMENT OF EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

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ABSTRACT

As we move ahead in today's fast paced business environment, it is imperative for an organization to have a highly skilled, competent, satisfied work force. In order to obtain such employees, an organization must offer education programs, let employees be involved with decision-making and have adequate reward systems. This new type of management style is called Employee Empowerment. To achieve this new management technique, the organization, as a whole, must undergo an extensive transformation process. Empowering employees is a top-down change that must begin with management. The purpose of this paper is to examine this process and make some recommendations for how managers can approach and implement a sound employee empowerment program.

INTRODUCTION

Today's business environment is becoming more and more competitive. The onslaught of the global market place has raised the stakes for U.S. businesses. If today's companies are to be competitive they must be more agile and inventive in their quest to lower costs and increase value to the customer. A key method companies are using to tackle these daunting tasks is unleashing their most powerful weapon, their employees. By empowering teams of employees, companies are using their greatest asset to its highest potential and, in return, are becoming more competitive in the emerging global economy.

When Xerox Corporation's dominance in the photocopier market was challenged by Japanese competitors more than 15 years ago, Xerox responded by harnessing the full power of its work force. A change in the management style of the employees that allowed them to participate in management decisions was the key to Xerox's comeback. Since Xerox has implemented policies of employee empowerment, they have posted impressive results. In 1989, Xerox won the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award; and, from 1993 until 1994, their return on assets rose 3.5 points (Profile: Xerox Corporation Ohio Consumer Business Unit, Training & Development, 1996).

It is vital to have a work force with potential, but how do you get your employees to perform at their highest ability? A work environment consisting of empowerment will help keep top employees and will attract new, high quality employees. Empowering employees can be the key in turning an average employee into an exceptional one. Empowered employees are usually happier; and, therefore, more likely to stay (Blanchard, O'Connor & Ballard (2003).
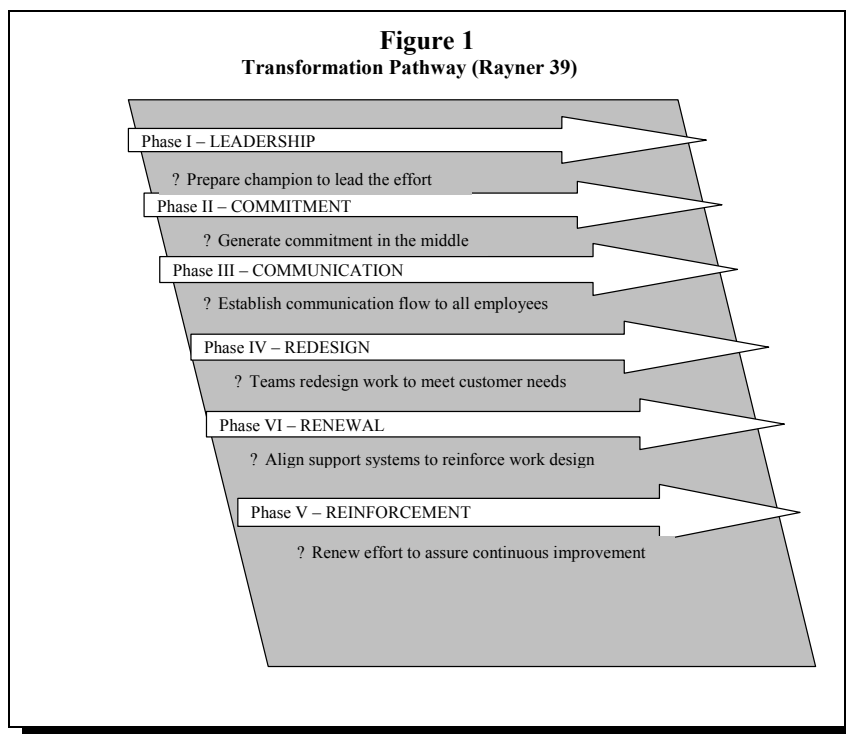
"…The difference between mediocre and excellent [employees] depends on how the employee is managed" (Blanchard, et. al. (2003). The job of an empowering manager is more similar to that of a coach than that of a traditional manager. The manager's mission is to unlock the potential of every person within the organization. Motivated, empowered employees are more productive. They are able to use their own innovation to streamline inefficient processes and policies, saving both you and your customers' money.

While employee empowerment is a relatively new topic in management, the emphasis on teams is by no means unique. Historical roots for this movement can be traced to the school of human relations in the early 1930s. As mentioned in the article "Beyond Teams and Empowerment: A Counterpoint to Two Common Precepts in TQM" by Karukonda, Watson, & Rajkamur (1999), the authors made a key argument advanced by Mary Parker Follet that man can overcome his physical, biological and environmental limitations through a system of cooperation, rather than competition. Empowered teams involve a particular configuration of work structures, practices and processes. Companies organize workflow around key business processes and often create teams to carry out those processes. The emphasis of this system is on a horizontal organization with strong customer orientation. Therefore, its basic premise is to create "an internal environment that supports customer needs and expectations" (Varma, Beatty, Schneier & Ulrich, 1999, p.29).

In the 1950's, Eric Trist of the Tavistock Institute made several attempts to implement this idea; one result of his work was the emergence of autonomous work groups (Karukonda, et. al., 1999). However, the first experiment with empowered teams was when Colgate-Palmolive opened its Cambridge, Ohio, plant in 1988. This type of management style deals with two basic concepts: the concept of teams and the concept of employee empowerment. There are three different types of teamwork. The first type is based on the assumption that non-managerial employees can make important contributions to organizations when they have the power and necessary preparation. The second type is teamwork among functions, which is based on the notion that organizations as systems cannot be effective if individual people emphasize their own outcomes over those of others. Finally, teamwork between customers and suppliers is based on the perceived benefits of a partnership between the two organizations. The concept of employee empowerment also has three aspects. First, is the instrumental aspect that empowerment involves providing better information, better skills and delegating authority to the non-managerial employees. Next, is the equally important question of do you have employee self-control as opposed to management control? Lastly, is the assumption that empowerment must result in employee satisfaction which is needed to provide customer satisfaction and continuous improvement. This kind of system can be implemented in any company, but it is important to remember that the implementation depends on the environment and characteristics of each company.

The implementation process towards empowered teams can be quite complicated. The steps towards empowering employees are unique to each individual company. There is a general outline which, when followed, leads to success. This outline, called the Transformation Pathway, can be

altered to best suit a company's needs. Figure 1 shows the six phases in the Transformation Pathway (Rayner 39).

Figure 1
Transformation Pathway (Rayner 39)

Phase I – LEADERSHIP
? Prepare champion to lead the effort
Phase II – COMMITMENT
? Generate commitment in the middle
Phase III – COMMUNICATION
? Establish communication flow to all employees
Phase IV – REDESIGN
? Teams redesign work to meet customer needs
Phase VI – RENEWAL
? Align support systems to reinforce work design
Phase V – REINFORCEMENT
? Renew effort to assure continuous improvement

During phase 1, the leadership phase, a person or group of persons within an organization recognizes the need for change. Once this need is recognized, they must clearly communicate this need to the rest of the organization. This is generally achieved through communicating the reasons why change is necessary and conveying a vision of new possibilities. The reasons for change includes why change is important, what is likely to happen if change does not occur, who is involved in the change and how the organization as a whole is likely to benefit from change (Rayner 42). This makes others aware of the need for change and the consequences of ignoring this need. The vision of new possibilities is the statement of the new goals of the organization. These are often goals that were previously unattainable and are unrealistic to undertake without a complete redesign of the work place.

Phase 2, the commitment phase, is characterized by the emphasis to get members of management and other key figures in the organization to back the idea of empowerment. No organization can successfully empower their employees without having management behind them. Some managers may have a difficult time changing from their old hierarchical ways and others may resist for fear of losing their jobs. Before the task of empowerment can progress, all resistance from management must be dealt with.

Phase 3, the communication phase, is the first real active step towards changing any procedures within an organization. Two major changes take place during this phase. First, the direction of the flow of information changes. In traditional management, information travels up the hierarchy, a decision is made, and, it travels back down in order to be implemented. In an empowered atmosphere, decision-making is made as close to the point, as possible, where the work is taking place. This leads to the second major change. In order for good decisions to be made which will benefit the organization as a whole, employees must be well informed. This leads to the expansion of information. Rather than information being shared on a need-to-know basis, information is readily available to all employees.

Phase 4, the redesign phase, is focused on the redesign of work roles. As employees are exposed to more information in phase 3, they begin to realize that the problems they face are often caused by the poorly designed work roles. Those actually performing the job design new work roles; and, in this way, it optimizes the employee's time and abilities.

Phase 5, the reinforcement phase, strengthens the new management system. The first priority in doing this should be the installation of training and development programs within the organization. The reward system must also be altered. Although there is debate about the best time to change the reward system, factors affecting individual organizations will generally decide the best time. Table 1 (Rayner 210) illustrates different reward methods and their advantages and disadvantages.

Phase 6, the renewal phase, focuses on helping the team remain focused so that continuous improvement never ends. Often, after a few years of continuous improvements, teams seem to reach a sudden plateau and cannot go any further. A main cause of this is that teams are becoming overconfident or glorifying the past rather than concentrating on the future. Whatever the cause, the purpose of the renewal phase is to keep this from happening.

As mentioned earlier, individual companies may alter these steps in any way necessary to reach their goal of empowerment. While many companies will establish teams of employees, others may not. In the case of W. L. Gore, there are only two levels in the management hierarchy (Manz & Sims, 1987). Top level consists of president and secretary-treasurer. Every other employee within the organization is referred to as an associate. This management style is referred to as 'unmanagment'. Associates make all the decisions. Before being hired, an applicant must be sponsored by another associate. Other associates initiate recognition and allocate raises. W. L. Gore is a good example of how individual companies can alter the empowerment theory to best work for them.

There is no guaranteed set of steps to empowerment. Each organization must find the best method for their needs. Empowerment will only work if management believes in it and is behind it from the beginning. Although the process can be slow, an organization must stick with its beliefs to achieve empowerment and reap the rewards.

Table 1
Different Reward Methods and Their Advantages and Disadvantages

Plan Type	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
Gain sharing	Monetary benefits of increased productivity, cost reductions and improved quality shared with employees through regular cash bonuses.	Enhanced coordination and teamwork. Employees learn more about the business and focus on objectives. Reinforces participate work environments	Company may have to pay bonus even when unprofitable. High administrative costs Tends to be ineffective in large organizations
Profit Sharing	Monetary benefits shared annually with employees in the form of cash, retirement or a combination based on company profits. Incentive formula is simple and easy to communicate and understand	Firm pays only when profitable Unites financial interests of owners and employees Lack of correlation between work effort and benefit	Tends to be ineffective in large organizations Focus on short-term profit could have long-term consequences
Merit Based	Salary or wage determined solely or largely by the employee's or group's performance.	Effective in employees perceived relationship between pay and performance Can benefit company if measured performance correlates with team/company objectives	Difficult to achieve trust in mgt. Employees may perceive system as unfair. Most employees view their performance as above average can de-motivate Creates unhealthy competition between employees
Skill Based	Salary or wage based on the number of skills the employee knows and can perform. Increases flexibility of company	Company can operate with a leaner staff. Increases employee incentive to expand depth and breadth of skills/knowledge. Emphasizes importance of continual growth and development	Raises labor costs as employees learn new skills False expectations due to lack of vacancies in areas of newly learned skills "Topping out"

According to B. Hayes, Director of Organizational Design/Leadership, Hamilton Sunstrand Aerospace Business Group of United Technology, (personal interview, October 10, 1999), one of the most critical steps on the road to empowering employees is the need for additional training and increased communication throughout the whole organization. This provides each employee with a greater understanding of how the organization works and what the goals of the organization are. Because of this training, employees become more knowledgeable about decision-making, other employees' jobs and other aspects of the organization that they were not previously accustomed to. Once employees become more educated about the company they begin to express a higher level of commitment to the organization. Through this new found commitment employees become more

involved in the quality of the products or services that the organization is providing. After this occurs, it is inevitable that quality of output and employee moral will increase. Accompanying this increase in employee moral is an increase in productivity. Employee empowerment really excites employees and eventually they begin to feel that they are important and that their input matters; thus, encouraging them to do their absolute best and achieve more for their company. All of this leads to workers having a greater sense of ownership for the organization.

Another major advantage to employee empowerment is that overhead costs can be reduced because there is a lesser need for managerial supervision. Groups and teams of employees have a greater range of ideas and solutions to problems, they can talk and brainstorm about alternatives to different situations and come to a consensus rather than having a supervisor dictate what they are to do and how they are to do it.

Accompanying all new proposals, there is always opposition and negativity. In exploring the concepts of employee empowerment we have discovered that there are some definite glitches in the system. Hayes said that because employee empowerment is based on the extension of the traditional tasks that employees are required to do, it depends heavily on the readiness and willingness of the workers to take on new and different responsibilities. Empowerment sometimes fails because employees do not want to take on new responsibilities. Many times an employee, who has been with a company doing the same job for a number of years, becomes set in his or her ways. They become reluctant to take on more tasks than they previously were accustomed to. Related to this problem is the question of which employees to keep and which to let go. Inevitably, there will be people who will resist change. If these people are unwilling to align with the new philosophy of the company they will, unfortunately, need to be replaced with someone that will.

After employees have been trained, educated and have proven themselves, the dilemma of how much to pay them arises. If employees have more responsibilities and are highly skilled, typically they should be paid better. This creates a very delicate situation. If wages are raised, then overhead costs will rise, but if employees are not justly compensated, they will leave the company, and, more than likely, get a job with the competition. All of the time and money that the company has put into the training of employees will be wasted and the competition will basically be getting something for nothing.

Although the positive aspects of employee empowerment are very impressive and many of the negative aspects can be overcome, there is still one major roadblock in the way of truly successful empowerment. According to the article entitled: "Empowerment: The Emperor's New Cloths" (Argyris, 1998) many of the change programs that are implemented in companies today crush employee innovation, motivation and drive rather than stimulating it. Managers love the sound of employee empowerment; but, they are much more accustomed to the traditional command-and-control model. In the work force there are two kinds of commitment: internal and external. Internal commitment comes largely from within and relates very closely with empowerment. If top management really wants to implement internal commitment, they must try to involve employees in defining work objectives. External commitment is the exact opposite. It

is what a manager gets when workers have little or no control over what they do. The result of external commitment is that employees will only do what is expected of them and they will put no effort or passion into their work. In order for empowerment to work, employees need to be internally committed to a particular project, person or program of the company based on their own reasoning and motivations. As opposed to external commitment, when employees are internally committed they are able to individually define tasks, define the behavior it takes to perform those tasks, jointly define performance goals with management, and, individually define the importance of those goals. Because empowerment is very closely allied with internal commitment, managers must involve employees when defining work objectives (Argyris, 1998). The problem is that managers just aren't doing it. How can there be empowerment when job requirements are predetermined and employees are being controlled from the top down? Argyris compares employee empowerment to the emperor's new clothes: we praise it in public, but in private we ask ourselves, why we can't we see the results. Why is this happening? Is it simply that today's managers are afraid to give up control or that they just don't know how to manage empowered employees?

According to Argyris, managers can improve their management techniques, thus, further enabling employee empowerment if they realize that external and internal commitment can coexist in the organization. However, the way managers balance the two is crucial to the success or failure of empowerment. Managers must distinguish between the jobs that require internal commitment and those that don't. Once those boundaries are set, managers have to convey to their employees that they are serious about empowerment; this is done by giving employees the power to make decisions and rewarding them accordingly.

Because today's business environment is becoming more and more competitive, it is essential for organizations to keep and utilize employees to their fullest potential. In order to do that, employees must be given power and control over decisions made in the organization. Companies are realizing that by using their greatest asset, their employees, to its highest potential, they will become more competitive in today's cutthroat business environment.

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STUDENTS' KNOWLEDGE OF MEETING ETIQUETTE: THE INFLUENCE OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

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ABSTRACT

Meetings are an important part of business life in the United States and have become a major vehicle for creating and maintaining impressions of credibility, power, efficiency, and effectiveness. To determine whether students are knowledgeable about correct meeting procedures, a survey of 361 Mid-South students was conducted. ANOVA results revealed significant differences (<.05) between mean responses to 11 of the 18 statements and all four demographic factors of age, business/nonbusiness status, gender, and school.

INTRODUCTION

Meetings are a time-consuming and energy-depleting part of business life in the United States. In fact, U.S. businesses spend more time and money on meetings than any other country in the world (Baldrige, 1993). Estimates are that upper-level managers spend over half of each week in meetings, while middle-level managers spend over a third of each week attending meetings (Pachter & Brody, 1995). As duPont (1998) points out, "The cost of these meetings is staggering" (p. 59).

Meetings have become a major vehicle for creating and maintaining impressions of credibility, power, efficiency, and effectiveness. People who manage meetings successfully can win recognition for their savoir-faire and respect for their professionalism (Chaney & Green, 2003). Bixler (2001) stresses that professionalism is important for making meetings productive. She states: "Professionalism helps transform meetings from empty time-wasters into creative events" (p. 129). Despite the negative attitudes associated with meetings, they represent opportunities to acquire and disseminate valuable information, develop skills, and make a favorable impression on superiors, colleagues, and subordinates (Chaney & Lyden, 1998; Post & Post, 1999).

Employees who have a negative attitude toward meetings often perceive them to be a waste of time. This perception is validated by studies that indicate that over half of the time people spend in meetings is wasted (Post & Post, 1999). The negative attitudes toward meetings can be changed when meetings are conducted properly, with special attention being given to following correct procedures and practicing good manners. According to Bixler (2001), successful meetings "happen by design, not by inadvertence" (p. 128); they should be well planned, brief, and productive.

To ensure that meetings are successful and achieve their intended purpose, attention should be given to meeting preparation, introductions, seating arrangements, responsibilities of the chairman and participants, refreshments, and follow-up activities.

