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Competing Values in an Uncertain Environment: Managing the Paradox

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Edited by:

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Preface

The importance of work and organizational values has grown ever more important in recent years. In 2007 the global economy was in expansion mode and stock markets around the world were at record levels. In just two short years the world became a very different place economically and financially. We were in the midst of a major recession and businesses everywhere were cutting back and laying off employees. Former greats of high finance like Bear Stearns, Lehman Brothers, and Meryll Lynch were no more and, the world's largest automaker for decades, General Motors, filed for bankruptcy, struggling to reinvent itself as a drastically downsized version of its former self. Nobody knew for sure when the economy will turn around and anxious uncertainty was the order of the day. One could argue that many of these developments could be traced back to the shaky value foundations of these organizations and their leaders.

In such uncertain times, it is natural for organizations to be pulled in opposing directions by competing values. For example, on the one hand, short term survival pressures may call for drastic measures, such as closing down entire divisions and massive layoffs. Faced with an uncertain economic future, both individuals and organizations the world over, are cutting back and saving more. On the other hand, losing valuable human capital and a significant loss of morale and capacity will invariably be a competitive disadvantage when the economy turns around. This instinctual and seemingly logical response, paradoxically, can be ultimately detrimental to economic recovery and long term growth. Analysts are warning of the dangers of consumers cutting back spending and "saving too much". The environment of the future may require creativity and innovation which in turn require investment in R& D and human resources, yet the current crisis may call for cost-cutting measures.

Managing this paradox requires dealing with these competing values and calls for creative ways to balance short term demands with long term objectives. Resisting the instinct to cutback and consciously investing in the workforce during a downturn represents a value choice. Successful resolution of the values paradox might require creative responses that balance short term expediency with long term competitiveness. It was our hope that organizational researchers would rise to the challenge and engage in research that addresses this dilemma.

Researchers participating in ISSWOV 2010 have indeed risen to the challenge and have contributed a record number of papers to this volume. It has been a privilege for me to edit this volume and present to you a rich collection of papers that span a wide range of topics from ethics and trust to measurement and workplace safety. I hope you find this compendium of research to be worthwhile and rewarding.

Sanjay T. Menon — Shreveport, USA

Editor — June 9, 2010

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About ISSWOV

ISSWOV was founded in Budapest, 1988, by the participants of the first International Conference on Work Values initiated by Prof. Dov Elizur, an organizational psychologist from Israel, and Prof. Istvan Magyari-Beck, from the Budapest University of Economics. Prof. Elizur was nominated as the first ISSWOV president in Budapest, 1988. The organization aims to advance the study of work and organizational values and related aspects of the organization; to encourage the exchange of ideas and interaction among scholars engaged in the study of work and organizational values; to collect, generate, preserve, decipher, and disseminate data and information relating to work and organizational values, and to encourage and initiate publications concerning research on work and organizational values.

ISSWOV organizes an international conference every two years. The first international conference took place in June, 1988, in Budapest, Hungary. The subsequent international conferences were in Prague, Czech Republic (1990), Karlovy Vary, Czech Republic (1992), Barcelona, Spain (1994), Montreal, Canada (1996), Istanbul, Turkey (1998), Jerusalem, Israel (2000), Warsaw, Poland (2002), New Orleans, USA (2004), Tallinn, Estonia (2006), Singapore (2008). and Estoril-Lisbon, Portugal (2010).

The organization publishes an internal newsletter twice a year. Also, ISSWOV publishes the proceedings of the international conferences. It is affiliated with the International Journal of Cross Cultural Management.

The main countries which our 700 members come from are:

Argentina, Australia, Austria, Barbados, Belgium, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, China, Denmark, Estonia, Fiji, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Hong Kong, Hungary, India, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Malaysia, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Pakistan, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan, Ukraine, USA, Venezuela.

Chapter 1: Culture, Traditions and Diversity

Balancing between Traditions and Modernity: The Role of HR Professionals in the Transitory Economy of Pakistan

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Abstract

This paper aims to explore the role of HR professional in the transitory economy of Pakistan where US-American HRM practices are becoming increasingly popular. Empirically, this paper is based on an intensive case study of a local enterprise actively striving to participate in the global economy. This study has drawn three main conclusions: first, HR professionals face extreme pressure to accommodate particular employees in HR practices; second, HRM practices are used as strategies to diffuse this pressure; and third, locally trained HR managers are more successful in handling employee issues as compared to the foreign trained one. This paper highlights the significance of indigenous knowledge in successful handling of local workforce in Pakistan. It also contributes to the debate of national culture impact on management practices.

Introduction

Pakistan, like many other transitory economies, is adopting western management techniques (mainly originated from the USA) to perform better in the globalize market (Tayeb, 1995; Maripandar, 2005). However, these desired goals remained unmet until management especially HRM practices are redefined according to the local social moralities. In a study of HRM practices in Pakistan, Khilji (2003) highlights substantial micro and macro level adjustments in HR practices in local as well as foreign organizations working in Pakistan. Despite the argument that the national culture is no more relevant to the contemporary organizations due to global cultural forces (Appadurai, 1996; Lenartowicz and Roth, 2001; Khilji, 2004); various recent researches have reported the impact of national culture on human resource management practices (Ayacan, 2001; Budhwar and Debrah, 2008; Budhwar and Sparrow, 2002; Davila and Elvira, 2005; Jackson et al., 2008;Mariappanadar, 2005; Saini and Budhwar, 2004; Siengthai and Bechter, 2005; Wasti, 1998).

Consistent with this perspective, authors like Shaules (2007), on one hand, highlight the issue of cultural diversity in the contemporary world where as authors like Trompenaars (1997) and Adler (2002) on the other hand figure out the double edged pressures on the management to follow international standards of operations without loosing social moralities to motivate employees. This view is substantially applicable to the situations prevailing in Pakistan where no significant changes in the social norms have been witnessed despite almost two decades of economic deregulation (Khilji, 2003; Subohi, 2009). This setting has created a very complex situation for HR managers and professionals to execute HRM practices while dealing with Pakistanis socialized on the principles of collective self identity with in-group and out group behavioral assumptions, personal penetration and reciprocal obligation (Lyon, 2002). Despite the significance of this topic, research exploring the role of HR professionals in contemporary organizations so far has been very limited in the context of Pakistan. In view of the existing cleft, this paper explores the way HR professionals manage their career in the service sector

firms in Pakistan. In this regard, an in-depth study of HR practices in a local medical corporation had been conducted during the period of October 2004 - February 2007.During the field work, various research methods like in-depth interviews, key informants, case studies, and document analysis were used to explore that what happens when HR concepts and practices are executed to organize Pakistani employees. How HR professionals manage the conflicting demands posed by the management system, senior managers, colleagues, friends and relatives? What kind of HR managers prove to be successful to handle work force management issues and continue their career with this firm?