MEETING PLANNING AND PREPARATION

While the meeting may be planned for various reasons, it will only be productive if certain basic guidelines and procedures are followed. These guidelines include: minimizing the number, frequency, and length of meetings; scheduling meetings only when necessary; selecting a date and time that is convenient to most people expected to attend; announcing and adhering to a beginning and ending time; and preparing a detailed agenda, with an indication of who is responsible for each item and well as the approximate length of time allotted to each topic (Fox, 2001; Mitchell, 1998; Smith, 2001).

In selecting the meeting site, it is important to keep in mind that for a meeting of employees who are considered equals, a conference table in neutral territory is considered appropriate. For informal sessions, someone's office would be appropriate. Which office one selects is also a consideration; for example, a meeting would not be held in an employee's office if the supervisor were delivering bad news. When the desired impression is authority or power, the boardroom is a good choice (Chaney & Green, 2003).

The site selected should provide adequate seating for those attending, needed audiovisual equipment, as well as proper lighting, good ventilation, and a comfortable temperature level (Bonner & Chaney, 2004; Chaney & Lyden, 1998). The needs of physically disabled persons should also be taken into consideration. For example, if someone using a wheelchair will be attending, remove chairs as needed to make sure the person has adequate space to get around easily. Participants who have difficulty hearing should be given a seat near the front with a clear view of the speaker (Pachter & Brody, 1995; Post & Post, 1999). The availability of the room should be determined and the appropriate reservations made. In addition, the location selected should have side tables for refreshments or handouts. Bottles or pitchers of water and glasses should be provided; writing pads and pencils for participants are often provided as well (Mitchell, 2000; Tuckerman & Dunnan, 1995).

INTRODUCTIONS

The meeting chairman should arrive early and take the initiative in introducing people (duPont, 1998). The importance of making introductions was confirmed by results of a survey of Mid-South firms: The meeting aspect perceived as most positive was the introduction of newcomers by the chairman (Chaney & Lyden, 1997). In addition to introducing newcomers, the chairman greets regular participants as they arrive and shakes hands. Rules have changed over the last decade – remember that now the guest takes the initiative in extending a hand first. Special guests should be introduced at the beginning of the meeting to alert those attending to the role the guest will play.

In the absence of an early introduction of a special guest, participants start assuming that bad news is imminent, such as layoffs (Chaney & Green, 2003; Post & Post, 1999).

SEATING ARRANGEMENTS

Seating arrangements are an important aspect of meetings. In fact, Craig (19996) says, "The location of your seat in a meeting is more important than most people ever imagine" (p. 18). She also recommends choosing a seat "to the immediate left of the person who has the most influence in the meeting" (p. 18) and cautions that this person is not necessarily the one leading the meeting. Sitting next to an empty chair is not recommended as this tends to detract from one's influence (Chaney & Green, 2003).

The person who called the meeting chooses a seat of central authority. The head of a rectangular table that is farthest from the door, commonly referred to as the "power perch," is widely recognized as the position of greatest authority (Bixler, 1997). (Participants feel confident that the person leading the meeting will actually take charge when he or she assumes the position of authority.) Although the chairman of the meeting could sit in the center seat along the length of the table, this position commands less attention and authority. The seat to the right of the chairman is typically reserved for an assistant to the chairman or for the person next in importance to the chairman (Bixler, 1997; Fox, 2001). Placing a folder on the table is usually sufficient to reserve this position. When an administrative assistant records minutes of the meeting, he or she occupies this position. Then the person who is considered next in the line of authority or importance would be seated to the left of the chairman. People invited to make special presentations should wait to be seated until regular attendees have taken their seats. Care should be exercised in choosing the position at the opposite end of the table from the chairman as this location is sometimes viewed as confrontational. Remember that rank, rather than gender or age, is a consideration in seating and participation in meetings (Bonner & Chaney, 2004).

CHAIRING RESPONSIBILITIES

The person chairing the meeting should schedule it well in advance and choose a date and time that is convenient for most of the expected participants. Meetings scheduled early or late in the day should be avoided as well as meetings on Friday afternoon or the afternoon before a holiday (Mitchell, 2000). Asking those expected to attend their preferences on dates and times is usually appreciated as it shows consideration for others (Baldrige, 1993; Mina, 2000).

The meeting chairman should distribute the agenda a few days in advance of the meeting; this agenda should include not only the date and location but also the beginning and ending times (most routine meetings should not exceed an hour) and topics to be discussed. In addition to listing each topic and the person responsible for leading the discussion, notations such as "for discussion only" or "for decision today" should be added to let those attending know what is to be accomplished on

each item. If the meeting is scheduled near lunchtime and you plan to provide refreshments, include a statement on the agenda that light luncheon fare, such as sandwiches and cookies, will be served (Chaney & Green, 2003; Post & Post, 1999).

Before starting the meeting, the person chairing it should place on the door a sign that states "Meeting in Progress" to avoid interruptions (Post & Post, 1999). The chairperson should avoid recapping information for late arrivals; this tends to give the impression of condoning tardiness. In addition, the chairman should follow proper parliamentary procedure using such references as Robert's Rules of Order and Jones' Parliamentary Procedure at a Glance to assure that the minority is heard but that the will of the majority prevails (Fox, 2001).

The meeting chairman is also responsible for maintaining control of the meeting, including anticipating issues that might cause conflict or disagreement. The chairman can simply make a statement that persons should limit their comments to a couple of minutes to allow sufficient time for all participants to express their opinions (Mina, 2000; Smith, 2001).

Other responsibilities of the chairman include thanking people who made presentations and recognizing those who contributed in any way to the success of the meeting, including those who compiled figures, prepared charts or handouts, and arranged for refreshments. Above all, the chairman should start on time and end on time. While going beyond the stated ending time by five minutes is acceptable, extending the meeting longer than that is rude (Post & Post, 1999).

PARTICIPANT RESPONSIBILITIES

Proper participant behavior is also essential to the success of meetings. Participants should arrive three to five minutes early since punctuality is essential in this culture (Mitchell, 1998). (The United States is considered a five-minute culture when it comes to punctuality. You are allowed to be five minutes late, but even then an apology is expected.) Arriving too early is also inappropriate. According to Sabath (1998), arriving more than 10 minutes early is "considered a breach of privacy" (p. 112). Persons in charge of the meeting may be attending to last-minute details or discussing meeting procedures with a colleague or supervisor and do not appreciate being scrutinized by participants.

Participants are expected to introduce themselves to others and shake hands (Mitchell, 1998). Visitors should remember that they extend their hands first. Participants should wait for the chairman to be seated and for an indication from the chairman as to where to sit (Mitchell, 2000). Participants should sit erectly and lean forward slightly to indicate interest in the topic under discussion. They should also give appropriate eye contact and give their full attention to the speaker. Carrying on side conversations is rude and gives a negative impression (Baldrige, 1993).

During the meeting, participants should not engage in distracting behaviors, such as doodling, playing with rubber bands, chewing gum, or sucking on mints or candies. They should not engage in any activities that are unrelated to the meeting, such as reading mail (Mitchell, 2000).

Lap computers should not be used in meetings, and cell phones should be turned off or set on vibration mode (Bonner & Chaney, 2004; Fox, 2001).

At the end of the meeting, participants should thank the person in charge and shake hands with the chairman and other participants as they leave. In addition, Baldrige (1993) advises that after attending an out-of-town meeting you should: "Show what beautiful manners you have" (p. 346). Immediately after returning home, write a note or letter to the person in charge of the meeting in which you thank and praise the person for doing a great job. She also recommends writing a short note to new friends you made at the meeting as well.

REFRESHMENTS

Offering refreshments at meetings is considered a gracious gesture and is appreciated by persons attending (Stewart, 1997). Good manners dictate that refreshments be provided when a meeting is expected to exceed an hour and a half (Chaney & Lyden, 1998). A survey of Mid-South employees revealed that providing refreshments was considered very important (Chaney & Lyden, 1997). These refreshments should be available at a nearby table and arranged so that participants can serve themselves. The person who makes arrangements for refreshments should keep these guidelines in mind:

> Provide a tablecloth (a paper covering is acceptable) and napkins as well as small plates and eating utensils as appropriate. Small plates are provided when serving more than a single item, and plastic utensils are provided as needed (Mitchell, 1998).
>
> Furnish glasses and/or cups; drinking from a can or a bottle both in business and social situations is indicative of a person with poor social skills (Pachter & Brody, 1995). Provide ice in an ice bucket or large bowl with a scoop to transfer ice to glasses for those who prefer iced beverages (Mitchell, 1998). Offer an assortment of drinks to accommodate various preferences, i.e., soft drinks, juices, coffee, tea, and bottled water. Also keep in mind that 2-liter bottles of drinks which participants are expected to share are inappropriate. (In an individualistic culture, such as the U.S., each person wants his or her own drink.) In addition to a variety of beverage options, choices in sizes should also be made available – provide both 12- and 8-ounce sizes of bottled water, soft drinks, and juices. Try to provide both regular and decaffeinated coffee and tea (Mitchell, 1998). Select food that is appropriate to the time of day – muffins, fruit, and/or bagels for morning meetings and popcorn, pretzels, cheese, cookies, or finger foods for afternoon meetings. (Doughnuts, once popular at breakfast meetings, have been replaced with more healthful choices. The high-sugar doughnuts provide quick energy but an equally quick energy crash; bagels, which provide complex carbohydrates, are preferable). Avoid crunchy, greasy foods, such as chips, and messy foods that are difficult to eat, such as pizza. Also try to accommodate vegetarians (Mitchell, 1998; Pachter & Brody, 1995; Post & Post, 1999).

All persons attending the meeting should remember that when serving themselves, they should take only one muffin or cookie (or two small ones) until all attendees have been served. Later, they may choose to go back for seconds. Those attending meetings should also remember that bringing their own beverages or food to a meeting is rude (Mitchell, 1998).

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES

The meeting should end with the chairman's summary of what the meeting has accomplished, reminders to participants of any tasks for which they have volunteered or have been assigned, and the date of the next meeting (Post & Post, 1999).

Handling follow-up activities is the responsibility of the meeting chairman and his or her administrative assistant. These activities include being sure that the meeting room is left in good order. In a survey of Mid-South employees, leaving behind used cups and plates was perceived as the most negative aspect of a meeting (Chaney & Lyden, 1997). The chairman should send a summary memorandum to all participants indicating their assignments and deadlines for completing these assignments. While this informal memorandum is adequate for thanking participants, more formal letters of appreciation should be sent to those who made presentations or special contributions to the meeting (Post & Post, 1999). Other follow-up activities include arranging for preparation and distribution of the minutes (Mina, 2000; Pachter & Brody, 1995).

An important part of the follow-up procedure is to review and evaluate the success of the meeting immediately upon its completion. By analyzing each meeting promptly, the chairman can determine areas needing improvement.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The purpose of this research was to determine demographic difference in students' knowledge of correct meeting procedures.

SURVEY PROCEDURES AND RESULTS

Following a review of books and journal articles on etiquette as well as books related to conducting meetings properly, a survey was developed that included 18 statements reflecting correct or incorrect meeting procedures. The 361 students included in the survey were enrolled in upper division courses in business communication and international business communication at a public, urban university in the Mid-South of approximately 20,000 students as well as students (70) enrolled in business courses at a Mid-South community college of about 12,000 students. Students surveyed were asked to indicate the extent of their agreement with the 18 statements provided using a five-point scale with five representing strongly agree and one representing strongly disagree. Students were also asked to indicate their gender and age and whether they were business or nonbusiness majors.

As shown in Table 1, over half of respondents were female, three-fourths were between 20 and 29 years of age, and over three-fourths were business majors.

Table 1: Demographics of Respondents		
Demographic	Number of Respondents	Valid Percent
Gender: Female	198	54.8
Male	163	45.2
Total	361	100.0
Age: Under 20	23	6.4
20-29	272	75.3
30-39	42	11.6
40 or above	24	6.6
Total	361	99.9
Major: Business Major	292	80.9
Nonbusiness Major	69	19.1
Total	361	100.0
School: University	291	80.6
Community College	70	19.4
Total	361	100.0

Statistical analysis was run using SPSS, Version 10. Means were determined for each of the statements related to correct meeting procedures. As shown in Table 2, the statement with which the most students agreed was Cell phones should be turned off during a meeting (mean of 4.83). The statement missed by the highest percentage of students was Doughnuts and coffee are considered appropriate refreshments for business meetings (mean of 4.08 – the statement was false.) Correct responses are indicated in parentheses following each statement.

ANOVAs were conducted to determine significant differences (<.05) between mean responses and demographic factors. As shown in Table 3, ANOVA results revealed significant differences between all four demographic factors of age, business/nonbusiness status, gender, and school and 11 of the 18 statements.

DISCUSSION

Significant differences (<.05) existed between all four demographic factors and responses: two showed significance by age, six showed significance by business/nonbusiness status, two showed significance by gender, and two showed significance by school.

Table 2: Meeting Manners: Mean Responses		
Statements	Mean*	S.D.
Cell phones should be turned off or set on vibration mode during meetings. (T)	4.83	0.54
Reading mail during a meeting is considered rude. (T)	4.52	1.00
A relationship exists between good manners and meeting productivity. (T)	4.17	0.91
Refreshments should be provided when a meeting is expected to exceed an hour and a half. (T)	4.14	1.90
Doughnuts and coffee are considered appropriate refreshments for breakfast meetings. (F)	4.08	0.90
Following the meeting, the chairman should send a summary memorandum to all participants. (T)	4.04	0.97
When participants serve themselves, they should take only one or two small muffins or cookies. (T)	3.86	0.92
Meetings should not be scheduled on Friday afternoon. (T)	3.58	1.33
The guest extends his/her hand first when shaking hands with the meeting chairman. (T)	3.32	1.42
The person seated to the left of the chairman is considered next in importance to the chairman. (F)	3.24	1.29
The position of greatest authority in a meeting is the end of a rectangular table nearest the door. (F)	2.96	1.42
The chairman and participants may bring their own beverages to a meeting. (F)	2.80	1.24
Providing 2-liter bottles of drinks at meetings is recommended as they are more economical. (F)	2.65	1.15
Serving pizza at noon meetings is recommended as most people like pizza. (F)	2.65	1.13
An employee's office is an appropriate meeting location for reprimands. (F)	2.57	1.24
Drinking from a can or bottle is acceptable in business meetings. (F)	2.52	1.23
The chairman should recap briefly the information that has been covered for meeting participants who arrive late. (F)	2.37	1.31
Being ten minutes late to a meeting is acceptable in the United States. (F)	1.88	1.18
*Based on a five-point scale with five representing Strongly Agree and one representing Strongly Disagree		

Statement	Age		Business/ Nonbusiness Status		Gender		School	
Table 3: ANOVA Results: Demographic Differences in Students' Knowledge of Meeting Etiquette								
	F	P-Value	F	P-Value	F	P-Value	F	P-Value
A relationship exists between good manners and meeting productivity.	3.462	0.017**	0.000	0.983	0.653	.0420	0.000	0.997
The guest extends his/her hand first when shaking hands with the meeting chairman.	1.110	0.345	2.579	0.109	0.457	0.499	3.098	0.079
The position of greatest authority is the end of a rectangular table nearest the door.	0.607	0.611	0.137	0.711	0.640	0.424	0.304	0.582
The person seated to the left of the chairman is considered next in importance to the chairman.	2.235	0.084	2.243	0.135	1.102	0.294	0.030	0.863
An employee's office is an appropriate location for reprimands.	2.011	0.112	0.080	0.777	0.464	0.496	0.049	0.826
Meetings should not be scheduled on Friday afternoon.	0.036	0.991	0.357	0.551	0.713	0.399	2.744	0.098
The chairman should recap briefly information covered earlier for those who arrive late.	0.268	0.849	5.257	0.022**	0.713	0.399	12.990	0.000*
Being ten minutes late to a meeting is acceptable in the United States.	0.195	0.900	4.778	0.029**	0.102	0.749	2.260	0.134
Reading mail during a meeting is considered rude.	1.928	0.125	1.027	0.312	0.716	0.398	2.605	0.107
Cell phones should be turned off or set on vibration mode during meetings.	1.530	0.206	0.142	0.706	6.424	0.012*	0.417	0.519
Refreshments should be provided when a meeting is expected to exceed an hour and a half.	1.698	0.167	0.008	0.930	1.365	0.243	0.385	0.535
Drinking from a can or bottle is acceptable in business meetings.	1.016	0.385	6.817	0.009*	4.512	0.034	0.629	0.428
Providing 2-liter bottles of drinks at meetings is recommended as they are more economical.	1.690	0.169	13.607	0.000*	0.203	0.653	0.988	0.321
Doughnuts and coffee are appropriate refreshments for breakfast meetings.	4.662	0.003**	0.237	0.627	1.549	0.214	3.292	0.070
Serving pizza at noon is recommended as most people like pizza.	0.138	0.937	10.558	0.001*	1.457	0.228	0.163	0.687
The chairman and participants may bring their own beverages to a meeting.	1.338	0.262	11.891	0.001*	1.233	0.267	1.329	0.250
When participants serve them-selves, they should take only one or two small muffins/cookies.	0.263	0.852	0.696	0.405	6.454	0.011*	0.000	0.987
Following the meeting, the chairman should send a summary memorandum to all participants.	1.375	0.250	1.739	0.188	0.117	0.733	5.870	0.016**
*Significant at .01 level; **Significant at .05 level								

These two statements showed significance by age: A relationship exists between good manners and meeting productivity and Doughnuts and coffee are considered appropriate refreshments for breakfast meetings. Respondents 40 years or age or above (mean of 4.54) were more knowledgeable about the relationship between good manners and meeting productivity than were those under the age of 20 (mean of 3.70). Respondents 40 years of age or above (mean of 3.54) were also more knowledgeable about the appropriateness of serving doughnuts and coffee at breakfast meetings than were respondents age 30 to 39 (mean of 4.33). (The statement was incorrect; thus, the lower mean reflected more correct responses.)