In line with this frame work, this paper, first of all provides a brief review of social values of Pakistani society as have been uncovered in various researches. The second section describes the research design whereas field data will be discussed and interpreted in the third section. The last section deals with discussion and conclusion.

Social values and HRM practices

The institution of family is considered as foundation stone of Pakistani society. It is rightly pointed out that the social system in Pakistan is 'family centered' (Khilji, 2004:142): and family patterns; its roles' assumptions and net works are explicitly reflected in almost all the other institutions of Pakistani society. Traditionally, as a member of joint and extended families, Pakistani are socialized among various categories of relatives and interaction takes place according to asymmetrical relations. Kids are trained to respond to kinship categories, rely on them and look at their individual self identity as a part of these kingship categories which further has a position within the extended/joint family system (Lyon, 2002). The eldest male being the head of the family most of the time decides on the behalf of the whole family. However, a favorable decision can be attained with the help of someone who is quite close to him. For example if a son wants to marry a particular girl, he will use the link of his uncle/grandmother to convince him; and the boy in turn exhibits gratefulness as an expression of obedience to the person. This life style closely knits together the whole family besides contributing to the psychology of Pakistanis that problems can be solved with the help of somebody closely related to the decision maker. Pakistanis mostly prefer to interact within their familial networks, and intra-group relationships are preferred on inter- group interaction.

Nonetheless, when interaction with people beyond the kin becomes indispensable then family roles are transposed on these people for their social integration into the family (Lyon, 2002; Khilji, 2003). Consequently, non family interaction is also maintained on the embedded principles (intervention, indebtedness, loyalty and reciprocation) of kin relation. Pakistanis with this back ground when working in an impersonal management system, exhibit their general social traits and professional roles on assumptions and expectations of familial relations. In line with this general trend of Pakistani society, various employee groups based on familial net works (functioning on in group/out group assumption) can be witnessed in the organization. In a recent study of Human Resource Management practices in local and multinational organizations working in Pakistan, Khilji (2003) has unleashed the existence of this kind of familial networking among the workers & management and its fair impact on the human resource management practices of selection, promotion, better placement and compensation in Pakistan. A similar kind of situation is highlighted by Kanungo and Mendonca (1994) in Indian organization, where a self reinforcing circle prevails through which political and familial contacts influence selection, promotion and transfer practices. Sparrow and Budhwar (1997) have also highlighted the value of family and networking in

obtaining work, securing promotion and advancing pay in Indian organizations. Anyhow the deregulation of Indian economy and global linkages has brought about visible changes in the organizational structure and attitudes of management towards human resource policies and practices (Budhwar, 2001; Saini and Budhwar, 2004). Chatterjee (2007), however, has highlighted the impact of local socio-cultural phenomenon on managers when they are facing the complexities of global realities. A similar kind of prodigy is experienced by the management in Pakistan.

Research Design

As mentioned earlier, a case study approach is used and an extensive field work comprising of almost two and half years was conducted in a medical corporation located in the capital city of Pakistan. This organization was selected due to three main reasons. First, it was initiated in the early 1990s when the comprehensive program of de-regulation of Pakistani economy was launched in Pakistan (Asian Development Bank, 1999). Second, a functional HR department and execution of HR practices since 1994 has made this organisation an ideal field for this research. Third, its location in the capital city of Pakistan as a center of the power play makes it the most suitable locale to explore the topic at hand.

In the field, different research methods like in-depth interviews, key informants, case studies, and formal document analysis were used to acquire relevant data. Three types of key informants, managers, HR professionals and workers were randomly selected to get a 'holistic' perspective about the HRM practices in the organization. The selection of these key informants was mainly based on their interest in the research, willingness to provide information and availability. Sixty (60) face to face interviews were also conducted with equal number of male and female employees belonging to various levels and segments of the target organization. An interview guide was developed to acquire more focused and relevant data; probing technique was additionally incorporated for stimulating the respondent to produce more information. The length of interviewing varies from 35-55 minutes depending on the willingness of the respondent. It's important to identify here that the interviews were administered mainly in Urdu but later information was translated into English language. Case study method was also employed to gain an in depth understanding of prevailing situation in the firm. The cases were selected randomly on the basis of their relevance to the under studied issues besides the availability of information. Document analysis especially HR manual was additionally conducted to acquire data about the HR rules &regulation and official stance of the management on various aspects of organizational issues.

Research Result

Brief history of the firm

On June 26, 1993, the organization was launched with a team of professionals and employees who maintained direct and indirect relationship with the founding members & with each other. In 1994, HRM policy was introduced in the firm to effectively cope with the demands of changing market besides addressing the various prevailing problems of workforce management. The field data clearly depicted the resistance of the workers and managers/supervisors to the new system as it was directly in conflict with the established ways of personalized management. Consequently, lots of pressure was experienced at all the

levels of the management; however, it was extremely witnessed on operational managers and HR professionals who would have to practically handle the human resource for achieving good performance. In this situation, these operational managers played the role of moderators who followed impersonal policy rules while assuming the model of father or elder brother to fulfill the official requirements without de-motivating their workers. This phenomenon promoted a paternalistic management style in the organization where workers preferred to relate themselves to some authority figure and would depend on him for their professional survival and growth. The supervisors in turn gratified their subordinates through personal considerations and support in professional as well as personal domains.

HR Professionals and HR Management Practices

In this prevailing management style, HR professionals faced lots of pressure from the senior management, their colleagues in various departments, workers and their relatives/friends to extend favors to particular applicants/employees during various operations of human resource management. The field data has revealed that the HR professionals only resisted in case if there were some serious gaps between the policy rules and the profile of applicant; otherwise favors were granted to the recommended applicants/employees. The use of references (recommendation of a resourceful person) to settle down an issue is a common trend in Pakistani society, and almost all the managers as well as employees in the organization were accustomed to it. It is so common that if a person shows indifference to this phenomenon, she/he is considered unusual or abnormal.

It was witnessed during the field work that the use of reference (personal recommendations) and personal penetration (identification of a relevant person in the decision making process and finding a reference to use him/her for getting a favorable decision) was common feature of the prevailing organizational culture, though the management was trying really hard to regulate their influence. Anyhow at the time of this research, a fair impact of these cultural patterns (personal penetration and reference) on management decisions and HR processes was witnessed. According to a senior HR professional while discussing his true role in the department, "our role is not to control references and follow strict policy but we are here to regulate references through appropriate interpretation of policy for managing pressures especially on selection". Other than confirming the fair role of references in HR practices, this stance highlights two main points. First, HR professional's role in the firm is to legally accommodate these references; and second, the highest level of reference pressure was experienced during the selection process. Actually the way a person was inducted fairly determined the other processes of HR management for example job evaluation, transfer, and promotion. In line with this perspective, the HR assistant manager figured out, "we are here to make ways for systematic adjustment of the references." He further explained that the basic criteria of specific qualifications, written test and panel interview were used for almost all the regular jobs which helped them to maintain minimum standard besides saving the HR professionals and the organization from reciprocal grievances. These grievances came from applicants/employees/their social circles who could not be accommodated in the HRM practices. Nonetheless it is witnessed in the field that HR professionals' could not always protect themselves from the negative implication of denying a recommendation especially in a situation when the candidate's reference was at an influential position in the organization. In this situation, the HR manager was directly approached by the particular source to hire the person for a vacancy. Usually, the candidate was selected but in case of some serious deficiencies in professional skills essentially required to perform a technical job, then the applicant was not recommended. It was witnessed during the field work that HR

professionals, in such a situation, had to face serious implications, because they did not only challenge the established system of authority but also denied the indigenous morality of "*Mang*" (extending the requested services/things).

This state of affairs was closely observed by the researcher during the field work when the COO (the chief operating officer) referred a person from his social circle to the HR assistant manager. But the person could not be inducted as the lady supervisor of the HRD section did not find him fit for the job. The COO was very annoyed and reciprocated the lady supervisor during the annual compensation process; however it was witnessed that despite his authority the COO could not exploit the HR professional akin to what happen in public sector organization as mentioned by Abbassi (2010). Nevertheless, it remained a fact that the lady HR professional was punished for sticking to the policy rules and not extending favors to the referred person of the COO. Similarly, colleagues, juniors, friends, and even family members criticized HR professionals when they could not extend any relaxation to them or their recommended person due to the official limitations. The field data unraveled the sandwich position of the HR professionals; and they were witnessed to contextually interpret HR policies for coping up with conflicting demands of diverse and changing situations/cases. According to Trompenaars (1997), it is very important to successfully run the business as foreign policy rule cannot provide suitable solution for the local problem (p.3). In consistent with this perspective, the field data has revealed that the HR manager who accommodated the local trends while following diffused HR practices could achieve both personal and professional targets in the firm as compared to those who just followed the impersonal US-American management practices. This point can be explained with the help of cases discussed in the upcoming paragraphs.

Case 1: Foreign Qualified HR manager and Career Issues

Rehman Chaudhry, (36 years), did his MS degree in HRM from Sydney, Australia. He worked very hard to develop HR manual and established HR department in the firm. His diligent performance and down-to-earth attitude was greatly appreciated at all levels. However, his personality always remained under criticism due to his inflexible attitude regarding the execution of impersonal HR practices. Mr. Chaudhry actually believed in the complete execution of impersonal HR practices for the effective management of human resources and achievement of organizational goals. Therefore, he strongly curbed requests & efforts to influence impersonal HRM practices. His lack of flexibility sometimes created serious problems for the senior management. The chief executive officer liked him for his professional strength and wanted him to continue his career with the firm. Though, the number of complaints regarding the employee issues was increasing day by day. Employee trainings and workshops were consciously conducted at all levels to handle the rift and normalize the situation. But on the contrary, the employee dropout rate increased up to an alarming level.

When the new Chief Operating Officer (COO) obtained the charge of the firm in 2005, he took this issue as a challenge and after keen observation recommended the hiring of new HR manager. This proposal was highly supported by other managers, who were facing employee problems in their department and had developed grievances against Mr. Rehman due to his inflexible attitude. Everybody in the organization believed in his mastery and skill in the field of human resource management but at the same time everyone showed discontent on the HR

practices and alarming turnover rate. Finally, Rehman presented his resignation to COO which was accepted with a little inhibition.

Case 2: Moderate Approach and Career Success

Ahmad Ali, (28 years), rehired on the post of associate HR manager on the resignation of Mr. Rehman. He had four years of previous work experience with the firm. His first hiring with this firm was as an administrative secretary in 2002. At that time, he had a bachelor's (14 years of education) degree. He worked very hard on this post for two years and with his respectful attitude and performance earned seniors' acknowledgement. During this period, he also secured masters' degree (composite) in communication. Considering his qualification and good performance, he was promoted and transferred to the department of human resource management as junior supervisor human resource. He worked on this post for two years and later joined a Chinese company after a friendly release from the firm.

At the resignation of Mr. Rehman, he was offered to join the firm on the post of associate HR manager. In his first meeting with staff, he declared flexibility and consideration as the key principles of HR department. He believed that the role of HR department and professional is to channalize things and add efficiency to the processes rather than jamming the system. He surely believed in change but he was more in favour of evolutionary change, especially if this change is introduced into a corporation where achieving the targets are more important than bringing the change. This he learnt from his practical experience with commercial organisation working in Pakistani market; he did not have a foreign qualification but his approach proved to be more reasonable and result oriented. He knew the practical wisdom of social networking and reciprocal obligation to attain dedicated performance and organisational loyalty as he himself was an active member of this system. He experienced that the moral obligations prevailing between the worker and senior/supervisor/manager within the limit of rules and regulations (moderate obligations) were very effective for performance management. With this approach, he guided his staff and gave them his confidence to facilitate everybody within the limits of rules and regulation. In order to handle the issue of turnover, HR team under his guidance developed the revised salary package which was approved and launched by the management. The change at HR department normalized the employees' situation in the firm and he was rightly compensated.