The following six statements showed significance by business/nonbusiness status: The chairman should recap briefly the information that has been covered for meeting participants who arrive late (mean of 2.29 for business majors vs 2.70 for nonbusiness majors), Being ten minutes late to a meeting is acceptable in the United States (mean of 1.82 for business majors vs 2.16 for nonbusiness majors), Drinking from a can or bottle is acceptable in business meetings (mean of 2.44 for business majors vs 2.87 for nonbusiness majors), Providing 2-liter bottles of drinks at meetings is recommended (mean of 2.54 for business majors vs 3.10 for nonbusiness majors), Serving pizza at noon meetings is recommended (mean of 2.56 for business majors vs. 3.04 for nonbusiness majors), The chairman and participants may bring their own beverages to a meeting (mean of 2.70 for business majors and 3.26 for nonbusiness majors). In all cases business majors were more knowledgeable about meeting procedures than were nonbusiness majors.

These two statements showed significance by gender: Cell phones should be turned off or set on vibration mode (mean of 4.90 for females vs 4.75 for males) and When participants serve themselves, they should take only one or two small muffins or cookies (mean of 3.97 for females vs 3.72 for males). In both cases females knew the correct response more often than males.

The following two statements showed significance by school: The chairman should recap briefly the information that has been covered for meeting participants who arrive late (mean of 2.25 for University vs 2.87 for Community College) and Following the meeting, the chairman should send a summary memorandum to all participants (mean of 3.98 for University vs 4.29 for Community College). University students answered correctly more often than did community college students the statement related to recapping information for latecomers. Community college students, however, were more knowledgeable about the importance of sending a summary memorandum to participants following the meeting.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Since meetings are a necessary yet time consuming part of business life in the United States, they should be designed carefully to assure that time is used wisely and that optimum results are achieved. Students should be aware that, as the business leaders of tomorrow, they need to learn procedures for conducting business meetings properly. When students graduate from college and assume their leadership roles in the world of business, their knowledge of proper meeting etiquette,

whether as a meeting leader or participant, will be noticed and may be an asset in promotion decisions. Is meeting etiquette readily apparent to those attending meetings? According to Mitchell (1998), "Meeting etiquette is like stage lighting: You only notice it when it is bad" (p. 79).

Results of this survey indicate that students are knowledgeable about some areas of meeting etiquette. Most students, for example, knew correct behavior related to use of cell phones and reading mail during meetings. However, students were less knowledgeable about guidelines for appropriate refreshments to serve. The research objective was to determine demographic differences in students' knowledge of correct meeting procedures. ANOVA results indicated that responses to two statements varied by age; in both cases respondents age 40 and above were more knowledgeable than younger students. Of the six statements showing significance by business/nonbusiness status, all were answered correctly more often by business majors than by nonbusiness majors. Of the two statements showing significance by gender, females answered correctly more often than males. Thus, older students who are female and business majors answered correctly more often than younger students who are male and nonbusiness majors.

Business communication teachers can use results of this survey as a basis for class discussion when presenting information on meeting management and procedures. Students can be encouraged to share their experiences related to correct and incorrect procedures they have observed during business meetings.

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CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE PRINCIPAL SELF-EFFICACY SURVEY

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ABSTRACT

This article describes the development and constructs validity of the Principal Self-Efficacy Survey (PSES). The item selection was based on the theoretical framework proposed by Bandura. Fourteen-items assessing two factors Instructional Leadership (nine items) and Management Skills (five items) and a demographic questionnaire comprised the PSES. Items were scored on a 1 to 4 Likert-type scale. Participants were two hundred eighty-four principals. Construct validity was supported by confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 5.0. In conclusion, the PSES provides a promising measure of principal perceptions of their ability to effectively function in the areas of instructional leadership and management.

INTRODUCTION

Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as: ". . . beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p.3). According to Bandura, self efficacy influences, (1) the courses of action people choose to pursue, (2) how much effort people will put forth in a given endeavor, (3) how long they will persevere in the face of obstacles and failure, (4) people's resilience to adversity, (5) whether someone's thought patterns are self-hindering or self-aiding and (6) how much stress and depression is experienced in coping with taxing environmental demands.

The central role of self-efficacy in human agency makes it an important and useful construct for empirical research. Because self-efficacy is a task-specific construct (Bandura, 1997), any attempt to measure self-efficacy should be contextually sensitive to the setting in which the behaviors occur. A rich and robust body of literature documents the relationships between self-efficacy beliefs for teachers and students and their relationship to teaching and learning (e.g., Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, and Hoy, 1998). However, a literature search for journal articles on principal self-efficacy and instructional effectiveness produced no articles specific to the topic. Currently there is tremendous interest in the role of the principal in affecting substantive, long-term improvement in schools. For example, the federal government, in The No Child Left

Behind Act has weighed in with a mandate that principals in poorly performing schools shall be replaced if improvement is not forthcoming.

Given the central role that principals are expected to perform in maintaining quality teaching and learning environments in schools, it is important to begin to conceptualize and operationalize measures of principal self-efficacy. The following sections detail the development of the Principal Self-Efficacy Survey (PSES) along with its attendant psychometric properties.

ITEM GENERATION

The generation of items for the PSES used the rational-empirical approach to instrument development (Burisch, 1984). The rational component drew upon the knowledge and experience of professionals working as principals and the research literature to suggest potential items. The empirical component selected or rejected items based on their psychometric properties. The scale configuration was based on the theoretical framework proposed by Bandura. Fourteen-items assessing two factors Instructional Leadership (nine items) and Management Skills (five items) and a demographic questionnaire comprised the PSES. Items were scored on a 1 to 4 Likert-type scale.

ITEM SELECTION

The 14 items were then checked for violations of normalcy through the SPSS Statistical Package Version 11.0 (SPSS Inc., 2001), explore function. Items would be considered for elimination if they had a skew value equal or greater than two and kurtosis value equal or greater than seven.

PARTICIPANTS

Two hundred and eighty-four principals returned completed and valid surveys representing twelve states (5 in the southeast, 2 in the Midwest, 2 in the west, 2 in the northeast, and Alaska). There are 74 elementary schools, 30 middle schools, and 31 high schools represented in this study. Sixty-six percent of the respondents are males. Ethnic representation included 83% white, 14% black, and 1.4% other. Nearly 47% of the respondents indicated that they have a master's degree plus 30 hours and approximately 10% of respondents have an earned doctorate. The majority of the responses (54%) came from rural schools, while 17% were from suburban schools and 25% were from urban schools

RESULTS

Because missing data appeared to be randomly scattered among the variables, a full information maximum likelihood (FIML) imputation was performed to estimate missing data. The factor structures were examined using a confirmatory factor analysis. A series of models were tested in the following order: (a) a single-factor g model in which all items were free to load on only one common factor; (b) an orthogonal two-factor model in which each factor was set to be independent of each other; (c) a correlated two-factor model in which the factors were to each other. The first two models were included to aid in the assessment of the correlated two- factor model.

The models were examined by AMOS version (5.0) maximum likelihood factor analysis (Arbuckle, 2004). The models were evaluated by a variety of fit measures that are classified as absolute, relative, parsimonious, and population discrepancy. Absolute fit measures assess how well the proposed interrelationships among the variables match the interrelationships among the actual interrelationships. The measure of absolute fit used in this study was the chi-square test because AMOS does not provide other absolute measures when missing data is estimated with the FIML imputation procedure. Measures of relative fit compare the hypothesized model to the null model. The relative fit measures employed in this study were the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) (Bentler and Bonett, 1980). Measures of parsimonious fit attempt to determine if the overall fit of the model has been accomplished by overfitting the data. The parsimonious fit measure in this study was the chi-square divided by the degrees of freedom. Lastly, population discrepancy measures are estimates from the sample coefficients to the population coefficients. The population discrepancy measure in this study was the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (Browne and Cudeck, 1993). Models were compared by examining differences in values of chi-square to identify statistically significant variations among the models. The fit indices for the three models are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Fit Indices for the Three Models

Factor Model	c2	df	c2 / df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Single (g)	180.37*	77	2.34	.993	.991	.069
Orthogonal	218.60*	77	2.84	.991	.987	.081
Correlated	127.1*	76	1.67	.997	.995	.049
* p < .05						

The chi-square test for differences revealed that the correlated two-factor model is superior to the other models. The correlated two-factor model yielded acceptably high goodness of fit indices (i.e., > .99) for both the CFI and the TLI. The RMSEA achieved a value of .049 indicating a close

fit between the sample coefficients and the estimated population coefficients. The correlation between the two factors is .69 demonstrating discriminate validity.

The factor loadings are provided in Table 2. All items loaded statistically significantly (p < .01) and demonstrated practical significance with loadings greater than .40 on their respective factors.

Table 2. Item factor loadings Factor Loadings of the Principal Efficacy Survey		
Item	Instructional Leadership	Management Skills
Q1	.69	
Q2	.62	
Q3	.59	
Q4	.65	
Q5	.66	
Q6	.64	
Q7	.59	
Q8	.65	
Q9	.61	
Q10		.66
Q11		.77
Q12		.47
Q13		.58
Q14		.44

CONCLUSION

This study provides empirical evidence that the PSES operationalizes the latent constructs of instructional leadership and management skills for principals. Individual items demonstrated construct validity, (i.e., the items were shown to measure their respective hypothetical construct and factor loadings were all significant, p < .01). The instructional leadership and management constructs are both considered essential to principal effectiveness and as such, the PSES provides a promising measure for furthering understanding of self-beliefs of principals.

Because this research was exploratory in nature, further research is suggested to replicate the initial results. Also, future research should attempt to determine if the factor structure holds for various levels of the principalship (i.e., elementary, middle, and high school). Future research

incorporating other important elements of principal self-efficacy beliefs (e.g., conflict resolution) would also be suggested. Finally, it would be important to understand principal self-efficacy for instructional effectiveness within the broader context of constructs known to be important for creating and facilitating an effective learning environment in schools. With this in mind, future studies should investigate the relationships between principal self-efficacy and other important constructs such as school culture, teacher self-efficacy, and student self-efficacy.

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APPENDIX A: PRINCIPAL SELF-EFFICACY SURVEY

This administrator survey asks you to make a series of judgments about your experiences as a head administrator for a school. You are asked to read the following items and rate the strength of your beliefs in your abilities to attain the following outcomes. These items should be answered from your perspective as a school principal working to produce an effective teaching and learning environment. You are to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by darkening the appropriate oval.

Scale   1=Very Weak Beliefs in My Abilities (VW)
            2=Weak Beliefs in My Abilities (W)
            3=Strong Beliefs in My Abilities (S)
            4=Very Strong Beliefs in My Abilities (VS)

STATEMENTS:

My beliefs in my abilities to…

1.   influence teachers to utilize effective teaching and learning practices are
2.   provide effective modeling for teachers regarding effective teaching and learning practices are
3.   use research on teaching and learning to guide strategic planning for accomplishment of school goals are
4.   plan effective activities and experiences which facilitate teachers' beliefs in their abilities to provide effective teaching and learning activities to their students are
5.   use data collected from teacher observations to inform school-wide efforts for improving teaching and learning are
6.   regularly perform effective observations of teachers are
7.   stay abreast of current best practices for facilitating effective teaching and learning are
8.   communicate needs and goals necessary to enhance effective instructional effectiveness to faculty are
9.   provide experiences that foster and facilitate high levels of teacher motivation towards teaching and learning are
10.   protect instructional time so that effective teaching and learning can take place
11.   facilitate an atmosphere that provides fair and consistent discipline for all students are
12.   maintain healthy school/community relations are
13.   maintain a school-wide atmosphere that is conducive to teaching and learning are
14.   buffer teacher from unnecessary paperwork

A CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON
OF LEADER ETHICS

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ABSTRACT

The answer to what makes an effective leader has long been the "holy grail" of business research. By and large, theorists have abandoned trait and behavior approaches in favor of situational leadership theories. Popular press gurus, however, continue to focus on a "leader ethic" (traits and behavior) as the foundation to effective leadership. Further, gurus such as Bass (transformational leadership), Goleman (emotional intelligence) and Covey (seven habits) believe that this fundamental ethic is universal to mankind. As such, this research uses Stephen Covey's seven habits of effectiveness and the characteristics of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership to explore how leaders from various cultures (e.g., U.S., Russia, Germany, and China) rank the popular traits and behaviors that make up a "leader ethic." The rankings are compared across gender, age groups, supervisory levels, and professions. Cultural differences of opinion are examined in terms of Hofstede's cultural dimensions (e.g., uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, individualism, power distance and time) for possible insights to variances in "leader ethic." The findings endorse the universality of Covey's "Seven Habits" and have clear implication for understanding and training cross-cultural leadership.

INTRODUCTION

The answer to what makes an effective leader has long been the "holy grail" of business researchers. Part of the problem is that the term "leadership" means different things to different people. Most, however, agree that leadership involves influencing followers to accomplish organizational goals. Originally, this influencing power was thought to spring from the leader's extraordinary abilities such as tireless energy, penetrating intuition, uncanny foresight and irresistible persuasive skill. Eventually this thought was abandoned because empirical researchers

noted that the possession of these traits did not necessarily guarantee the successful accomplishment of organizational goals. Subsequently, researchers began to believe that it was the leader's behavior that made all the difference (e.g., focus on task, focus on employees or some combination thereof). Now, however, theorists believe that effectiveness is dependent upon providing the right leadership style for a given situation. In other words, the situational factors (e.g., leader's authority, subordinates' capabilities, task, etc.) determine what kinds of leader traits, skills, and behaviors are relevant. As such, theorists believe that the education of leaders should focus on analyzing the situation and taking proper action.

The popular press gurus, however, suggest a slightly different focus on leadership training, i.e. they believe that leadership should be built from the inside-out. In other words, focus on building a "leadership ethic" that contains certain traits and behaviors as prerequisites to effective leadership. Given this foundation, leaders will have the power to influence the workers to accomplish organizational goals. For example, Goleman (2002) suggests that leaders must possess a high emotional intelligence (the ability to manage ourselves and our relationships effectively) to be successful. Similarly, Covey (1989) believes there are fundamental principles that govern human effectiveness and that these principles start with achieving independence and proceed to mastering interdependence. Bass (1985) posits that a leader's power to influence comes from within, i.e. charisma. Each of these three gurus believes that a "leadership ethic" is universal to mankind. Unfortunately, there has been little research in the U.S. on these popular notions and no research across cultures on these characteristics. This research explores how leaders from various cultures (e.g., U.S., Russia, Germany, and China) rank several of the popular traits and behaviors that make up the "leader ethic." The rankings are compared across gender, age groups, supervisory levels, and professions. Cultural differences of opinion are examined in terms of Hofstede's (1991) cultural dimensions for possible insights to variances in "leader ethic."

U.S. LEADERSHIP RESEARCH

A recent database search produced over 2,400 articles (1,197 from peer-reviewed journals) about leadership written within the past ten years. A similar search of holdings in a research university produced 350 volumes concerning leadership written within the same timeframe. Suffice it to say, a thriving interest in leadership exists yet there seems to be no "holy grail". Theories of leadership abound, as do concepts of what leads to leadership effectiveness.

Yukl (2002) has identified key variables included in leadership theories. In order to understand the various approaches, he suggests that one consider the type of variable that is emphasized the most. He has organized the variables into three categories: those of the leader, those of the follower, and those of the situation. He asserts that most theories developed over the past half century have emphasized leader characteristics and that the theories can be classified into five approaches: 1) trait, 2) behavior, 3) power-influence, 4) situational, and 5) integrative. Nahavandi

(2003) agrees that most researchers have oriented on leadership characteristics. He, however, suggests three general eras or approaches: the trait era, the behavior era, and the contingency era.

Early studies of leadership centered on the belief that leaders were born and not made. It was assumed that some were born with certain qualities that endowed them with the ability to lead others successfully. Yukl (2002) notes a focus on such attributes as personality, motives, values, and skills and such qualities as tireless energy, penetrating intuition, uncanny foresight, and irresistible persuasive power. In spite of the many studies in the early 20th century, researchers were unable to identify any specific set of traits that led to effective leadership.

World War II created an increased need for leaders. The inability to identify particular traits that would produce effective leaders caused researches to focus on leader behavior and, more specifically, leadership styles (Nahavandi, 2003; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004). Contrary to the trait approach, it was widely held that leaders could be taught particular behaviors or styles which, if applied properly, could lead to an effective influence over others.

In a number of studies conducted at Ohio State University in the 1950's researchers identified patterns of behavior, or leadership styles. The many, varied styles pointed to two primary dimensions of leadership behavior: consideration (creating mutual respect and trust with followers) and initiating structure (organizing and defining what group members should be doing) (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004). Related studies at the University of Michigan identified two different styles of leadership: employee centered and job centered. Subsequent research by Blake and Mouton (1982) also suggested two predominate styles of leader behavior: concern for people and concern for production.

A synthesis of these studies would indicate that most leadership behaviors/styles fall into one of two orientations: people or task. Although leaders have a predominant style, most will use a combination of these orientations depending on such situational factors as the characteristics of the followers, the nature of the work, the type of organization, and the nature of the external environment (Yukl, 2002). The leader's response to these situational factors, along with his/her application of power, will determine the amount of influence the leader will have over the followers – in short, the leader's effectiveness. Using Fiedler's Contingency Model of leadership as rationale, Nahavandi (2003) asserts that leadership effectiveness is a function of the match between the leader's style and the situation. "If the leader's style matches the situation, the leader will be effective; if the leader's style does not match the situation, the leader will not be effective" (p. 126).

Contrary to situational theories, several leadership gurus continue to preach that the secret of effective leadership is inside our character and behavior. For example, Daniel Goleman's (2002) construct of emotional intelligence has recently captured the imagination of business leaders and prompted a firestorm of criticism from the theorists. He suggests that the basic task of leaders is to create good feelings in those they lead in order to obtain commitment. Leaders with high emotional intelligence are able to do this because they have significant capabilities in two areas of personal competence and two areas of social competence. Gardner (1983) identified these two competencies as intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences respectively, so the concepts are hardly new. The

personal competences areas include self-awareness and self-management. These competencies are further refined into the following nine categories: emotional self-control, transparency, adaptability, achievement, initiative, and optimism. The social competence areas are social awareness and relationship management, including the following: empathy, organizational awareness, service, inspirational leadership, influence, developing others, being a change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds, and teamwork and collaboration.