Discussion and Conclusion

Evidences from the firm have already shown that despite the execution of HRM policy since 1994, there is fair impact of personal recommendations and personal penetration on prevailing practices of workforce management. The field data has also revealed that the standardized HR practices are directly in conflict with the prevailing social system based on in-group/out group assumptions. There is sufficient evidence in the field data to show that employee problems have increased in the firm when conscious efforts were made to follow the impersonal HR policy. In line with this perspective, one can understand the reasons due to which foreign trained HR manager got flop in the firmand comparatively less qualified human resource manager could successfully continue his career with it. Contrary to the foreign qualified managers, locally qualified HR managers with the know-how of the local system and indigenous wisdom can

better understand the problems and aspirations of Pakistani workforce; thus can successfully handle Pakistani workforce while sustaining their career with the firm.

There is also satisfactory evidence available in the field data to establish that human resource management practices were used as tools to maintain the minimum criteria and diffuse the grievance of the employees/ their network. Actually various employees networks exist in the organization who wanted to be supported in HR practices but could not bear the same for others. The role of HR professionals is very difficult and stressful as they face conflicting expectations and demands from their seniors, colleagues, juniors, family members and even friends. For example the senior management insists to follow rules and does not extend favor to anyone but on another time they (the senior managers) ask them to give relaxation to someone from their own social circle. Consistently the other colleagues expect support and favor from HR professionals but criticize them when someone else gets any relaxation. The HR professionals are aware of the prevailing situation and accepted that influence of the social networks and personal penetration cannot be completely eliminated; however it can be to some extent controlled. Most of the HR professionals believe that they owe the role of moderators who will have to adjust the personal influences within the policy frame work. In a nutshell, fair impact of national cultural forces is witnessed on the HR practice in the firm.

This study has several limitations, so caution is required while generalizing the findings to other Pakistani organization. First, the basic limitation includes the general requirement of vigilance for the case studies approach. Second, the focus on the qualitative data and lack of quantitative data becomes another limitation of this study. Therefore the results developed through qualitative research methods for example participant observation, in-depth interviews, key informants and case study method. Furthermore, it should be noticed that the target firm belongs to service sectors and does not involve production activities. Surely the practices in a production sector organisation could be different. Similarly the location of the organization in the capital city of Pakistan has given way to the highest frequency of work force diversity in the organisation which could be somewhat different in the local organization working in the other cities of Pakistan. Anyway, this study can provide useful insights both for researchers and practitioners specifically in the absence of any study revealing the role of HR professionals in Pakistan.

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Astonishing Findings in the Dismissal of Turkish Workers – A Field Report

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Abstract

A service provider for logistic solutions decided to dismiss seventeen industrial employees. Fourteen of them were Turkish. All of them resisted against this enforced redundancy. Unfortunately, for the company, the employees won their judicial proceedings in the first instance. If the company would appeal against this judgment (the second instance), it was possible that the employees win this appeal as well. One consequence is that the company could be forced to employ them again. But, because of the lack of work, the company would have too many employees. The situation changed, as the company focused efforts on the relationship to the employees. The respect to ethical values, familiy forces and other characteristics of Turkish culture caused, that this eventuality failed to appear.

Introduction

The enterprise about whose experiences is reported here is active in the service sector, it concerns a logistics enterprise. In the location itself this enterprise in the commercial area has approx. 70 predominantly Turkish-born employees. These employees come either directly from Turkey, or have grown up as the second generation in Germany. They have acquired, in the meantime, a long enterprise affiliation and work reliably. The main activity of these employees consists in loading truck and in unloading, in storing the unloaded goods as well as infilling the goods in other bundles and in making ready for transport. With the goods it concerns chemicals which are either solid state-shaped or liquid; the goods are liable to security regulations for danger material and the danger good order and require a circumspect treatment.

At the end of 2008 the shops developed in the face of the general world-economic situation falling. The existing storage capacities were used first by the customers in a high magnitude, indeed, the movement of the goods was missing. It was a matter for the top management of interpreting the signals in the market properly and of drawing from it the necessary conclusions. An hourly contingent of 134 man's hours / days which stood as an overcapacity to the disposal was identified in case of conservative consideration. Because this overcapacity could not be also used to capacity in the long term there again, the top management decided to carry out a staff reduction by the height of exactly this hourly contingent. Because of the distribution of the nationality in the commercial area primarily Turkish employees were concerned by the notice.

Specific feature of Turkish employees in Germany

Characteristically for Turkish employees of the first and second migrant's generation in Germany, are the following aspects: a bad education at school, nearly no professional training as well as a defective speech of the German. Whether the linguistic understanding feels well or not, there cannot be judged at this point; at least it is necessary to pull there interpreter with more complicated material behaviour to guarantee the understanding.

Because of the bad education degree of these employees merely ways remain to them in enterprises in which a high division of labour and a low specialisation depth are necessary, so that training is slightly possible in a short time. Usual proofs it concerns with the acquired activities work which are paid in comparison to other activities low.

Formal conditions before the notice of employees in Germany

The labour legislation in Germany is very extensive and multi-layered interpretable. A distinctionisdrawnbetween different reasons, why staff should be reduced: behavioral-conditioned reasons, person conditioned reasons and company-conditioned reasons. In Germany the staff reduction follows labour law in the following steps:

1) Information of the works committee (provided that in the enterprise available)
2) Identification of the employees to be diminished
3) Hearing of the works committee
4) Remark of the notice
5) Realisation of the winding up of the employer-employee relationship.

Without wanting to come on the specific features of such an action, a few general explanations are permitted here.

Employees are protected by the protection against unlawful dismissal law. Hence, the observance of this formal way is necessary compelling, because it is checked in the case of a judicial discussion first whether the notice itself has correctly run off formally. In the enterprises in which there is a works committee this must be informed first and then be belonged – according to the company constitution law notices are liable to co-determination. In the hearing of the works committee the employer must demonstrate, why to employees should be discontinued and why he wants to give notice just to these special employees. In addition there is a jurisdiction after which it first must be checked in the enterprise whether there are comparable free places which must be offered to the employees, before one gives notice to them.

Then, if there are no free places, the company has to select the employees after the rules of so-called social points. The less social points an employee has, the lighter he can be threatened by the notice. For the assignment of the social points decisive criteria are: Age, duration of the affiliation to the enterprise, marital status, number of the children liable to maintenance and degree of the treacly impediment. This means: the older an employee is, the longer he works in the enterprise and the more children he has, the less he is threatened by a notice (unless, the whole enterprise is closed).