Similarly, Stephen Covey (1989) believes in a character-based, "inside-out" approach to personal and interpersonal effectiveness. Inside-out is a continuing process of human growth and renewal based on several fundamental and universal principles. Mastering these principles generates an upward spiral of influence that progressively leads to higher forms of responsible independence and effective interdependence. Specifically, his first three habits (i.e., personal vision, personal leadership, and time management) move a person from dependence to independence. His second three habits (i.e., conflict resolution, empathic communication, and creative cooperation) transition one from independence to interdependence. His seventh habit of continuing to "sharpen the saw" makes all the others possible. "It's preserving and enhancing the greatest asset you have—you" (Covey, 1989).

The recent resurgence in popularity of transformational or charismatic leadership seems to suggest a renewal in the beliefs of a leader's mystical qualities. Transformational leaders are those who achieve success by being magnetic, charming, and visionary. Charisma and intellectual stimulation are its essential ingredients (Bass, 1985). Charisma is a talent, a gift—even a supernatural gift. It is part of the soul or character, radiating from within. Covey (1989) and Goleman (1998) concur that effective leadership is "inside-out." Transformational leaders possess a high degree of self-confidence and convictions in their own beliefs. They are able to relate the work and mission of the group to values, ideals, and aspirations shared among followers. They are able to inspire enthusiasm and growth by communicating confidence in each employee while increasing expectations. In short, they influence subordinates through referent power (House, 1977).

CROSS-CULTURAL LEADERSHIP RESEARCH

Many researchers believe that effective leadership starts with the character and values of the leader. Some suggest that leadership behavior is strongly influenced by national culture. In one of the first major studies, Haire, et al. (1963) chronicle cultural patterns in the roles of managers. They identified several managerial values that were relatively culture-free as well as several that were cultural specific. England and Lee (1974) found that managers across several cultures were rather similar in terms of the personal values that were related to success. Bass, Burger, et al. (1979) analyzed the choices of managers from twelve country groups in their selection, from a list of twenty-five of the most important traits and the five least important traits required for top, middle, and lower management. Hofstede's (1980) landmark study regarding the relationship between national culture and work-related values helped establish the belief among many that leadership is

a culture bound phenomenon. This notion of divergence (national culture drives values which influence a person's leadership style) was reinforced in his subsequent work (1999) concerning 21st century global management. Ogbor (2000) and Judge (2001) cite the work of several researchers that implies that leadership character is culture bound. The results of his own study of Taiwanese and American CEO's caused Judge to agree with Hofstede that theories of management and leadership need to be adapted to national cultural value systems.

Likewise, with Project GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) House, et al., (2002) expect to show the impact and effectiveness of specific cultural variables on leadership and organizational processes. The researchers studied 61 countries and grouped them into 10 clusters. Using the European sub-sample of GLOBE (22 countries from western, eastern, northern and southern and central Europe), Broadbeck, et al., (2000) found that leadership concepts are culturally endorsed. The researchers also found that countries within the same region of the sample (Anglo, Latin, etc.) were more likely to have compatible leadership concepts.

Others suggest that the globalization of culture requires (and may very well be producing) a coalescing of leadership styles (convergence). Research by Nikandrou, Apospori, and Papalexandris (2003) supports the latter finding of Broadbeck, et al. Their study was based on five countries from GLOBE's Southern European sub-sample. The researchers found that these countries, which have common origins of civilization and religion, are culturally convergent, meaning there is no significant pattern of differences of leadership concepts. Expanding beyond one region, Pillali, Scandura, and Williams (1999) found that there are more commonalities than differences in the leadership processes of different cultures. However, there is a gap between the effectiveness of management techniques between developed and developing countries, due primarily to differences in cultural values.

A comparative analysis of the United States and Russia by Puffer (1994) found this to be true. Puffer found, however, that approaches to leadership in Russia are shifting as Russians move further away from the "Red Executive" of the communist regime (divergence) and toward the market-oriented manager (convergence) after the breakup of the Soviet Union in 1991. Rhodes and Emery (2003) found a similar shift in Russian culture. Axerlrod (1997) suggests that the more people interact, the more similar they become. The advance of globalization would suggest a concomitant increase in convergence. Axerlrod, however, implies that the tendency to converge stops before it becomes complete because some individual and group differences are durable. In effect, there will always be some remnants of national culture.

Ogbor (2000) acknowledges the proponents of divergence and convergence. He also reports a third explanation of the behavior of cross-cultural management and organizational practices – crossvergence. Citing the work of Ralston, et al., Ogbor explains that the concept proposes an integration of values – a system that is in between national culture (divergence) and economic ideology (convergence). He asserts, however, that there are many unanswered questions about this concept.

The majority of contemporary research on leadership has been conducted in North America and Western Europe. (Yukl, 2002; Nahavandi, 2003; and Pierce and Newstrom, 2003). Although there has been a recent increase in interest in cross-cultural leadership, most scholars agree that more research is needed, particularly in non-western cultures. Increasing globalization is creating a concomitant increase in the diversity of the workplace: demographic, cultural, organizational, technological and competitive. The challenges facing managers in the 21st century are unlike those of the past (Drucker, 1999; McKenna, 1991; Su, Zhang, and Hulpke, 1998). They face a new set of paradigms. Black (1992) suggests that traditional [western] management techniques of the 20th century may not be appropriate for success in the years to come. Broadbeck, et al. (2000), Collison and Cohen (2002), Javidian and House (2002), Judge (2001), Nikandrou, et al. (2003), Ogbor (2000), Pillali, et al. (1999), and others agree that the current environment necessitates a better understanding of culture and its influence on leadership, management, and organizational practices.

METHOD

A common approach to studying leadership is to use "critical incident" comparisons. Incidents of effective behavior are interpreted and grouped into broad behavior/trait categories. In turn, leaders rank these categories in term of relevance. This study uses the combined traits and behaviors of Covey (1989), Goleman, et al. (2002), and Bass (1985) to create "critical incident" categories or a "leader ethic." Specifically, the seven habits of effective people (i.e., time management, empathic communication, creative cooperation, self-renewal, personal leadership, proactive behavior/personal vision, and conflict resolution) were believed to accurately represent the "inside" and "outside" facets of emotional intelligence suggested by Goleman, et al. (2002). Further, the traits and behaviors of intellectual stimulation and charisma were added to represent the two distinctly different characteristics of transformational leadership suggested by Bass (1985). As such, the following nine factors and "critical incident" definitions were used as the basis of this study. The ordering of these characteristics was selected at random and administered in three different orderings within each country.

1. *Put First Things First---Time Management. Emphasize daily planning and the ability to develop priorities and to delegate appropriate tasks. Focus on activities that support your values and personal mission. Understand what is urgent and important in your life. Balance today's production with long-term development.*
2. *Seek First to Understand, Then to be Understood---Empathic Communication. Focus on listening carefully to others to understand their frame of reference and appreciate their perceptions before the presentation of one's own ideas.*
3. *Synergize---Creative Cooperation. Find a better solution together—recognize the whole is greater than the sum of the parts. Focus on encouraging and managing diverse ideas to create growth.*

4. *Sharpen the Saw---Self-Renewal. Emphasize the continuous and balanced investment of time to maintaining or improving one's physical, social, spiritual and mental health. This attribute suggests the importance of continuous personal growth on effective leadership.*

5. *Begin with the End in Mind---Personal Leadership. Possess a clear understanding of your desired destinations and the development of strategies to accomplish personal objectives. Ensure that actions are in line with objectives.*

6. *Be Proactive---Personal Vision. Take responsibility of your own life. Develop a keen sense of awareness and the initiative to influence outcomes. Choose behaviors that match your value system.*

7. *Stimulate to Motivate---Intellectual Growth of Employees. Focus on helping followers rethink rational ways to examine a situation. Encourage employees to expand their capabilities, paradigms and creativity through intellectual stimulation.*

8. *Create Win/Win Solutions---Conflict Resolution. Seek and create mutually beneficial solutions to conflicts between individuals or groups. Understand that too much conflict causes organizational turbulence.*

9. *Be Charismatic---Employee Commitment. Create employee motivation through their emotional commitment to your values, beliefs and vision. This attribute involves a combination of charm and personal magnetism that contribute to the ability to create change and to get people to passionately endorse your ideas.*

Current maps of Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions (Emery & Tian, 2002; Rhodes & Emery, 2003; Hofstede, 1991) were used to select four diverse cultures (e.g., U.S., Central Russia, Eastern China, and Germany) to explore how a country's leadership prioritizes the universal factors suggested by popular U.S. leadership theories. The nine leadership characteristics (see above) were translated into the various languages and dialects of the participating country researchers and placed on a one page, two-sided questionnaire. Further, the forms were back-translated by other researchers from the foreign languages to English to ensure the appropriate intent; modifications were made as appropriate. The respondents were asked to select the "top three" characteristics that they thought were most important in career advancement. Knowing what it takes for career success in different countries provides a way of understanding what is valued in different countries. Additionally, the respondents were asked to state why they made these selections along with some demographic data (e.g., age, gender, years of experience, supervisory level, profession, and education specialty). The question of why they selected a particular choice was meant to provide a check against the translation and the respondents' perceptions of the task. Also, the respondents were asked to add any other leader characteristics or attributes that they thought were more important than the three that they had indicated on the questionnaire. One hundred and fifty questionnaires were randomly handed out or emailed by each country researcher across demographic categories and to 10 businesses (five manufacturing and five non-manufacturing) between September and November 2003. The sample of each national group of managers was meant to reflect a cross-section of professions, age, experience, supervisory levels, and gender.

RESULTS

The prioritization of leadership characteristics and cultural comparisons are summarized in Table 1. Russia had four characteristics (Personal Leadership, Time Management, Creative Cooperation, and Personal Vision) that were selected in the "top three" more than 40 percent of the time. The United States had four characteristics (Time Management, Empathic Communication, Personal Leadership, and Charisma) that were selected to the "top three" more than 40 percent of the time. China had three characteristics (Charisma, Self-Renewal, and Time Management) selected to the "top three" more than 40 percent of the time. Germany had three characteristics (Personal Vision, Personal Leadership, and Intellectual Stimulation) selected to the "top three" more than 40 percent of the time.

Table 1. Emphasized Leader Characteristics by Percentage				
Characteristics	China	Germany	Russia	U.S.
1. Time Management	.49*	.29	.60*	.49*
2. Empathic Communication	.23	.35	.25	.49*
3. Creative Cooperation	.28	.25	.42*	.18
4. Self-Renewal	.51*	.18	.20	.17
5. Personal Leadership	.30	.45*	.71*	.44*
6. Personal Vision	.23	.55*	.40*	.28
7. Intellectual Stimulation	.15	.41*	.16	.29
8. Conflict Resolution	.20	.18	.18	.08
9. Charisma	.60*	.35	.13	.56*
* These characteristics received a .40 or higher response from managers				

In general, there was a certain degree of uniformity across cultures in the characteristics leaders thought were the most important prerequisites to success. Two of the characteristics, Time Management and Personal Leadership, were selected in the "top three" by three out of the four nations. Another two characteristics, Charisma and Personal Vision, were selected in the "top three" by two of the four nations. Interestingly, four characteristics (Empathetic Communication, Creative Cooperation, Self-Renewal and Intellectual Stimulation) were only selected in the "top three" by one culture and one characteristic (Conflict Resolution) was not selected in the "top three" by any of the cultures.

An examination of demographic differences (i.e., age, gender, years of experience, supervisory level, etc.) within each country indicated almost no significant variation of characteristic

choices. The only differences were between supervisory levels in Germany (p<.067) and between experience levels in the United States (p<.062). This suggests a uniformity of beliefs across the demographics within each country's leadership. Further, this implies that (1) the variations between countries are predominately culture based, and (2) a consistent paradigm for successful leadership exists within each country.

It should be noted that the percentages of usable returns for the four countries were as follows: the United States (52%), Germany (40%), Russia (35%), and China (67%). While each national sample of managers represents a relatively diverse group in terms of the demographic variables, several of the variable subgroups had to be combined in order to test for significant differences. For example, the four age categories were combined into two, the number of professions were reduced from six to two (manufacturing and non-manufacturing), the years of experience was reduced from five to two.

DISCUSSION

This study examined how managers from various cultures rank behavioral attributes that contribute to a leader ethic. We expected to find some universal leadership priorities and did. Managers in three out of four countries stressed personal leadership (setting goals), and time management (setting priorities) in their "top three." Additionally, 'Personal Vision' was a close fourth among the most important characteristics across all four cultures. The fact that all three of these factors come from within the leaders seems to give a universal endorsement to the prescriptions of Covey (1989), Goleman (1998), and Bass (1985), i.e. learn to manage oneself before managing others. On the other hand, national boundaries did make a profound difference in the managers' recommendations for the use of empathic communication, self-renewal, creative cooperation and stimulating intellectual growth. On average, conflict resolution was by far, the least selected of the nine characteristics by the countries. This, however, does not suggest that the cultures place little value on conflict resolution. For example, China has a collective culture that stresses harmony in all actions and as such, may not identify conflict resolution as a special need. Interestingly, however, the U.S. rated conflict resolution as the lowest need. This is a little disappointing given the recent emphasis on teamwork, but one might expect this from the most individualistic of societies. The next lowest rated factors, 'Intellectual Stimulation' and 'Self-Renewal', clearly illustrate cultural differences. The German culture, more than the others, has long valued the ability of a leader to motivate or influence through intellectual challenges. The Chinese culture has long valued the long-term approach and as such, recognized the importance of a continual renewal of the human body, mind and spirit.

It was surprising to note that the demographic factors (e.g., age, gender, etc.) did not have much of an effect on the managers' recommendations. This seems to suggest that each society has a notion of a "leader ethic" that does not vary within the society. Further, our separation of

responses by "supervisory level" was an attempt to assess whether ideas were changing as one progressed up the corporate ladder--with the exception of Germany--they did not.

The following is an interpretation of the findings using Hofstede's (1992) dimensions (as updated) and the respondents' explanations. Further, to supplement these explanations, in-country experts were used, through a Delphi technique, to provide additional insight on the findings. In each case, the country experts had traveled and worked or studied abroad. So each had multi-cultural experience and insight.

Russia

Rhodes and Emery (2003) found that Russia has historically been a very masculine and collectivist society with high uncertainty avoidance and high power distance. There is clear evidence of these cultural influences on leadership effectiveness. Given that 77% of the respondents were male, it is easy to understand why the most selected attribute was 'Begin With the End in Mind – Personal Leadership'. Such a choice is to be expected of a highly masculine society and one with high power distance. The respondents' explanation for choosing this attribute was that it "involves a clear understanding of our desired destination." This would make it a natural "top choice" of a society with high uncertainty avoidance. The close fourth choice of 'Be Proactive – Personal Vision' reinforces these cultural values. Russia's historical cultural values may also explain why the attributes 'Stimulate to Motivate – intellectual growth', and 'Create Win/Win Solutions' – conflict resolution, were not selected by any of the respondents as their top three choices.

Russia is experiencing some changes in these historical cultural values, however, with the advent of glasnost and perestroika in the late 1980's and early 1990's (Rhodes and Emery (2003). These shifts are supported by the fact that the attribute, 'Synergize – Creative Cooperation', was selected as the third choice, particularly when more of the respondents who selected it were young female managers than in any other category.

The country experts acknowledge that Russia is a highly structured and rigidly controlled environment. There is usually little tolerance for individual freedom. One cannot question the decisions of the superiors. Decisions are not negotiated; just carried out. Creativity is not encouraged – it is even stifled in many organizations. This provides insight into why the attributes 'Stimulate to Motivate – Intellectual Growth', and 'Create Win/Win Solutions – Conflict Resolution', were not chosen in the top three. The younger generation, however, is much more active and open to different and new activities. Subjects such as management, organizational behavior, and corporate culture have appeared in only within the past 10 – 15 years. While Russia remains a strongly hierarchal system, young people are more progressive about their discussions of corporate culture. They are not afraid of being exposed to a variety of experiences to find their own way that is beneficial for their personal and professional growth. These younger managers are more willing to take some risks in experimenting with new approaches in their work to foster their success and to improve their

quality of life. This trend may have influenced the selection of 'Synergize – Creative Cooperation' as the third choice.

Table 2. Demographics of Russia's Top Choices					
Characteristic	Gender	Age	Experience	Supervision	Profession
Personal Leadership	74% M	57% <35	70% 0-10 yrs	39% Upper	06% Mfg
	26% F	43% >35	30% > 10 yrs	61% Mid-low	94% Non-Mfg
Time Management	88% M	53% <35	66% 0-10 yrs	34% Upper	25% Mfg
	12% F	47% >35	34% > 10 yrs	66% Mid-low	75% Non-Mfg
Creative Cooperation	65% M	70% <35	77% 0-10 yrs	39% Upper	17% Mfg
	35% F	30% >35	23% > 10 yrs	61% Mid-low	83% Non-Mfg
Personal Vision	90% M	32% <35	71% 0-10 yrs	26% Upper	14% Mfg
	10% F	68% >35	29% > 10 yrs	74% Mid-low	86% Non-Mfg
All	76% M	54% <35	69% 0-10 yrs	36% Upper	15% Mfg
	24% F	46% >35	31% > 10 yrs	64% Mid-low	85% Non-Mfg

United States

Hofstede (1980) found that the United States is the most individualistic country in the world and is moderately high in masculinity. It is relatively low in uncertainty avoidance and power distance. There is clear evidence of these cultural influences on perceptions of American respondents on traits attributed to leadership effectiveness. The individualistic nature of the culture and its low power distance are evident in the American managers' selection of 'Be Charismatic – Employee Commitment' as the top attribute. The obvious focus is on the individual employee. The same holds true with the U.S. mangers' third choice, 'Seek First to Understand', 'Then to Be Understood – Empathic Communication'. The respondents' explanations of choosing this attribute was that it is supportive of individual opinions, allows employees to have influence (low power distance), and indicates that managers are willing to assume risk (low emphasis on uncertainty avoidance).