Approach of employees in the case of a notice

The employees whom has been discontinued go first to a lawyer for a consulting how they should further go forward. In case of the notice is not lawful the employer is forced to reinstate them in her old job. To keep open this possibility to themselves, discontinued employees insert as a rule a so-called protection against unlawful dismissal complaint. For this procedure they have 3 weeks time after remark of the notice. As a function of the enterprise affiliation the employer-employee relationship ends only after a legally agreed term

of one up to several months. Till then the employer must occupy the discontinued employee even further, and the employee must still come further to the work. The protection against unlawful dismissal law regulates this case. Thus, for example, the legal term of notice amounts for this employee with an enterprise affiliation of 15 years exactly 5 months. Only then this employee is jobless.

A discontinued jobless employee ordinarily gets unemployed person's money normally for a period from up to 12 months in Germany. Condition for it is that he can prove compared with the labour office that he has fought after the notice for his job – and he documents this best of all with a complaint on reinstatement before the labour court against his old employer. Unless he has not inserted protection against his dismissal, he gets of the labour office which is responsible for the payment of the unemployment benefit no unemployment benefit for 3 months. From there a certain compulsion insists on inserting a protection against unlawful dismissal complaint.

The juridical discussion runs off as follows:

1. Protection against unlawful dismissal of the employee by a lawyer.
2. Goodness appointment in court (it is checked whether the formal aspects are fulfilled and whether the parties are able to accept an amount of money as a compensation).
3. In case of non-arrangement: the so-called chamber appointment takes place. Here the legal situation is demonstrated from the point of the parties and is checked once more whether an arrangement can be achieved. If this is not the case at the end of the chamber appointment a judgment follows.
4. After the announcement of the judgment the parties have the possibility to go to the appeal. In the afterwards higher authority a judgment is spoken once more when an arrangement cannot occur. This judgment is, nevertheless, obligatorily and cannot be contested (only in few special cases).

The process risk from the point of view of the employer

The problem with such a juridical discussion is the temporal aspect and the process risk. An example may make clear what is meant:

Accepted, an employee earns 1000 Euros in the month and is discontinued with a term of 3 months at the month end, then he will strive immediately a protection against unlawful dismissal. This complaint will be given 3 weeks later at the court, and then is blocked to the parties. Besides, the court fixes the time of the goodness appointment. This can lie, e.g., 2 months after end of the working relation (according to notice writing by the employer). In the goodness appointment no arrangement takes place – the court fixes the chamber appointment; this can lie 6 months after the goodness appointment – according to extent of utilisation of the court. If the employer loses the chamber appointment, he must wait for the judicial judgment and his justification, and this can last up to 5 months after the goodness appointment. In the meantime, have already passed 7 months after ending of the employer-employee relationship.

Within one month after announcement of the judgment from the chamber appointment it must be decided whether the party inferior in the chamber appointment liked to go to the second authority. Then the court fixes the appointment of the second procedure and speaks when the parties cannot agree yet, a judgement which can be given up to 6 months after carried out negotiations with his justification. Meanwhile have passed 14 months after the remark of the notice. If the employer is defeated then, he must employ the employee again and, besides, he

must satisfy the time of the last working day of the employee according to the notice writing up to the reinstatement financially. He must pay extra - in our example 14 month salaries.

If we remain in our example, such a lost proceeding 14 month salaries (14.000 Euro) costs the employer, in addition the costs come for own lawyer for 3 negotiations (in our example approx. 5.000 Euro) plus the costs for the lawyer of the employee from the last court appointment of approx. 2.000 Euro (in the second court appointment the inferior party carries the total expenses of the procedure). This means: An employee who earns 1Teuro in the month can do a financial harm of 20.000 Euro to an enterprise and must be employed again. For this reason employers try to reduce this risk and strive to pay as early as possible compensations with which the loss of the working place should be satisfied.

Company-conditioned notices – the present situation

After the number of the employees to be discontinued was defined, the works committee was informed, and the employees were listed with him on top appealed to social points. The social point respect the following key:

Spouse: 8 points

Child: 4 points

Affiliation: till 10 years 1 point, afterwards year 2 points until with the 55th year

Age: year 1 point up to 55 points

Besides, the following survey for the employees to be discontinued (n=17):

Figure 1: Discontinued employees, broken down after social points

No.	Entry	Affiliation	Year of birth	Age	Marital status	Children	Social points
1	2000	8	1978	30	0	1	**39**
2	1989	19	1972	36	0	0	**48**
3	2001	7	1965	43	8	0	**58**
4	1996	12	1964	44	0	0	**58**
5	1993	15	1968	40	0	1	**64**
6	1998	10	1965	43	8	1	**65**
7	2003	5	1968	40	8	3	**65**
8	1999	9	1959	49	8	0	**66**
9	2000	8	1964	44	8	2	**68**
10	1994	14	1970	38	8	2	**70**
11	1994	14	1971	37	8	3	**71**
12	1995	13	1967	41	8	2	**73**
13	1992	16	1969	39	8	3	**77**
14	1994	14	1961	47	8	3	**85**
15	1991	17	1967	41	8	3	**85**
16	1990	18	1961	47	8	1	**85**
17	1994	14	1964	44	8	4	**86**

From these employees the first both employees were German employees, all other employees were Turkish employees.

The presentation of the notice writings happened on day at the month end. The notice was handed to the employees in written form in a face-to-face conversation beside the personnel manager of the enterprise and the works committee representative. To the employees became the reasons which had led to the notice explained; besides, the process was demonstrated to them after which the social points were awarded. Because of the migration background of the majority of the discontinued employees the notice was accompanied by a Turkish-born psychologist who interpreted the notice conversation as well. The conversations were carried on unemotional and essentially. The notice reasons were demonstrated, the juridical situation for the notice plan was explained.

Protection against unlawful dismissal complaints and lost processes

In de result the employees turned to a lawyer who represented her interests. As expected it came in the goodness appointments to no arrangement. In the chamber appointments a judgment which fell out in unfavours of the enterprise was spoken: the processes were lost.

There was a big irritation in the enterprise: the risk to lose also the processes in the afterwards higher authority was given. The menacing financial damage if all juridical processes got lost amounted to respected 65o TEuro. Because for these employees no more work was there, a renewed notice would have had to take place under changed signatures what would have led to a long continuing restructuring process with suitable financial strains and would have caused, moreover, a renewed juridical insecurity.

From the judicial conflict to the extrajudicial cooperation

Cultural specific features

What had we not understood? We have paid not enough attention to the cultural specific features of the discontinued employees. We have carried out the notices very rationally and have ignored the specific emotional features of these people. Also the turning on of the turquoise-born psychologist served afterwards rather to guaranteed the "right" translation and not to caught not in addition, the employees emotionally. We have ignored several aspects:

Turks are less ready to let impress from authorities. A reason for it are the experiences which these people make in Germany if they must argue with the official offices. There they are often discriminated because of her linguistic problems and are treated less friendly than Germans.

We have underestimated the influence of the family and the influence of their peer group. Basically there is a Turkish saying: Who goes away from the crowd of sheep, is eaten by the wolf. So all significant topics are discussed together in the family circle and relevant decisions are also made there. In the things which concern the professional life the man still has the say as a head, nevertheless, the woman has emotional influence which she argues among other things by the fact that she appeals to the family, the children and their education.

We have underestimated the meaning of a notice for these people. While for Germans the notice shows a request to orientate itself anew, the notice is for these people means the end of the employer-employee relationship on the day of the presentation of the notice writing. Thus

it can be explained, why these employees have announced themselves nearly immediately ill and did not appear any more to the work.

Turkish employees know that they have few chances on the job market because of her bad education and, hence, stick intensely to their job - so to speak, up to the bitter end, until others decide whether they are kept their job or not. We have not foreseen this holding on this: for Turkish co-workers a job has a higher value than any monetary sum offered to them. If they all lose court procedure, they can at least say that they have fought up to the end for their job and they have watched their face.

We have not roofed the specific features of a Turkish family system. While himself the father defines as a head of a family very much over his work and the creation possibilities linked with it, woman and children have other interests. They want to remain above all in Germany because they estimate the freedoms of this cultural sphere. Besides, they have in Turkey no right job chances, do not feel at home there any more and rather want to have her existence in Germany.

The won court cases were a stone on the way to the notice success for the enterprise, while they were a victory compared with the injustice from the meaning for the Turkish co-workers. The feeling to be treated unfairly based on a deep learning experience in dealing with authorities etc. Harassment is an everyday practise, also, however, the knowledge, that one cannot go ahead if one tries nothing. The won court cases encourage the man as an upper head in his position of power and confirmed his activities.

In the complaints of the Turkish employees we have found many argumentations which reflect these aspects:

- the notices are unfair, only Turkish employees are concerned;
- the notices are in no manner with a decline of the working amount is to be founded;
- also administration staff should have to be diminished;
- executives should also have to be diminished, not only commercial employees;
- other employees might take cure, they were not discontinued;
- Achievement bearers were identified, to those was not discontinued – also we are efficient, however, were never promoted in-plant;
- Achievement bearers are all German-speaking and informally unbound – we were discriminated;
- we have to supply children – the social choice has not run fair;
- we are loyal for the company and work extra hours – others do not do this.

Conspicuously was also the basic position of the employee in the hearings. They were not ready to get involved in a comparison with a financial balance. They pointed out to want to stick to their job, in spite of the risk, to be defeated judicial and then not to be able to get yet a financial balance.

Consideration of cultural specific features – group conversation with employees and their women

As a result the enterprise resolved to carry out a change in the strategy. Aim should be to guarantee a comparison by financial allowances not to take a further process risk. With a part

of the discontinued employees (n=3) a conversation appointment with a lawyer whom also the wives were invited as well. An employee came with his wife, the other with his cousin and the third one did not come at all. In the conversation it was over and over again about the fact that the enterprise could offer to the employees quietly another job. Compensations would not reach, because children still go to school and would have to be examined accordingly and would be trained. If already, compensations had to be at least so high that a small professional independence could be allowed; otherwise one would win the process and would be willing to work again. Besides, the personal salaries are so high around the enterprise which can wish the enterprise no better employees.

The present woman seemed to have the respect network of the group firmly in the hand. She negotiated and argued for both employees and her man and stressed in the whole process that everybody itself must decide for itself whether he wants to get involved in a compensation offer or not. The conversation ran in this frame unsuccessfully – one broke up without obligations. Approx. 3 weeks later was signalled on the part of the affected employees that they are interested in a financial compensation, so that this solution was seized around finally to finish the employer-employee relationship.

Consideration of cultural specific features – conversation with the single co-worker and his family

In the other cases the other approach with the Turkish psychologist who already attended at the notice talks was tuned. It was asked to carry on the negotiations for the enterprise with the other employees.

The approach was as follows:

1) employees visit at home and carry on conversation
2) promise financial amount
3) countinously dialog by telephone at any time.
4) perceive renewed visit appointment with amount of money in cash
5) guarantee decision

On the order of the visited employees depends a lot. Because of the strong bondage to a group it is advisable to carry on the first conversation with the group leader. If one has won this for himself, the others from the group will be directed after his estimation. Reason for this behaviour is that mostly that group leader is who has the best education and is looked by the other than most intelligently.

If one makes a visit in the informal situation, one must bring time. A period of 2 hours is a short visit in the Turkish society. Talks run as a rule open, until a result is compiled. It is important that the whole family is present, so that everybody has the same state of information. In this conversation situation it is necessary, to dispute itself intensely with the emotional load of the discontinued employees. Besides, the fear of the other future must stand in the centre. Turks in Germany have the feeling that they need a lot of money to the survival in this country – and they lack this if they have no more work. They fear not to be able to survive any more and expect that one respects her fears and deals with her grief. "How should my life go on?". This is the question on which it is a matter to find an answer. Hence, perspectives are to be indicated and alternatives are to discussed.

It is a matter of opening the opponent. In the informal context the woman will stand formally always to her man. She will carry his decisions, even if he falls this. With the woman one should speak on the real subject always only in present of the man. In a case it was in such a way that the negotiations conversation ran off exclusively between the wife of the employee and the psychologist, while the man was present and said generally nothing. This is not further unusual, nevertheless, it enables to him to pursue the dialogue virtually outstanding and to understand what it is in detail about.

Man and woman have different decisive motives: while it is for the woman about the children, it is for the man about the reparation for the professional insult. One must do justice to both aspects. The woman must get a feeling for the fact that she will manage in the future in spite of the notice of her husband the life, and the feeling must be given to the man that he has achieved the at most possible profit from the difficult situation.

For man and woman a big decisive clearance is important, from there cannot be expected that already in the first conversation results are achieved. The results of the dialog must be discussed only with the family, before a final decision stands.