Survey comments from the respondents emphasized the importance of inspirational leadership, positive role modeling from leaders, motivating employees to accomplish goals, staying in touch with employees and demonstrating empathy as keys to leadership success. These preferences provide insight into why they chose 'Employee Commitment' and 'Empathic Communication' in their top three. The U.S. business community's focus on short-term results helps

to explain the second choice, 'Put First Things First', and the close fourth choice, 'Beginning With The End In Mind'. Attributes that suggest planning, setting goals, prioritizing tasks and managing time will help leaders achieve short-term results.

Table 3. Demographics of USA's Top Choices					
Characteristic	Gender	Age	Experience	Supervision	Profession
Be Charismatic	46% M	21% <35	25% 0-10 yrs	57% Upper	26% Mfg
	54% F	79% >35	75% > 10 yrs	43% Mid-low	74% Non-Mfg
Time Management	51% M	21% <35	32% 0-10 yrs	58% Upper	24% Mfg
	49% F	79% >35	68% > 10 yrs	42% Mid-low	76% Non-Mfg
Empathy	54% M	13% <35	21% 0-10 yrs	50% Upper	32% Mfg
	46% F	87% >35	79% > 10 yrs	50% Mid-low	68% Non-Mfg
Personal Leadership	56% M	15% <35	32% 0-10 yrs	53% Upper	29% Mfg
	44% F	85% >35	68% > 10 yrs	47% Mid-low	71% Non-Mfg
All	52% M	44% <35	29% 0-10 yrs	56% Upper	28% Mfg
	48% F	56% >35	71% > 10 yrs	44% Mid-low	72% Non-Mfg

China

China is a very collectivist culture, one in which people subordinate individual interests to those of the family, group, and society. Employees are expected to support organizational values, beliefs, visions and goals. Leaders focus on harnessing this commitment, which explains the respondents' top choice, 'Be Charismatic---Employee Commitment'. The Chinese also have a high power distance, so they expect their leaders to make wise choices, and they accept and buy-in to those choices. The Chinese culture is embedded in Confucian values, which produces a long-term (future) orientation. Their second choice, 'Sharpen The Saw---Self-Renewal', reflects this attitude. It is manifested in their balanced focus on continuously improving their physical, social, spiritual and mental health.

The country experts emphasized China's long history of feudalism in which the Emperors were considered as *Tianzi* (the sun of the Heavy) whose charisma was perceived as a given. This personal magnetism contributes to the leader's ability to create change and to get the people to endorse passionately the leader's ideas, which support the respondents' first choice. Input from the country experts and the respondents emphasized the influence of Confucianism, i.e., self is conceptualized as a relational being that is consistently changeable and developable. This provides

insight into their second choice. China is experiencing some transition with the introduction of capitalism over the past 30 years. The slogan "Time is life, time is money!" is posted throughout China and gives rational for the respondents third choice. Very few respondents selected the attribute 'Stimulate to Motivate---Intellectual Growth'. In the Chinese society people are encouraged to be self-motivated and self-monitored in the workplace. If one needs stimulating to be motivated one is perceived as a poor worker or a lazy person.

Table 4. Demographics of China's Top Choices					
Characteristic	Gender	Age	Experience	Supervision	Profession
Be Charismatic	57% M	52% <35	73% 0-10 yrs	20% Upper	13% Mfg
	43% F	48% >35	27% > 10 yrs	80% Mid-low	87% Non-Mfg
Self-Renewal	54% M	44% <35	75% 0-10 yrs	17% Upper	16% Mfg
	46% F	56% >35	25% > 10 yrs	83% Mid-low	84% Non-Mfg
Time Management	61% M	48% <35	74% 0-10 yrs	18% Upper	16% Mfg
	39% F	52% >35	26% > 10 yrs	82% Mid-low	84% Non-Mfg
All	60% M	47% <35	72% 0-10 yrs	20% Upper	15% Mfg
	40% F	53% >35	28% > 10 yrs	80% Mid-low	85% Non-Mfg

Germany

German culture is characteristically high in uncertainty avoidance. This dimension helps explain why the respondents selected 'Be Proactive---Personal Vision' as their top choice. They want their leaders to be proactive and establish a vision to provide security and stability. The masculinity of the German society places emphasis on success, assertiveness and performance. These traits help the people avoid uncertainty. The combination of uncertainty avoidance and masculinity also explains the respondents' emphasis on 'Begin With the End in Mind'. They want a clear understanding of desired destinations and the development of strategies to accomplish objectives. Their third choice, 'Stimulate to Motivate', reflects Germany's low power distance. They expect their leaders to help and encourage them to expand their capabilities and creativity.

The country experts emphasize the entrepreneurial nature of the German society. The skills of the managers to influence outcomes are very important. They must be able to think ahead. The respondents emphasized establishing visions and defining goals as important. Companies need "decision makers", and not "decision takers". In order for leaders to be respected, they must demonstrate that they know where they want/expect the organization to go – and that they have a plan. Planning and developing priorities create a sense of being in control.

		Table 5. Demographics of Germany's Top Choices			
Characteristic	Gender	Age	Experience	Supervision	Profession
Personal Vision	63% M	30% <35	68% 0-10 yrs	43% Upper	32% Mfg
	37% F	70% >35	32% > 10 yrs	57% Mid-low	68% Non-Mfg
Personal Leadership	65% M	26% <35	65% 0-10 yrs	50% Upper	26% Mfg
	35% F	74% >35	35% > 10 yrs	50% Mid-low	74% Non-Mfg
Intellectual Growth	71% M	38% <35	62% 0-10 yrs	40% Upper	29% Mfg
	29% F	62% >35	38% > 10 yrs	60% Mid-low	71% Non-Mfg
All	65% M	29% <35	69% 0-10 yrs	36% Upper	27% Mfg
	35% F	71% >35	31% > 10 yrs	64% Mid-low	73% Non-Mfg

CONCLUSION

In these days of globalization and fierce competition, it is interesting and valuable to note the similarities and differences of those actions managers' believe are the most important keys to success. This study examined how managers from various cultures rank behavioral attributes that contribute to a leader ethic. A "leader ethic" system is viewed as a relatively permanent perceptual framework that shapes and influences the general nature of a leader's behavior. The significance of investigating the ethic of a manager is seen when one considers the following assertions and their implications: (1) A leader's ethic system influences the way a manager relates to self; (2) A leader's ethic system influences the way a manager relates to workers; (3) A leader's ethic system influences the way a manager relates to goals. As such, knowledge of a culture's "leader ethic" may be of value in selecting and training international workers and managers.

The findings indicate a commonality in the belief that leaders must have a clear understanding of their desired destinations and must develop strategies to accomplish personal objectives. Further, each the cultures highly rated the ability to set priorities and delegate appropriate tasks, i.e. time management and take responsibility for their own life, i.e. personal vision. Interestingly, these three most highly regarded characteristics for effective leadership are Stephen Covey's first three foundational habits. As such, these findings strongly endorse Covey's philosophy that there are universal principles of effectiveness and that there is universal acceptance that effective leadership must start from "within." Also, the credibility of these habits is further endorsed by the fact that they are uniformly recognized across the demographics of gender, age, profession, supervisory level and experience. There were, however, some interesting variations that were peculiar to each culture. For example, China's strong belief in the power of 'Charisma' and 'Self-Renewal', the United States'

penchant for 'Empathic Communication and Russia's emphasis on 'Personal Leadership'. The findings also seem to suggest that transformational leadership might be favored in the United States and China. Lastly, the findings strongly endorse the placement of Covey's *Seven Habits of Highly Effective People* (1989) within a business curriculum.

Future studies need to combine the respondent's responses with their rate of advancement to capture additional insight to the values of various cultures. In other words, different managerial behaviors are selectively reinforced in different countries through differential promotion and advancement. Additionally, if indeed these nine characteristics are part of a "leader ethic," one should revisit this list every few years to examine convergence, particularly in light of converging political, industrial and economic characteristics. Data were collected from four distinct cultures: the Far East, Eurasia, Western Europe, and North America, which should provide a sound cross-cultural analysis. It is important to note, however, that mangers from only one country in each cultural region were surveyed. Thus, while the findings are encouraging in their universality, they may not be generalizable across all countries in these diverse cultures. Additionally, future research should include cultures in Africa, the Mid-East, Scandinavia and South America.

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AN EXAMINATION OF SUBCULTURAL EFFECTS: A COMPARISON OF FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATIVE PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN A SMALL, LIBERAL ARTS, RELIGIOUS-AFFILIATED UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

This study compares faculty and administrative perceptions of organizational culture in a small, liberal arts, religious-affiliated university. The hypothesis is that there are differences between faculty perceptions and administrative perceptions of culture. A survey was administered to each group during the reaccreditation process in a single location. The results of the study were mixed.

INTRODUCTION

….understanding an organization depends very much on who we talk and listen to, as well as what we choose to observe. (Eisenberg, & Goodall, 1993, p. 140)

Organizations permeate every aspect of modern American society. Whether in the role of a citizen, a member of a civic group, participant in a hobby, part of a religion, or a member of the workplace, one must operate within the confines of organizations. As a result, in order to function in contemporary society, individuals must be able to effectively navigate among the myriad of organizations they encounter on a daily basis. Therefore, a central concern for both individuals and scholars has been how we understand organizations.

As the quotation from Eisenberg and Goodall (1993) indicates, there are a number of ways to "understand" an organization. One of those ways is to examine the culture of that organization. Eisenberg and Goodall (1993) describe culture as "what people make or construct when they do what they normally do" (p 137).

Cultural approaches to organizations and communication seek to describe the "unique sense of place" (Louis, 1980) provided by the physical and symbolic Relational organization can provide insightful feedback to organizational members about the ways those meanings are organized in the workplace, and how the organization of those meanings contributes to interpretations of everyday practices (Eisenberg & Goodall, p. 136).

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

There is a rich body of descriptive research that examines organizational culture (see for example Deal, & Kennedy, 1982; Frost, Moore, Louis, Lundberg, & Martin, 1991; Peters, & Waterman, 1982; and Schein, 1988). In the 1980s, organizational researchers across various disciplines began examining the role of culture within organizational life (Morgan, 1986; Schein, 1985) and then connected it to organizational effectiveness (Tichy, 1983) and central processes such as leadership and governance (Schein, 1985). Early research in higher education settings used culture to illustrate that campuses had unique cultures from other types of organizations, describing myths and rituals of colleges and universities, and student and faculty subcultures (Clark, 1970). Several later studies on higher education linked institutional culture with organizational success (Chaffee and Tierney, 1986; Peterson, Cameron, Jones, Mets, and Ettington, 1986). Further studies demonstrated the way that different cultures shaped various institutional functions such as governance (Chaffee and Tierney, 1986); leadership (Birnbaum, 1988), planning processes (Hearn, Clugston, and Heydinger, 1993; Leslie and Fretwell, 1996). Several research studies focused on the institution's core values (Austin, 1990) and on the perceptions held by faculty (Peterson and White, 1992; Peterson and Spencer, 1991).

Increasingly, organizational culture is seen as a central determinant of overall organizational efficacy. Robust organizational cultures are those which exhibit strength, a cohesiveness within and among groups, and a sense of organizational identity and commitment (Deal and Kennedy 1982). In stressing the importance of organizational culture to the overall effectiveness of an organization, Peters and Waterman (1982) cite such strongly held cultural values as respect for the individual, commitment to the mission and goals of the organization, and an unrelenting attention to the fundamentals or basics of the organization's operation. These elements are critical, since many of the factors that create motivational climate dimensions are linked to individual performance measures such as members' loyalty and commitment, morale, satisfaction, and perceptions about the quality of effort and involvement. Indeed, "the degree of…an individual's satisfaction with his or her role as a member of the organization largely determines patterns of cooperation, resistance, and exit" (Eisenberg & Goodall, 1993, p. 198). Thus, organizational culture, and the values that it represents, is an important element in the success of any organization.

Several studies relate the importance of organizational context and quality management practices (Blackburn and Rosen 1993; Oliver 1988; Ford and Evans 2000; DeBaylo 1999; Benson, Saraph and Schroeder 1991; National Institute of Standards and Technology – United States Department of Commerce 2003). According to Malcolm Baldrige criteria, the criteria are built on

a set of core values and concepts. "These values and concepts are the foundation for integrating key organizational requirements within a results-oriented framework. These values and concepts are the embedded (sic cultural) behaviors found in high performing organizations" (pg. 1).

While organizational culture is important, establishment of a consistent view of the culture among all constituents is a difficult endeavor. Members must be assimilated into the culture. Eisenberg and Goodall (1993) describe assimilation as "the process by which a person unfamiliar with the rules, norms and expectations of a culture becomes a member of that culture" (p. 196). Eisenberg and Goodall (1993) cite (Louis, 1980) as describing entry into an organization as "alternating between surprise and sense-making. As initial expectations are violated, newcomers try to make sense of what is going on" (p. 197). However,

> no one remains a newcomer forever. Over time, individuals who stay undergo a metamorphosis phase through which they evolve from newcomer status into full-fledged membership (Jablin, 1987). The time this transition takes varies across organizations and industries. ….In others, notably certain universities, hospitals, and professional associations, individuals may feel and be treated like newcomers even after ten years (Eisenberg & Goodall, p. 197).

Since universities may have a significant assimilation time, their unique processes are worthy of scrutiny.

In examining the culture and attendant values of academic institutions, one must begin with the traditional viewpoint of those institutions. Historically, academic organizations are viewed as social organizations having two central values: 1) the belief that college and universities are engaged in socially valuable endeavors and the intellectual development of students; and 2) a commitment to collegiality and academic freedom. Although all academic institutions hold these values, there is reason to suspect that they are under assault.

> While these values undoubtedly are deeply embedded the cultural shifts (occurring in varying degrees, depending on institutional type and context) threaten to increase the influence of organizational characteristics more typically associated with other sectors of the workforce—increased competition at the expense of colleagueship, fewer intrinsic rewards, less normative commitment to the institution, less 'lofty' personal and institutional goals (Austin 1990, p. 55).

Thus, the traditional exalted values of academic organizations are under pressure from a variety of fronts. Among other sources, that pressure emanates from institutional type and disciplinary specialization (Becher, 1987).

Previous research on organizational culture/climate within academic organizations suggests that a strong academic culture is a function of a high level of faculty involvement in their respective academic organizations (Austin, 1990; Peterson & Spencer, 1991; and Peterson & White, 1992). As such, a high level of faculty involvement depends upon a professional work environment that promotes and reinforces the values of that culture. The values include, but are not limited to, trust, fairness, tolerance for diversity of ideas, consistency and participation in the decision-making

process, autonomy, and opportunities for growth and development (Austin, 1990; Peterson & Spencer, 1991; and Peterson & White, 1992). If these same values are shared by both faculty and administrative groups, perceptual gaps are minimal or nonexistent; i.e., in alignment. If, however, significant perceptual gaps exist between faculty and administrative personnel with respect to their attitudes of the culture of the organization, then alignment does not exist (Peterson & White, 1992). Indeed, the issue of organizational alignment is the heart and soul of the Malcolm Baldrige framework. The implications of nonalignment of the organization's internal processes may prevent the organization in moving toward the accomplishment of their strategic goals (Peters & Waterman, 1982; and Schein, 1988), and further widen the cultural gap between the faculty and administrative groups (Peterson & White, 1992).

The culture and climates of an institution as defined by both its organizational and environmental characteristics represent a strong force affecting faculty values and activities. The culture and climates operating within the internal environment that foster respect for individuals that integrate them into the decision-making processes, and that provide autonomy in planning and executing tasks encourage greater motivational force for involvement and commitment to the organizational enterprise (Deal and Kennedy 1982; Peters and Waterman 1982; Schein 1985).

Ideally, therefore, for an academic organization to thrive, there should be an alignment between the views of the organization's culture that is shared between the faculty and the administration. However, Eisenberg and Goodall (1993) in describing organizations in general note this is not likely to occur on an on-going basis:

> Only rarely, and never for very long, do organizations operate as symbolically ordered monoliths, as single shared interests and practices. In fact, the opposite is usually true: The actions and practice that organization members use to construct culture are always diverse, and their interests, values and meanings are seldom widely shared. In this way, it is instructive to consider culture as a collectivity of actions and practices enacted by smaller groups (Hawes, 1974), subcultures and countercultures (Martin & Siehl, 1983), or occupational communities (Van Maanen & Barley, 1984), all of whom are engaged in a constant dialogue. The tensions among these competing interests help reveal the boundaries of the groupings as well as actively construct the dialogic dynamics of the overall culture (p. 136).

The work of Bergquist (1992) suggests that culture provides meaning and context for a specific set of people. Bergquist identifies four different types of academic culture archetypes that are represented in any higher education institution—collegial culture, managerial culture, developmental culture, and the negotiating culture. The collegial culture arises principally from the disciplines of the faculty. It values scholarly engagement, shared governance and decision making, whereas the managerial/administrative culture focuses on the goals and purposes of the institution and values efficiency, effective administrative skills, and fiscal responsibility. This contrasts with the developmental culture, which is based on the personal and professional growth of all members of the collegiate community. Lastly, the negotiating culture values the establishment of equitable and egalitarian policies and procedures, valuing confrontation, interest groups, mediation, and power.

Bergquist illustrated how the managerial/administrative culture might hinder an institution's ability to change, whereas a collegial culture was better equipped to modify institutional processes because there was greater trust. Additionally, the four archetypes were examined as exemplifying the institutional culture. Bergquist notes how campuses will have different subcultures that operate within a specific archetypal culture, and suggested that these nuances and effects of subcultural archetypes need further investigation. The present research builds from the foundation of Bergquist's work on collegial culture and managerial culture.

More succinctly, Eisenberg and Goodall (1993) state: ".....an organizational culture is necessarily a conflicted environment, a site of multiple meanings engaged in a constant struggle for interpretive control (Conquergood, 1991)" (p. 137). Therefore, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that there may be differences in the perceptions held by faculty and administrators of the culture of a university. To test this hypothesis, this paper examines the differences in perceptions of organizational climate between faculty and administrative personnel in a small, liberal arts, religious-affiliated university.

METHOD

As a prelude for the re-accreditation process of the university, the Steering Committee for Re-accreditation believed that a baseline reference for perceptual differences between a faculty group and an administrative group would provide insight into their prevailing attitudes and become a foundation from which to make changes to the organizational climate of the university for the future. In order to obtain data from faculty and administrative personnel of the university, the Steering Committee for Re-accreditation surveyed both faculty and administrative personnel on their perceptions of several constructs related to organizational culture. The particular constructs related to organizational culture. The particular constructs of interest for this study are career patterns and issues, participation in institutional decision-making, evaluation of the effectiveness of faculty performance, satisfaction and morale, importance of work experience, and the climate of the campus environment. The survey instruments used were developed as part of a national project – "The Future of the Academic Workplace in Liberal Arts Colleges" – sponsored by the Council of Independent Colleges (1989).

The respondent groups were non-randomly selected faculty (60 of 72) and administrative (34 of 52) personnel from a single campus location. The surveys were administered by the Steering Committee at a re-accreditation kick-off meeting at the
beginning of a new academic year. Data were examined via the SPSS programs which included frequencies and t-tests.

RESULTS

"The Future of the Academic Workplace in Liberal Arts Colleges" survey examines a number of ideas in an attempt to ascertain the culture of a university. There were a number of survey questions that were designed to tap specific aspects of a university's culture. Six of these variables were isolated for this study. First, the view of the culture of the college was examined.

Table 1			
Faculty and Administrator Perceptions of the Culture of the College			
Faculty Mean	Administrators' Mean	t	p value
3.085	2.850	.9659	.1811

Since the t-test failed to identify a significant difference between the faculty and administrators perception of the culture of the college, the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

In examining views of satisfaction/morale, again t-test failed to reveal a significant difference between faculty and administrator's perceptions.

Table 2			
Faculty and Administrator Perceptions of Satisfaction/Morale			
Faculty Mean	Administrators' Mean	t	p value
3.086	2.088	1.4344	.1007

The third variable examined was the perception as to whether the faculty should be involved in decision making within the university.

Table 3			
Faculty and Administrator Perceptions of Faculty Should Be Involved in Decision Making			
Faculty Mean	Administrators' Mean	t	p value
3.914	3.577	1.5464	.0707

Results of the t-test failed to reveal a significant difference in faculty and administrator's perceptions of whether faculty should be involved in the decision making process.

Related to the third variable, the fourth variable sought to examine the perception as to whether faculty are involved in the decision making process.

Table 4 **Faculty and Administrator Perceptions of Faculty are Involved in Decision Making**			
Faculty Mean	Administrators' Mean	t	p value
2.818	3.127	.9880	.1689

Again, t-test failed to reveal a significant difference between faculty and administrator's perceptions.

The fifth variable examined the perceptions as to whether criteria should be used in the evaluation of faculty performance.

Table 5 **Faculty and Administrator Perceptions of Criteria Should Be Used in Evaluating Faculty Performance**			
Faculty Mean	Administrators' Mean	t	p value
3.212	3.251	.2846	.3889

Once again, t-test failed to reveal a significant difference between faculty and administrator perceptions.

Related to the fifth variable, the sixth variable sought to examine perceptions as to whether criteria are used in the evaluation of faculty performance. On this variable, the t-test revealed a significant difference between faculty and administrator perceptions.

Table 6 **Faculty and Administrator Perceptions of Criteria are Used in Evaluating Faculty Performance**			
Faculty Mean	Administrators' Mean	t	p value
3.112	2.715	3.230	.0015

Finally, in a meta-analysis, all the variables were combined to examine overall faculty and administrator perceptions of the university's culture. Once again, the t-test failed to reveal a significant difference.

Table 7 **Faculty and Administrator Perceptions of All Variables**			
Faculty Mean	Administrators' Mean	t	p value
3.235	3.073	1.604	.0542

DISCUSSION

Based on the authors' personal involvement with the university and on the differentiation perspective of the theoretical literature, which "portray cultural manifestations as predominately inconsistent with each other" (Frost, et al. Al, 1991, p 8), a difference in faculty and administrator perceptions of the University's culture was expected. However, the overall set and five of the six sets of variables failed to produce a significant difference between the faculty and administrator's perceptions. Thus, for these variables, the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The only variable that produced a significant difference was the one on the perception of whether criteria are actually used in evaluating faculty performance. One explanation for this finding is that this is an area in which both the faculty and administrators are most directly involved. The existence and use of criteria should be obvious to both faculty and administrators, and therefore is relatively concrete. Both the faculty and administrators can clearly identify the criteria used in the evaluation process. Whereas, perceptions of morale, for example, are much more subjective and thus greater room for variance among the participants is possible.

Another reason for the failure to produce differences might be due to the small sample size. While a sizable percentage of both the faculty (60 of 72, 83%) and administrators (34 of 52, 65%), the overall totals are still very small, thus requiring substantial differences in order to produce statistically significant findings.

Beyond these explanations, the results of this study provide support to the integration perspective of organizational cultural studies.

> The integration perspective 'portrays culture predominately in terms of consistency (across the various manifestations of culture), organization-wide consensus about the appropriate interpretation of those manifestations, and clarity. From an integration perspective, cultural members agree about what they are to do and why it is worthwhile to do it. In this realm of clarity, there is no room for ambiguity (Frost, et al, 1991, p.8)

The results of this study seem to clearly support the integration perspective of organizational culture studies.

While it was expected that the data would show that faculty and administrative personnel have significantly different views on the climate of their organization as suggested by the several studies in the research literature (Martin, 1992; Peterson and White, 1992; Bergquist, 1992; Martin and Siehl, 1983; Tierney, 1988; Peterson and Spencer, 1991), that did not turn out to be the case. The data show that the faculty and administrative groups share the same values about the academic community.

Implicit values in the academic environment shape the beliefs, attitudes, and behavior of organizational members in both overt and covert ways. It is extremely important to the academic quality and survivability of the university today that various groups which comprise the "academic community" have reasonably aligned values with one another and with the overall strategic direction of the institution. This will likely improve the university's ability to achieve its strategic goals and

at the same time, strengthen the internal and external-working relationships among the various constituencies affected by the enhanced quality of those relationships.

FUTURE RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

This research study adds empirical data, all be it based on a small sample size, to the organizational culture and quality management literature. The general view of the research literature on organizational culture has been to approach culture on a systems level and to study it from the perspective as a single culture. The implicit assumption is that all members of the organization share common beliefs and values. Inasmuch as institutions of higher education are composed of several subcultures--(faculty, administrative, and student—(Martin & Siehl, 1983; Tierney, 1988; Peterson & Spencer, 1991), each distinct subculture may have its own respective values, belief systems, language, and rituals that may be disconnected or potentially counter to the organization-wide culture. As a research study, it best provides a snapshot of one particular academic institution by reinforcing the single culture model, and discounting the influence of subcultural effects. However, as this study is replicated with larger institutions, those in the public domain, and those who differ in Carnegie classification, it should further add to our knowledge of the organizational culture and the management of quality of academic organizations.

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READABILITY OF MANAGEMENT'S DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

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ABSTRACT

The Governmental Accounting Standards Board issued Statement 34 in June 1999, requiring governmental entities to prepare a Management Discussion and Analysis (MD&A) as part of their Comprehensive Annual Financial Reports. Statement 34 also reiterated that citizens are considered users of governmental financial statements and the MD&As. This paper discusses various readability measures and uses them to evaluate municipal MD&As. We found that most of the reviewed MD&As have average readability measures of grade 9 or higher. The finding is not as unequivocal as desired, however. The Flesch-Kincaid measure differs by four grades depending upon the source of the program used (Grammatik or Readability Plus for Windows). The results of the current study may influence local governments to write the governmental MD&A at a lower reading level and use a more understandable writing style.

INTRODUCTION

The Governmental Accounting Standards Board (GASB) issued Statement 34 in June 1999, requiring governmental entities to prepare a Management Discussion and Analysis (MD&A) as part of their Comprehensive Annual Financial Reports (CAFRs). The MD&A discusses financial performance, capital resources, budgets, and issues and trends relating to the governmental entity's financial position or results of operation. One of GASB's justifications for Statement 34 was "greater accountability by providing more useful information to more users" (Statement 34, paragraph 184). GASB Concept Statement #1 states that citizens are one of the three groups of users of governmental financial statements. According to Statement 34, "the fact that few citizens or legislators currently read their financial reports does not mean that they never will, especially if the financial reports can be made more understandable and more useful to them" (Statement 34, paragraph 194). To reach this new user group, particular care is required to explain the governmental entity's financial position simply and clearly. Readability is "that quality in writing which results in quick and easy communication. Readable writing communicates precisely and with a single reading" (Lesikar and

Lyons, 1986, p.21). Since GASB identified three groups of primary users, and purposefully chose to set no group as having priority, readability is of particular importance.

This paper reports on readability of MD&As in CAFRs of early adopters of Statement 34. It discusses various readability measures and applies them to the MD&As of municipal entities of all sizes. It discusses five readability measures and correlates them to characteristics of the entities.

STATEMENT 34

The CAFR must provide governmental accountability to citizens, legislators and creditors. It is important for constituents of a governmental entity to understand how resources are being raised and how they are being utilized. The new requirements of GASB Statement 34 are designed to make CAFRs easier to understand and are considered "the culmination of years of planning and discussion on how to get governments to provide a clearer picture of their financial well-being" (Valuing Infrastructure, 2000).

GASB prepared guidelines for the MD&A, but style and format of presentation are at the discretion of management. An important aspect of the MD&A is the requirement of financial managers to share with constituents an analysis of the governmental entity's financial performance that is both readable and understandable. In essence, the MD&A section should provide citizens with information necessary to assist them in evaluating whether the entity's financial position has improved or worsened as a result of the current year's operation. It is crucial for the information to be displayed in a manner that is readable and understandable by the average United States citizen.

GASB structured the new financial reporting model to be implemented in three phases. Table 1 indicates the dates when governing bodies are required to implement Statement 34 although many are choosing to implement earlier.

Table 1: Implementation Guidelines		
Phase	Total Annual Revenues	Effective Beginning With
1	$100 million or more	Fiscal year 2001-2002
2	At least $10 million but less than $100 million	Fiscal year 2002-2003
3	Less than $10 million	Fiscal year 2003-2004

READABILITY LITERATURE

Table 2 from Kinnersley and Fleischman (2001) provides the readability of commonly known documents. These documents are intended for the general public and are listed from the highest to the lowest reading grade level required.

Table 2: Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level of Other Writing	
Publication	Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level
Microsoft Word User's Guide	15
US Constitution including all Amendments	14
New York Times (one article)	14
Gettysburg Address	13
Associated Press Story (one article)	13
Wall Street Journal	11
Time	11
Newsweek	11
1040EZ Instructions	11
Microsoft Windows Manual	10
TV Guide	5
Cosmopolitan	5
Hemingway Short Story	4
National Enquirer	3

Studies of readability of corporate financial reports show that annual reports have become less readable (Pashalian & Crissy, 1950; Sopor & Dolphin, 1964; Smith & Smith, 1971; Barnett & Loeffler, 1979). In addition, the readability of MD&As in corporate annual financial reports was noted to be no better than readability of footnotes (Schroeder & Gibson, 1990) which according to Golub and Kueppers (1983) "…are often written in a style and vocabulary that only accountants and attorneys can readily understand." According to Urbanic (1993), the reading level of tax instructions requires approximately two years of college.

A survey reported by the Financial Executives Research Foundation (1987) found individual investors uncomfortable with the language and complexity of traditional annual reports while professional investors did not report problems. Most of the individual investors thought writing the reports in more understandable language and without technical jargon would improve the reports. In summary, narrative disclosures receive poor ratings for readability in both academic research studies and from individuals.

READABILITY MEASURES

There are three aspects of writing known to affect readability (Flesch, 1948). These variables are passive voice, sentence complexity and vocabulary complexity. The passive voice data provides the percentage of finite verb phrases in the document. Too many passive constructions can make a

passage difficult to understand. Short words and sentences communicate better and are easier to understand than long words and sentences. Sentence and vocabulary complexity is based on a scale of 0 to 100, with 100 denoting very complex.

Readability is assessed using either readability formulas such as Dale-Chall, Flesch Reading Ease, Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level Formula, FOG and SMOG. In tables 3 and 4, Flesch-Kincaid from the Grammatik program is labeled Flesch-Kincaid 1 with the same measure from the Readability Plus for Windows program as Flesch-Kincaid 2. Readability formulas are mathematical models that assign a score to a selected passage. Essentially, readability formulas measure sentence difficulty by counting the number of words per sentence and word difficulty by number of letters of syllables per word.

Dale-Chall and Flesch-Kincaid Grade level formulas express their results as grade levels. The Flesch Reading Ease expresses its result as a value on a scale from 0 to 100 with the lower the score indicating more difficult material. For example, a passage that scores 100 has an average sentence length of 12 words or less with no words over two syllables. Below 30 is very difficult. Above 70 is quite easy.

Similarly, the formula developed by Robert Gunning, FOG, takes into account the total number of words, words of three or more syllables, and number of sentences in a paragraph. "Most experts feel when using FOG no technical publication should score higher than 14, no general business publication higher than 12 and no clerical publication higher than 8" (Readability Calculations p. 5).

The SMOG formula relies solely on the number of words containing three or more syllables. Whereas most formulas predict the grade level for 75%-85% comprehension, SMOG focuses on 100%.

In summary, the five methods, Dale-Chall, Flesch, SMOG, FOG, and Flesch-Kincaid Indices, evaluate some or all of the following: average number of syllables per word, average number of words per sentence, and the average number of sentences per paragraph. All measures except the Flesch Reading Ease score reports results by grade levels.

METHODOLOGY

The governmental entities included in this study have implemented GASB 34, and their CAFRs contain the required MD&A section. Using the Governmental Accounting Standard Board web site of all early implementers, we chose to focus our analysis on city implementers as of February 1, 2003.

Fifty-eight of 86 cities provided an electronic CAFR. Although numerous governments provided electronic CAFRs, several were unusable for our purposes. In these instances, we requested a hard copy of the CAFRs. From a population of 86 municipal early implementers, our sample size of usable CAFRs was 84.

The demographic data are from the U.S. Census Bureau's web site and an interactive database engine called American FactFinder. The population and per capita income are from the 2000 census.

We used the readability program, Grammatik, contained in the word processing program Corel WordPerfect. Using the Flesch-Kincaid readability formula in its analysis, Grammatik creates a report of the readability of the MD&A section. The report includes the percent of sentences in the passive voice, sentence complexity, and vocabulary complexity. In addition, we used a software readability program from Micro Power & Light Company entitled "Readability Plus for Windows." The programs utilized in the analysis were Dale-Chall, Flesch Reading Ease, Flesch Grade Level, FOG, and SMOG formulas. Actual content is not assessed by any readability measure.

We analyzed each MD&A using five readability measures. Then the measures were compared to each other and to population and revenue of the reporting entities. Our findings follow.

FINDINGS

We compared the scores from each formula. The means for grade level measures ranged from 8.7 to 12.9. For a given entity, there was often a range of eight grade levels obtained by the five measures. However, the measures were consistent and significantly correlated at the .01 level of significance. This indicates that the measures apply different weights to the variables assessed but provide internally consistent results. See Table 3.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Dale-Chall	84	7.9	10.6	9.33	0.45
Flesch-Kincaid 1	83	9.43	16	12.91	2.21
Flesch-Kincaid 2	84	4.4	12.8	8.72	1.42
FOG	84	7.4	15.9	11.63	1.49
SMOG	84	5.7	14.6	10.63	1.39

The sample was partitioned by size of the entity. The construct "size" was defined using the same revenue standards GASB used when developing the implementation schedule. The partition with the greatest revenue is designated as group 1, etc. Although smaller entities had higher readability measures (required higher grade level to comprehend) in the majority of the cases, the differences were not statistically significant. Table 4 reports the results of each of the various readability measures for the partitioned sample.

There are statistically significant differences between the largest and smallest entities' MD&As when applying the Flesch Reading Ease measure. The means differed by 4.68 and this is significant at the 0.015 level. Unfortunately, for citizens in smaller communities, the MD&As of these entities are more difficult to read than those of the largest entities. See Table 5.

Table 4: Group Statistics					
	Size	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Dale-Chall	1	11	9.245	0.398	0.120
	2	39	9.203	0.481	0.077
	3	32	9.484	0.375	0.066
Flesch-Kincaid 1	1	11	13.814	2.412	0.727
	2	39	12.707	2.204	0.353
	3	31	12.819	2.109	0.379
Flesch-Kincaid 2	1	11	8.164	1.765	0.532
	2	39	8.703	1.538	0.246
	3	32	8.913	1.126	0.199
FOG	1	11	10.882	1.818	0.548
	2	39	11.636	1.586	0.254
	3	32	11.838	1.228	0.217
SMOG	1	11	10.000	2.003	0.604
	2	39	10.690	1.405	0.225
	3	32	10.731	1.117	0.197

Table 5: Flesch Reading Ease Comparison of means of segmented sample			
Size	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
1	11	50.76	6.68
2	39	48.22	6.47
3	32	46.08	4.76

Correlating size, revenue, and revenue per capital to the other four readability measures showed mixed results. There is a statistically significant negative correlation (at the .05 level) between revenue and two of the readability measures (SMOG and Flesch-Kincaid). This indicates that as revenue decreases, the readability level of the MD&A increases. There are also statistically significant positive correlations between size and two different measures (FOG and Dale-Chall). We can draw no conclusions from these results because the readability measures are highly correlated to each other (.000 to .018).

DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Recent census data shows that about 84% of adults over 25 years of age have a high school degree and approximately 26% have one or more college degrees. Despite these levels of educational attainment, research shows that many people read three to five grades lower than their highest level of educational attainment. Thus, it is not unusual for someone with a high school diploma to be reading at a seventh to ninth grade reading level. Combining these facts, more than one-third of U.S. adults read below the eighth grade level. Because of this, Larocque recommends materials written for the general public should have a tenth grade reading level or below. In fact, many recommend that materials for the general public should have a junior high reading level. Yet, most of the MD&As reviewed have readability measures of grade 9 or higher. This finding suggests that if government officials wish to convey the financial state of the municipality to citizens, the reports must be simplified.

The readability measures are not as unequivocal as desired, however. The Flesch-Kincaid measure differs by four grade levels depending upon the source of the program used (Grammatik or Readability Plus for Windows). A clearer, but not encouraging, finding is that the Flesch Reading Ease measure averages 47.7 (maximum 68.8, minimum 31.7). This indicates fairly difficult reading since above 70 is considered easy and below 30 very difficult.

Another concern is that smaller entities have significantly more complex reports using the Flesch Reading Ease score. Although size is not correlated to revenue, smaller municipalities are hypothesized to have a larger percentage of citizens without the financial background or reading skills, making them less able to understand the financial performance reports of their government.

LIMITATIONS

Variations between readability measures were notable. However, in most cases, the results indicated fairly complex passages, measured by number of syllables per word, words per sentence, etc. Additionally, the content of financial reports is technical and requires comprehension of a basic vocabulary. This aspect was not measured. Another limitation was in relation to the various graphs and tables included within the MD&A sections. Primarily these graphs/tables consisted of numerical data. When we ran the readability analysis on a document before and after extracting the graphs and/or tables, the difference in the results was minimal.

CONCLUSIONS

This study reports on the readability of the MD&As in the CAFRs of early adopters of Statement 34. These results are based on their first MD&As. With refinement, writers will learn to present essential information in a more simplified format.

To increase the value of the financial reports, preparers should educate citizens through local newspapers and/or public forums. Even the best financial reports are of little value unless interested parties take an interest and devote some time and effort into understanding the reports.

Thus, municipalities should consider a two-phase approach. First, simplify the management discussion and analysis as much as possible. Second, enlist local civic groups to sponsor forums or discussions to explain the new reporting to citizens. Only then will GASB's purpose of three equal groups of users of government financial information be achieved.

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ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND SOCIAL EXCHANGE: A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF SOURCES OF POSITIVE BENEFITS

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ABSTRACT

This study tested the differential relationships of social exchange with the organization and social exchange with the supervisor to organization directed and supervisor directed organizational citizenship behavior. Data from approximately 157 employee-supervisor dyads indicated that social exchange with the organization represented by perceived organizational support was positively related to organization directed organizational citizenship behavior and social exchange with the supervisor represented by leader-member exchange quality was positively related to supervisor directed organizational citizenship behavior. As expected, leader-member exchange rather than perceived organizational support was more strongly related to supervisor directed organizational citizenship behavior. However, perceived organizational support was not more strongly related than leader-member exchange to organization directed organizational citizenship behavior. Theoretical and practical implications of the results, limitations of the study, and avenues for future research are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Organ (1988) described Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) as behavior that is not formally prescribed or officially rewarded by the organization, but at the same time in the aggregate contributes to organizational effectiveness. In other words, OCB is discretionary behavior that is beneficial to the organization. Examples of OCB include, helping co-workers who are behind in their work, showing pride when representing the organization in public, volunteering for overtime work when needed, and not complaining about minor inconveniences that are a normal part of organizational life. From the above examples it is clear that OCB can contribute to organizational effectiveness in many ways. Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) argue that in general, OCB may enhance organizational effectiveness "by 'lubricating' the social machinery of the organization, reducing friction, and/or increasing efficiency" (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997, 135). OCB may also contribute to organizational effectiveness by enhancing co-worker and managerial productivity, promoting better use of scarce resources, improving coordination, strengthening the organization's ability to attract and retain better employees, reducing variability of performance, and enabling better

adaptation to environmental changes. Though limited, existing research indicates that OCB has a positive relationship to several indicators of organizational effectiveness (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is a common theoretical framework for guiding research on OCB (Deluga, 1994; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). This study uses social exchange theory to hypothesize, and test, differential relationships for Perceived Organizational Support (POS; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX; Graen & Scandura, 1987) to organization-directed OCB and supervisor-directed OCB.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Many social associations, including the employment relationship, can be considered as exchange relationships (Blau, 1964). According to Blau (1964), exchange relationships can be broadly categorized as either economic or social. In economic exchange the terms of exchange are clearly specified, usually through a formal contract. In social exchange, while there is an expectation of some return in the future for any favor rendered, the exact nature and timing of the return is not specified in advance. The nature and timing of the return is left to the discretion of the one who makes it. In addition, in social exchange, there is no formal mechanism for ensuring an appropriate return for a favor. In the absence of any formal mechanism, parties must trust each other to discharge their mutual obligations. Here the relationship itself develops an intrinsic value beyond the value of the resources exchanged. Social exchange thus leads to the development of feelings of personal obligation, gratitude and trust.

Employment relationships may have elements of both economic and social exchange. When it is an economic exchange, employees receive only contractual inducements and they are likely to confine their contributions to those prescribed by the contract. When the employment relationship is a social exchange, employees receive positive, beneficial treatment from the organization and/or its representatives. This in turn creates obligations on the part of employees to reciprocate in positive beneficial ways (Settoon et al. 1996). Since, OCB is generally discretionary, it is a social resource that can be exchanged by individuals who have been the recipients of social rewards (Foa & Foa, 1980; Moorman, 1991). Therefore, when the employment relationship is a social exchange, employees are more likely to engage in OCB (Organ, 1988).

Researchers have argued that social exchange in organizations can be conceptualized both as a global exchange between the individual and the organization, and as a more focused dyadic relationship between employees and their supervisors (McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Settoon et al. 1996; Wayne et al. 1997). When the social exchange is with the organization, employees are likely to reciprocate by engaging in behaviors that benefit the organization. When the social exchange is with the supervisor, employees are likely to reciprocate with behaviors that benefit the supervisor. This is because individuals who receive positive benefits from others, experience a sense of

obligation that is uncomfortable and can be reduced only through reciprocation that is directed toward the donor of the positive benefits (McNeely & Meglino, 1994).

Perceived organizational support is a variable that represents social exchange between the employee and the employing organization (Wayne et al. 1997). It refers to the perception of employees that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Eisenberger et al. 1986). Eisenberger et al. (1986), suggest that, in order to meet the needs for praise and approval, and to determine the organization's readiness to reward greater effort to meet organizational goals, employees form global beliefs about the organization's commitment to them. Such beliefs form the basis for POS, which will in turn increase employees' affective commitment to the organization and the expectancy that greater work effort will be rewarded. Affective commitment implies identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Further, the belief that greater efforts will lead to rewards will help to establish trust in the long-term fairness of the organization to recompense positive, discretionary behaviors (Eisenberger et al. 1990). A positive relationship POS and organization-directed OCB can therefore be expected. Recent empirical evidence also supports this contention (Masterson et al. 2000). Thus, it can be hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1:   POS will be positively related to organization-directed OCB

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) model (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Gerstner, & Day, 1997; Liden, Wayne & Stillwell, 1993), proposes that leaders exhibit very different patterns of behavior toward different members of the work group. These differences lead to the development of basically two types of relationships (exchanges) between leaders and members. One type, the high quality leader-member exchange is characterized by mutual trust and support, interpersonal attraction, loyalty, bi-directional influence, and extra-contractual behavior exchange (Deluga, 1994; Duchon, Green & Taber, 1986). The other type, the low quality leader-member exchange is characterized by unidirectional downward influence based on formal organizational authority and contractual relations (Deluga, 1994; Duchon et al. 1986). Members of high-quality exchange are often referred to as the "in-group" and those of the low-quality exchange as the "out-group" (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975).

High quality LMX (in-group membership) has been associated with a number of positive outcomes including job performance, satisfaction with supervision, overall satisfaction, commitment, low role conflict, role clarity, member competence and low turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Wayne and Green (1993) suggest that when supervisors engage in behaviors indicating positive regard for employees (high quality LMX), employees feel obliged to repay the supervisor so that the exchange is mutually beneficial. Thus, LMX affects not only the supervisor's behavior toward the subordinate, but also the subordinate's behavior toward the supervisor. One way in which subordinates can reciprocate for support from the supervisor is through OCB directed at the

supervisor. This is because supervisor-directed OCB will make the supervisor's job easier by preventing minor disruptions and by giving him or her time to focus on major problems. High LMX is a social exchange relationship and OCB is an appropriate currency for exchange because it is not strictly specified, measured, or formally rewarded (Settoon, et al. 1996). Studies have shown a positive relationship between high quality LMX and supervisor directed OCB (Masterson et al. 2000; Settoon et al. 2000). Thus, based on the above discussion and empirical findings it can be hypothesized that:

> *Hypothesis 2:   LMX will be positively related to supervisor-directed OCB.*

The above discussion also suggests that POS, rather than LMX, will be more strongly related to organization-directed OCB, and LMX, rather than POS, will be more strongly related to supervisor-directed OCB. Although this hypothesis has not been tested so far, the pattern of relationships found in a number of studies support this contention. For example, in the Masterson et al. (2000) study, the correlations of POS and LMX to organization-directed OCB were .46 (p<.05) and .27 (p<.05) respectively. Similarly, the correlations of LMX and POS to supervisor-directed OCB were .27 (p<.05) and .10 (n.s.) respectively. In the Settoon et al. (1996) study, only supervisor-directed OCB was measured. In this study, the loyalty, respect, contribution, and affect dimensions of LMX were strongly positively related to supervisor-directed OCB, while the correlation for POS was non-significant. Finally, in the study by Moorman, Blakely and Niehoff (1998), among the different dimensions of OCB studied, loyal boosterism had the strongest relationship to POS. Loyal boosterism is very similar to organization-directed OCB. Thus it can be hypothesized that:

> *Hypothesis 3a: POS, rather than LMX, will have a stronger positive relationship to organization-directed OCB.*

> *Hypothesis 3b: LMX, rather than POS, will have a stronger positive relationship to supervisor-directed OCB.*

METHODS

Sample and data collection

The sample consisted of employed graduate and undergraduate business students from two universities in the northeastern part of United States. Data were collected from working students, because this population represents a wide range of occupations, organizations, and hierarchical levels, thus enhancing the generalizability of the findings.

Surveys were administered to the subjects during class with the permission of the instructor. Data collection was done during the summer and fall semesters of 1999. Participation in the survey

was voluntary. Instructors were requested to give extra credit to the students who participated in the survey and many instructors agreed to do so. The survey consisted of two parts, part one (employee survey) and part two (supervisor survey). One part (part one or part two) was completed by the student and returned to the researcher. The other part was completed by the immediate supervisor of the respondent (when the student was the employee) or by subordinates (when the student was the supervisor). When the student was a supervisor, he or she was asked to give the employee survey to two employees, one whom he or she considered to be a good organizational citizen and the other whom he or she considered to be a not so good organizational citizen. Good organizational citizens were described as "employees who went above and beyond the call of duty." Examples of good organizational citizenship were also provided. The supervisor or the employee completed their part and mailed them directly to the researcher. Addressed and stamped envelopes were provided for this purpose. The two parts of the survey had a common serial number, which was used to match the employee and the supervisor parts of the survey.

A total of 357 surveys were administered. The response rate was 43.98%, and 157, matched employee-supervisor surveys were returned. Missing values reduced the effective sample size for statistical analysis to as low as 148. Twenty-three supervisor surveys did not have matching employee surveys. Data from these surveys were also used in the factor analysis of the OCB scale. Addition of this data enlarged the potential sample size for the factor analysis to 180.

Measures

Perceived organizational support was measured with 6 items from the short version of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS; Eisenberger et al. 1986; Eisenberger et al. 1990). The items used were, "the organization shows very little concern for me; even if I did the very best job possible, the organization would fail to notice; the organization cares about my opinions; the organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work; the organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability; help is available from the organization when I have a problem." The responses ranged from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (7).

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) was measured with the 3-item contribution sub-scale of the LMX measure developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998). The Liden and Maslyn measure has four sub-scales measuring the affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect dimensions of LMX. Only the "contribution" sub-scale was used in this study. The "contribution" dimension is defined as "perception of the current level of work-oriented activity each member puts forth toward the mutual goals (explicit or implicit) of the dyad. Important in the evaluation of work-oriented activity is the extent to which the subordinate member of the dyad handles responsibility and completes tasks that extend beyond the job description and/or employment contract; and likewise the extent to which the supervisor provides resources and opportunities for such activity" (50, Liden, & Maslyn, 1998). Since the "contribution" dimension attempts to capture social exchange relationship based on work related contributions, it is the dimension of LMX most likely to be strongly related

supervisor-directed OCB. A sample item is "I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor." The responses ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Organization-directed OCB was measured with 4 items. Three items were taken from the loyal boosterism sub-scale of the OCB scale developed by Moorman and Blakely (1992). These items were: "defends the organization when other employees criticize it; shows pride when representing the organization in public; actively promotes the organization's products and services to potential users." One item ("attends functions that are not required but that help the organization's image") was taken from the civic virtue sub-scale of the OCB scale developed by MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter (1991). Responses ranged from "never true" (1) to "always true" (5). All four items were chosen because the unambiguous primary beneficiary of these behaviors was the organization.

Supervisor-directed OCB was measured with six items. Three items were selected from the functional participation sub-scale of the OCB scale developed by Van Dyne, Graham, Dienesch (1994). These items were: "avoids extra duties and responsibilities at work; does work beyond what is required; volunteers for overtime work when needed." One item ("assists supervisor with his or her work when not asked") was taken from the OCBI sub-scale of the OCB scale developed by Williams, & Anderson (1991).   Two items were taken from the OCBO sub-scale of Williams and Anderson (1991). These items were: "adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order; does not complain about insignificant things at work." (e. g. "Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order"). The responses ranged from (1) "never true" to "always true" (5). Again the items were chosen because the primary beneficiary of the behaviors was the supervisor.

Statistical analysis

Since the organization directed OCB and supervisor directed OCB scales were made up of items from different OCB scales, it was necessary to confirm if the scale indeed measured two types of OCB. This was done through a principal components factor analysis with oblique rotation. Examination of the correlation matrix provided the test for the first two hypotheses. The Z test procedure proposed by McNemar (1969) was used to test the third hypothesis.

RESULTS

Out of the 157 employee respondents, 49.68% were females, 50.32% were males, 38% were graduate students, and 7.05% were union members. Most of them were employed full-time (93.59%) and 29.49% had supervisory responsibilities. The average tenure was 4.503 years (SD = 4.921). Almost ninety-five percent (94.9%) were between the ages of 20 and 49 years. The major industries represented in the sample were, healthcare (13.4%), banking/finance (14.6%), and other (48.4%). The major job categories represented in the sample were, professional (34.4%), office/clerical (15.3%), technical (12.1%), and management (12.1%).

Females constituted 46.11% (53.89% males) of the supervisory sample. The average tenure of the supervisors was 6.994 years (SD = 6.983). More than eighty percent (82.1%) reported their level of formal education as an undergraduate degree or graduate school. Almost ninety percent (90.5%) were between 20 and 49 years of age.

Results of the factor analysis are shown in Table 1. As expected, two factors with eigenvalues greater than one emerged. The 6 items measuring supervisor-directed OCB loaded on the first factor and the 4 items measuring organization-directed OCB loaded on the second factor. All loadings were above .5, with no cross loadings. The two factors together explained 57.79% of the variance in the items.

Table 1: Results of Factor Analysis of OCB Scale Oblique Rotation (N=167)		
Item	OCBS	OCBO
1. Defends the organization when other employee criticize it	.0007	.8020
2. Show pride when representing the organization in public	.1770	.6740
3. Actively promotes organization's products and services to potential users	-.1650	.9190
4. Attends functions that are not required but help the organization's image	.0072	.6420
5. Avoids extra duties and responsibilities at work	.6340	-.0024
6. Does work beyond what is required	.8020	.0050
7. Volunteers for overtime work when needed	.7590	-.0019
8. Assists me with my work even when not asked	.7810	-.0032
9. Adheres of informal rules devised to maintain order	.7810	.0005
10. Does not complain about insignificant things at work	.6950	.0036
Initial Eigenvalues	4.301	1.478
Percentage of Variance explained	43.01	14.78
Cumulative Percentage	43.01	57.79

Table 2 shows the summary statistics and correlations. The scales had acceptable reliabilities. As hypothesized, POS was positively related to organization-directed OCB and LMX was positively related to supervisor-directed OCB. Thus, hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported. Testing hypothesis 3 required comparing the correlations of POS and LMX to organization- directed OCB and supervisor-directed OCB. The Z for the difference of the correlations between POS and organization-directed OCB and LMX and organization-directed OCB was .7556 (ns). The Z for the difference of correlations between LMX and supervisor-directed OCB and POS and supervisor-directed OCB was 2.5749 (p<.01). Thus, hypothesis 3 was partially supported. While POS, rather than LMX, was not more strongly correlated to organization-directed OCB, LMX, rather than POS, was more strongly correlated to supervisor-directed OCB.

S.No.	Variables	Mean	SD	N	1	2	3	4
	Table 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations							
1.	LMX	17.47	2.61	156	.653			
2.	POS	30.32	7.20	155	.125	.900		
3.	Organization-directed OCB	13.76	3.42	171	.138	.202*	.760	
4.	Supervisor-directed OCB	22.04	5.05	180	.337**	.073	.467**	.835
Reliabilities are on the diagonal. * p<.05 **p<.01								

DISCUSSION

In the recent past, there has been a trend in OCB literature to use social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to conceptualize categories of citizenship on the basis of beneficiaries of these behaviors (Kaufman, Stamper & Tesluk, 1999; Masterson et al. 2000). This line of research also suggests that different correlates will relate differentially to beneficiary based categories of organizational citizenship (Kaufman et al., 1999). This study replicated the findings of previous research that social exchange with the organization is positively related to actions that benefit the organization and that social exchange with the supervisor is positively related to actions that benefit the supervisor. More importantly, this study tested the differential relationship of social exchange with the organization (POS) and social exchange with the supervisor (LMX) to organization-directed and supervisor-directed OCB. The results of this study provided partial support for this hypothesis. POS, rather than LMX, was not more strongly related to organization-directed OCB. However, LMX, rather than POS, was more strongly related to supervisor-directed OCB.