In the described example this decision-making process stretched more than 8 weeks. These became new conversation terms compatible which could not be kept then because the men had to fly in the meantime at short notice in Turkey to clear a little bit on site. The women called up several times to maintain often for hours with the psychologist around themselves about the men and the difficult situation.

At last the breakthrough succeeded when the group leader had agreed to a comparison, and in the postway two other group members followed. The remaining group members signed the compensation contracts without other inquiries.

Afterwards it was apparently necessary for the whole expiry of the notice procedures that on the judicial side the first instance procedures got lost for the enterprise. Thereby it was only possible to the discontinued employees to get a counterweight to her feeling of the inferiority (we always sit in the shorter lever) and to negotiate with the former employer on eye level.

Effects of the changed notice strategy

As on top already mentioned, compensations are directed after a certain assessment key, with respect to monthly wage and the duration of employment. As a rule one offers as a compensation factor of 0.3 to 0.5 month salaries per year of the seniority. In this case, according to costs the most favorable solutions would have looked as follows:

Figure 2: Costs for the notice plan under optimum conditions

compensation factor	**costs (Euro)**	lawyer's costs **(respected, Euro)**	**sum total ly(Euro)**
0,3	129405	10000	**139405**
0,4	172540	14000	**186540**
0,5	210376	18000	**228376**

Under normal conditions the costs would have amounted for the whole notice procedure approx. 228.000 Euro.

Nevertheless, in this case the requirement came up, in view of the lost protection against unlawful dismissal processes to produce legal security and to prevent that the discontinued employees would have had to be occupied again by the enterprise. The total sum for the notice procedure amounted approx. 404.000 Euro and approx. 304.000 Euro for the compensations, approx. 42.000 Euro for the lawyers and the rest for the sick person's days the employee had to become angry.

Result

One can get the following knowledge from the described notice procedure: it is absolutely necessary to consider the norms and values, as well as life experience and learning experience of foreign employees. Facing both aspects is an assumption and will help to establish a good relationship to these people. If the enterprise had chosen this approach to a former time, probability more than 200.000 Euro could have been saved in all. It is advisable from there to compile a strategy which puts down exactly on these points before the notice of foreign employees.

For a list of references you are pleased to contact the author.

The Entrepreneurial Organization as a Greenhouse of Organizational Culture

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Abstract

Notwithstanding many attempts to investigate the creation of organizational culture, no conclusive evidence exists. This paper argue that the initial phases of a new venture are critical to the development of an appropriate organizational culture, namely, one that assists the firm to cope with its environment and become a source of sustained competitive advantage. The model incorporates leadership, organizational behaviors and organizational dynamics in order to explain organizational culture development, from three perspectives: content, processes and context. Management style, adaptation strategy, commitment, citizenship behavior, organizational learning and organizational knowledge are the building blocks of this model.

Introduction

Researchers in entrepreneurship have long been interested in entrepreneurial profile (McClelland, 1961; Vecchio, 2003). This interest has resulted in major efforts aimed at structuring and developing both descriptive and normative theories and empirically testing their core propositions. Yet, since McClelland (1961) first attempt to find the essential traits of entrepreneurs, there is neither agreement neither on the descriptive perspective nor the normative one. Hisrich and Peters (2002), for example, argue that there is no "true entrepreneurial profile". Entrepreneurs come from a variety of educational back grounds, occupations, race, genders, and family situations. Vecchio (2003) suggests that a set of five attributes are at the forefront of discussions of entrepreneurial profile. However, he agrees that there is still a debate on the question whether these attributes comprise the entrepreneur's profile.

Recent studies proposed that the focus of the field of entrepreneurship should change from the characteristics of the entrepreneur to the characteristics of the entrepreneurial process (Bygrave & Hofer, 1991). Entrepreneurs are identified as individuals that participate in the process, not by a unique set of characteristics. The focus on the entrepreneurial process supports an a priori definition of entrepreneurship. This distinction is akin with Thornton's (1999) distinction between supply-side perspective, which examines the propensity for entrepreneurial roles, and the demand-side perspective, which focuses on the context and the entrepreneurial roles that need to be filled.

The current research suggests that success of a new venture is determined by a combination of factors that are only partially affected by the entrepreneur. The proposed model emphasizes the role of *organizational culture* in the new venture survival and excel. Organizational culture can be a source of stability and capability to cope with changing environments (Denison, 1997; Schein, 2004). Organizational culture can be a unique resource that becomes a source of *sustained competitive advantage* for the organization (Barney, 1986). Hence, the creation of organizational culture is critical to the venture's success.

The entrepreneurial organization in its early phases is the ground where the seeds of the organizational culture are planted. Investigating the entrepreneurial processes in these phases is a unique opportunity for studying the organizational culture creation and development. The model proposed by the current research argues that organizational culture creation is affected by three groups of factors: (1) *leadership* (2) *organizational behavior* and (3) *organizational dynamics*. Leadership is a group of factors that directly affects organizational culture. However, the other two groups are also influenced by leadership together with other variables.

The following section will review organizational culture and its creation. Then, we review the three groups of factors that affect organizational culture creation. After the model that describes and explains the relationship among the groups of factor is presented, we conclude with a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of this model and ways to test it empirically.

Organizational Culture

A whole set of processes that affect organizational dynamics is termed *organizational culture*. Organizational culture is thought to have implications in team-member commitment, cooperation, efficiency, decision making, and role performance (Barney, 1986; Brief & Guzzo, 1990; Tompson & Luthans, 1994; Weick, 1985; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983).

Though the concept of organizational culture is very significant to a discussion of personality and leadership, a generally-accepted definition has yet to emerge from the research. However, a number of definitions of organizational culture have been suggested, and some of them are described below.

Schein (2004:17) defines organizational culture as "a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solves its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems." This pattern of assumptions according to Schein (2004) is expressed in the attitudes, values and norms of the members of the organization.

Denison (1997) suggests that the term *culture* refers to the values, beliefs and basic principles that form a platform for organizational management, organizational behaviors, and practices that reinforce these behaviors. These principles and practices exist as they have meaning for the organization members. They represent surviving strategies that worked well in the past, and members of the organization believe they will work well in the future. The values and beliefs of the organization represent a set of organizational practices—concrete actions that stem from, and strengthen, the organization's values. According to Denison (1997), values and beliefs, along with practices and policies, affect organizational effectiveness.