The pattern of correlations of POS and LMX to organization-directed OCB was as expected. Correlation of POS to organization-directed OCB was .202 (p<.05) and the correlation of LMX to organization-directed OCB was .138 (ns). However, the difference between the correlations was not significant. There are at least two reasons why this difference is not substantial. One reason is the way in which organization-directed OCB was operationalized in this study. Two out of the four items used ("shows pride when representing the organization in public" and "actively promotes organization's products and services to potential users") may refer to behaviors that the supervisors were not able to observe consistently. This may have made it difficult for supervisors to report on the frequency of these behaviors accurately. This in turn may have attenuated the relationship between POS and organization-directed OCB. A second reason may be the 'spillover' effect of POS on supervisor-directed OCB. Employees who have social exchange relationship with the organization may also reciprocate by engaging in supervisor-directed OCB to some extent. This is because helping the supervisor helps the organization indirectly. This may have attenuated the difference in the correlations between POS and organization-directed OCB and LMX and organization-directed OCB. This suggests that there is very little 'spillover' from LMX to

organization-directed OCB. In other words, employees who have social exchange relationship with the supervisor may not be motivated to engage in citizenship behaviors helpful to the organization. This study has a number of strengths that increases the internal and external validity of the results. First, the independent and dependent variables were measured from different sources. The independent variables were measured from employees and the dependent variables were measured from supervisors. This eliminates common method variance as an alternate explanation for the results. Second, the data was collected from a very diverse sample. A number of different organizations, occupations, and levels were represented in the sample. The sample consisted of union and non-union and part-time and full-time employees. This increases the generalizability of the results of the study. A third strength of the study was that the sample consisted of actual supervisor-employee dyads.

The primary limitation of the study is that it is correlational. Therefore, no causal claims can be made for the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. While, for instance, LMX, rather than POS, had a stronger positive relationship to supervisor-directed OCB, the study design does not permit the claim that LMX is a stronger cause of supervisor-directed OCB.

This study looked at social exchange with the organization and with the supervisor. Future research could look at social exchange with co-workers and its impact on co-worker directed OCB. Trust in supervisor (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994) is another variable that represents social exchange with the supervisor. Future research can test if trust in supervisor is a stronger predictor of supervisor-directed OCB than POS and vice-versa.

The findings of this study provide implications for practice. If organizations are interested in promoting supervisor directed OCB, as is often the case in work units with scarce resources and constant deadlines, managers must focus on improving the relationship between supervisors and employees. In such cases, training supervisors to increase the quality of their exchanges with employees may be useful.

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HUMOR AND LEADERSHIP

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ABSTRACT

Today's leaders, whether they are in business, education, the military, or in religious institutions, face a multitude of challenges to meet the mission of the organization. Keeping employee morale high, accomplishing the organizational goals, promoting teamwork and creating a workplace that is free from stress are at the forefront of the issues leaders face each day. Having a sense of humor—and knowing how and when to use it—can be a useful management tool to a leader.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to understand how military leaders from various organizational backgrounds, use humor to improve morale, accomplish organizational goals and objectives, promote teamwork, and relieve workplace stress.

Research questions to be answered within the main context of the study include:

a. *Can humor be used to improve a leadership style?*

b. *Is the use of humor more effective when it is deliberate or spontaneous?*

c. *How was the use of humor developed?*

d. *How does a leader know when to use humor?*

e. *Can the use of humor be learned or is it a gift that you either have or you do not have?*

This research paper will use grounded theory methods, as it will be dealing with how people act and react to the phenomenon of incorporating humor into a leader's leadership style. The collection of data through field interviews and the coding of the data received are useful in grounded theory studies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Humor Can Help Improve Morale: Fun and joy play an important role in the empowerment of employees. Organizations that do not provide an empowering environment can experience difficulty in motivating its employees (Miller, 1996). Miller also has noticed that organizations that

do not empower their employees also experience a lack of humor in the workplace. In organizations where humor is lacking Unland and Kleiner (1995) believe the basic skills of using humor can be taught if supported by management. Smith, Harrington, and Neck (2000) have concluded that not only is having a sense of humor important for managers, but also for each worker within the organization.

Humor Can Help Accomplish Organizational Goals and Promote Teamwork: Humor can help improve productivity and thus help accomplish an organization goal (Unland and Kleiner, 1995). Additionally, a leader's sense of humor will be indispensable when leading a project through its various stages especially in a team-project setting (Miller, 1996). Since most projects get bogged down at some point or encounter major obstacles, having a sense of humor allows the team to face these stopping points head-on and then move on. Miller believes that when humor is used effectively, creative problem solving can occur because the team members have developed a sense of trust that is often a by-product of skillful use of humor. Leaders, however, should be careful not to inject too much humor into the setting. Avolio, Howell and Sosik (1999) found that some employee's view the use of humor to be inconsistent with the seriousness of the issues being examined and, depending upon the circumstances, the inappropriate use of humor may have detracted from, rather than contributing to, the eventual outcomes. In some instances, Avolio et al. also believe the use of humor leads employees to view their leaders as insensitive to their needs. Sarcasm and ridicule do not have anything in common with humor according to Miller.

Humor Can Relieve Workplace Stress: Humor is a low-tech productivity booster that can be used to relax people and reduce their stress (Caudron, 1992). According to a survey developed by Accountemps, 96% of the executive surveyed believed that those with a sense of humor were better employees than those that had little or no sense of humor (Caudron, 1992). Smith et al. (2000), in their study of flight attendants, found that humor was an effective tool to reduce stress and conflict especially when the flight attendants were involved in situations where they shared basic demographic similarity (race and gender) with the person causing the stress and conflict. Miller reports that using humor releases certain chemicals in the human body that increases energy and helps develop a positive self-image which, in turn, opens doors to better relationships, increased productivity, and less stress. Miller further makes the case that in an age where continuous quality improvement has placed increased stress on each worker leaders must not hesitate to capitalize on the positive effects of having a good sense of humor in an effort to reduce stress on the job.

Smith et al. and Avolio et al. both conducted quantitative studies. Smith et al. focused their research on how gender and race affected resolving conflict with humor. They surveyed flight attendants from a large international airline based in the United States. Avolio et al. focused their research with trying to understand how humor affects leadership style with respect to individual and group-level performance. A large Canadian financial institution participated in their survey.

Neither study used qualitative methods although Avolio et al. indicated that additional studies that involved live observations would be useful. Likewise, Smith et al. ends their article by stating that additional research is needed that sheds light on who and under what circumstances is humor

used to resolve conflict. The current study will help to fill the research voids by utilizing qualitative research methods to address areas concerning the use of humor and how it can be used in an organization by its leaders.

METHODS

Sample: Three subjects were selected to participate in the study. All three have the following demographic characteristics in common:

Age:	30 to 60
Gender:	Male
Occupation:	All have served or are serving in the U.S. Armed Forces as commissioned officers.
Military Service Affiliation:	Marine Corps, Navy, Army
Education:	All have achieved at least a Bachelor's Degree.
Ethnicity:	All are Caucasian

The type of sampling technique was purposive. Criterion sample strategies were used, as all participants needed to have served in the military as a commissioned officer. The officers could either be currently serving on active duty or in a retired or reserve status. Leaders with known track records that had produced at least above average results in their careers were chosen to participate. Attempts were made to ensure that at least two branches of the military were represented in the sample so as to avoid any bias or familiarity that might be engendered by only using participants from one service.

Data Collection Methods: One-on-one interviews were conducted to gather data for this study. Each of the three participants was interviewed at their place of work. Follow-up interviews were not necessary; therefore, only one interview per participant was conducted. Each interview was audio-taped and transcribed in order to assist in the coding and evaluation stages of the data analysis.

Prior to each interview beginning a consent form was provided to the participant. Extra effort was put forth to ensure the subject understood the consent form and that each clearly understood that the interview would be audio-taped. Each participant freely agreed to participate and they did not express concern over the audio-taping. The attached interview questions (Appendix 1) were used as a guideline to conducting the interview. At times, these questions led to follow-on questions that arose out of the original questions.

The interviews took place in quiet conference rooms that were available at the work sight of each participant. A brief background on the study was provided in order to give the participants an idea of what the study was about and how their cooperation would help in developing research and

theory about humor and its use in a leader's leadership style. Before each interview, audio-recording equipment was tested to ensure it was placed at a proper distance that would enable it to clearly record the voices of both the subject and the interviewer. Back-up batteries and cassette tapes were on hand as well. After each interview, the cassette tapes were labeled with all appropriate markings to ensure each tape could be correctly identified during the data analysis phase. During the interviews, notes were occasionally taken by the interviewer in order to highlight statements made during the process; however, these were used only when major points were being made.

ANALYSIS STRATEGY

The first step of the analysis strategy included ensuring each of the three interview transcripts and/or audiotapes were reviewed and analyzed for the purpose of conducting open coding, a technique used often in grounded theory studies.

After each interview, open coding was used to help identify themes that could be later used when axial coding techniques were applied across all three interviews. Interview #1 yielded 20 potential open codes; interview #2 yielded 27 potential open codes, while interview #3 yielded 20 codes. With 67 potential codes, it was obvious that it would be necessary to consolidate these codes in the hope that overall themes could be developed and that the research questions might somehow be answered. In fact, the consolidation/regrouping of this large number of codes did reduce the number of codes from 67 to ten that were common across all three interviews.

The ten main themes that evolved from the open coding are as follows: (1) when to use humor; (2) when not to use humor; (3) humor is best when deliberate; (4) when the use of humor flows naturally, it is most effective; (5) humor can facilitate the effectiveness of a leader; (6) there is agreement on humor sources; (7) knowing the "boundaries" of using humor; (8) humor can increase morale; (9) mentoring plays an important part in developing a leader's sense of humor, and (10) formal humor training or instruction is not used.

Using axial coding methods, each of the ten main themes were broken down and analyzed. The following short paragraphs provide examples of the results the axial coding yielded. First, the theme "when to use humor." All three subjects stated they used humor when preparing speeches, short presentations and in meetings. Subject #3 said, "I use humor on a daily basis, but especially when starting a staff meeting as it helps to ease the tension and get us started." Subject #1 stated, "I use humor when I have to give some sort of talk as it seems to put people at ease and relaxes the atmosphere." Subject #2 states, "I used humor a lot in prepared talks or speeches, or after dinner type things. I integrated humor into the presentation."

The second main theme that developed was the concept of "when NOT to use humor." Subject #3 stated, "Do not use humor in a hostile environment. First stop the hostilities and once it is over, it might be okay to use humor as post-script, but not until things have calmed down." Subject #2 described a situation when he deliberately decided not to use humor. He said, "Occasionally, it was a very tense situation and I chose not to use humor. I wanted the situation to develop because

I'm a firm believer that you grow under stress. Sometimes you just want people to sweat it out a little bit and you choose not to diffuse it." Subject #1 stated he couldn't recall using humor to diffuse a tense or hostile situation.

Humor is best when it is used deliberately, the third theme that evolved, and it was often discussed during the interviews. Subject #1, stated that for them, humor doesn't come naturally, so "it is incorporated deliberately." For subject #2, he stated that he makes up about 10 percent of the humor he uses and then gets the remainder of his resources from friends who send him funny email jokes, or from what he reads in magazines, books, and articles from the Reader's Digest (the Humor in Uniform section.) Subject #2 he stated, "Humor is like anything else, it has to have its right time and place. Most people have to plan for humor otherwise it could backfire. For me, as an example, I don't consider myself a humorous person. I have to plan and look for opportunities for that; it doesn't come naturally for me."

The fourth theme, when humor flows naturally it is most effective, may seem to be contradictive to the previous main theme. I do not think this is the case. Subjects stressed that the use of humor is most effective when it is deliberate, but are able to use that deliberate study of humor in a natural way, according to their personality type. A statement subject #2 made concerning a general/flag officer he worked for which best explains this. He described the general as a very sober minded person and he was not a humorous person. But, the general saw the value of humor and so he memorized a number of Yogi Berra statements and sprinkled them in through out his discussions. The more the general did this, subject #2 explained, the more they became a part of his leadership style. He said, "An outsider who was not around him often would get the impression that he was a very humorous person. It was something he had learned and really had to work on." Subject #3 states that he has seen many junior officers try to use humor and pass themselves off as the "class clowns" and, unfortunately, he said, they were taken less serious because they tried to be funny when they did not have a clue as to what was going on. Had they developed a sense of humor as a natural part of their personality they would have been more successful. He continued, "It makes you seem less serious."

Humor can facilitate the effectiveness of a leader as affirmed by several statements by subject #1. He states that he has seen humor used effectively by his superiors and admired their effective use of it. "Humor helps put juniors at ease when they see a supervisor using it." Subject #1 continues by saying, "Without humor, a leader is not as effective as it reduces a person's charisma." Subject #3 stated, "Marines are known for their discipline. We have a lot of tension and formality; humor helps ease some of the tension." But he quickly adds that an effective leader must use humor as his personality fits him. "You must be yourself," he states. Subject #2 had statements that would agree with the other two subjects. He stated that humor was so important to the effectiveness of his unit that when in command situations he would write down his thoughts about the use of humor. He stated, "I would sit down and write out my philosophy of leadership. One of the things that I would indicate is that I enjoy humor. I think sometimes we can become too serious about our business and not add much humor." During another series of questions, subject #2 added, "If humor supports

improved effectiveness, efficiency and results, then great. There are other ways maybe to get at the same thing without humor."

A common resource for obtaining humor was noted. All three mentioned they read magazines or various periodicals for material they might use in humorous situations. The Internet was also mentioned as a source where a large amount of material was offered. It was remarked that in today's environment, a joke or funny story could be around the world in only a matter of minutes. Subject #1 said that he often practiced jokes and funny stories to use so that when and if an occasion arose that the humor might be appropriate, he would be ready.

Humor can increase morale, a theme that was mentioned on several occasions. Subject #1 stated that when people get together and laugh, it creates a camaraderie that is special. He described it as a "common bond" and that it "opened lines of communication" that previously were closed. Subject #2 said, "Humor and enjoyment of a job are not equal, but I think humor can help you enjoy your job." "Makes it less serious," he added. Subject #3 was direct and to the point when he said, "The use of humor increases morale."

Another commonality between all three military officers was the mentioning of having a mentor to look at to help them understand how and when to use humor. Each looked at a senior officer and saw various aspects of that person's personality and use of humor that made them a pleasure to work for. Subject #3 looks to his current boss and past bosses when thinking on how he himself might use humor. He also states that it is important to have a source whereby feedback on how a person's leadership style is being perceived by both those above and below him in the chain of command. Previously mentioned by subject #2, was the example of the general who used Yogi Berra statements and how the use of those statements serves as a mentoring source for him. He also reminisces about a former boss he had. He states, "He just had the knack of being able to say the funny thing at the right time."

Again, all three were adamant that through the use of mentors, studying and searching for humorous material and incorporating the use of humor in their natural delivery and style they could become more effective leaders. No one had ever used a humor consultant or taken any formal training on developing humor as an element of their leadership style. Typical of the subject's reaction to the idea of formal training was a statement made by subject #2. When asked if he would use a humor consultant or advocated formal budgeting for humor training he quipped, "No, I don't think so. I'd probably laugh at the suggestion of something like that and say 'that's really funny,' we don't need it."

THEORY DEVELOPMENT

The major theory that has evolved from this study concerns the incorporation of the use of humor in a naturalistic process. The underlying theme throughout the study was to let natural personality traits come through and through the deliberate study and use of humor, allow the use of humor to be used when appropriate. Subject #2 brings this to light when he stated, "If there is a

serious situation and this person is making inappropriate attempts at being funny, his humor indicates he does understand the gravity of the situation. This could undermine morale and confidence of those that are about him." Subject #2 also discussed working with a general/flag officer that he characterized as not a humorous person; however, because the general used Yogi Berra statements in some of his discussions, he was perceived by outsiders from the organization as being a very humorous person. Subject #2 states, "It just almost comes second nature to them. They just saw the humor in a situation and could appreciate it, articulate it." To restate the theory, perhaps this wording helps to clarify: In order to make the use of humor appear a natural part of a leader's personality, humor must be deliberately learned. The "deliberate learning" of humor takes place in several fashions (but not through formal humor training and/or humor consultants) as evidenced by the following quotes: "The commanding officer used humor purposely, always making sure he had a joke ready before the meeting and if he didn't, he ensured someone else had one." (from subject #1); "Humor is plays an important role in a leadership style if it is part of the person's personality." (from subject #3); and (from subject #2) "I have to plan and look for opportunities for that (the use of humor), it doesn't come naturally to me."

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this research project are consistent with the literature in the field as it was demonstrated that the use of humor does help improve morale, help in the accomplishment of organizational goals, and relieve workplace stress. All three subjects provided examples of leaders (either themselves or others) that had improved their leadership style by incorporating humor as a part of their personality. While spontaneity wasn't specifically mentioned, all agreed that humor was more effective when it was deliberately learned and later put into practice so that it seemed a natural part of their personality. Concerning how the use of humor was developed, each cited a mentor that they admired and they had observed that deliberately used humor. Each used reference resources such as magazines, the Internet, books, humorous quotations, and other sources of jokes to enhance and initiate the deliberate learning process. No one believed the use of humor was a gift that you either had or did not have. Additionally, each leader had clear and definite ideas of knowing when NOT to use humor. Each worried about the inappropriate use of humor and how at times its use detracted from the seriousness of the situation.

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