Kotter and Heskett (1992) say that organizational culture exists on two levels. On the deeper and less visible level, there are shared values that tend to be preserved. On a more visible and changeable level, there are behavioral patterns according to which employees are expected to behave. These two levels sustain each other.

Despite the variety in the existing definitions of organizational culture, a common thread runs through all of them: organizational culture emerges from a collective social context that develops over time, as the organization learns to cope with problems of social integration and adaptation to its environment. Culture is perceived as a learned product of the group's

experience, and it has both visible and invisible levels. In the visible level, there are practices and expressions, such as jargon, rituals and symbols. The invisible level includes values or basic assumptions. Organizational culture is learned via socialization processes, and it tends to be stable (Denison, 1996).

We believe that necessary conditions for these processes are commitment and citizenship behavior. *Affective commitment* is "positive feelings of identification with, attachment to, and involvement in, the work organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1984, p. 375). Organ (1988) defined five characteristics that comprise *Organizational Citizenship Behavior*: volunteering help to others, using time wisely for organization purposes, being willing to work in uncomfortable conditions without complaining, maintaining lines of communication with colleagues in order to prevent work-related problems, taking an active part in the life of the organization.

The aforementioned practices and expressions are one dimension of organizational culture. These behaviors are the observed level of organizational culture. We argue that two factors facilitate the absorption of these practices. These factors are: organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. We name this these factors: *organizational behaviors*.

> *P1: The higher the level of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, the greater the absorption of observed level of organizational cultural.*

Organizational Culture as a Source of Sustained Competitive Advantage

As we have seen, organizational culture develops as a group learns to cope with issues of internal integration and adaptation to the organizational environment. The elements of integration and adaptation are reflected in the analysis dimensions taken by culture researchers. Schein (2004) defines a series of dimensions by which he characterizes culture, and he divides them into two categories: The first deals with events and processes that allow internal integration within the group, and the other deals with the group's issues and problems in adapting to the environment. These two dimensions co-exist, according to Schein (2004). Thus, the process of group cohesion occurs concurrently with the process of confronting issues and solving problems, which enable the group to adapt to its environment.

Denison (1997) also refers to internal and external aspect of the organization in explaining how organizational culture affects organizational performance. Denison examines four core themes in the organizational literature that reflect organizational culture, on the one hand, and that affect organization performance, on the other hand. These themes are employee involvement and consistency of common meaning (both dealing with the organization's internal dynamic), and adaptability and mission (which deal with the organization's ability to transform itself in order to meet the demands of a continually changing environmental).

Different researchers (Denison, 1997; Kotter & Heskett, 1992) suggest that the core values and practices of an organization can influence its effectiveness and performance. Kotter and Heskett (1992) term cultures that promote strategies and practices that are responsive to changing environments *adaptive cultures*. These cultures support the organization's striving for positive change. In contrast, non-adaptive cultures harm the organization's ability to adapt to a changing environment and to institute internal change. In their research, Kotter and Heskett identify a series of characteristics of adaptive culture, including: readiness to take risks, trust, proactive orientation, mutual support, confidence, enthusiasm, innovation, flexibility, accepting of change, entrepreneurship, open mindedness, emphasis on key parties

of interest (customers, shareholders, employees), teamwork, forgiveness of mistakes, open communication, informal behavior, integrity, and thoughtfulness.

Most of the characteristics identified by Kotter and Heskett (1992) concern adaptation to the environment. However, some of these characteristics concern internal integration. They include: emphasis on employees, teamwork, integrity, trust and thoughtfulness. Other characteristics that concern internal integration are identified by Denison (1997): involvement, partnership, employee responsibility and commitment. Thus, under the rubric of organizational culture, we can identify *integrative culture* in addition to adaptive culture.

The subject of integrative culture is the team, team members and team work, while the subject of adaptive culture is change and innovation that enable adaptation to a changing environment.

Edmondson (2002) suggests that most organizational learning takes place at the group or team level, through interaction among team members, and not at a higher level. Organizational learning is a process, and a team that has a learning orientation will engage that process, if the climate within that group is conducive. So the climate within the team organization is of considerable importance. A climate that encourages learning-oriented goals and behaviors includes the emotional support of the team leader (Turner et al., 2002) and social openness (Roeser, Midgley & Urdan, 1996). In addition, Bunderson and Sutcliff (2003) suggest that a secure climate enables group members to try new things, and to interact outside the group, without fear of sanctions (Edmondson, 1999). Such a climate can also accommodate inter-team power differences that allow productive debate with the team leader (Edmondson, 2002). All of these elements have been found to positively correlate with organizational learning. Moreover, a team's learning orientation has been found to positively influence team performance (Bunderson & Sutcliff, 2003).

We suggest, then, that organizational dynamics are necessary for the absorption of the organizational culture content. These dynamics include: *organizational learning* (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Baum, Li and Usher, 2000), *and organizational knowledge* (Nonaka, 1994). We name the groups of these factors *organizational dynamics*.

> *P2: organizational learning and organizational knowledge facilitate the absorption of organizational culture*

Role of the Manager in Organizational Culture

The manager, or the leader, has a dominant influence on the creation of organizational culture, as well as on its substance and its future course, since he or she serves as a model and guide for his or her perception of the correct way to navigate the basic issues of culture (Schein, 1992; Denison, 1997; Denison, 1996; Avelsson, 1992; Kotter & Heskett, 1992). Schein (2004) stresses that culture and leadership are two sides of a coin, since leaders create culture when they create groups and organizations. Previously-existing cultures establish the criteria for leadership, and thus influence who the leader will be. If a culture becomes non-functional, one of the unique leadership tasks is to identify the functional and non-functional elements of the existing culture, and to manage evolutionary and organizational change in a way that allows the group to survive changing environments.

The interest of scholars in culture creation and development (Collins & Porras, 1994; Denison, 1997; Schein, 2004), has resulted in major efforts aimed at the leadership role in culture building (Conger, 1998; Donaldson & Lorch, 1983; Schein, 1983, 2004; Sternberg,

2003). Schein (2004) proposes six primary mechanisms that leaders use in order to create the "climate" of the organization: attention, measure and control; reaction to incidents and crisis; resource allocation; role modeling, teaching and coaching; allocation of rewards and status; recruiting, selecting, promoting and excommunicating. It seems reasonable that the leader's personality and management style might affect the way he/she uses these mechanisms, and thus the creation of the organizational climate and culture.

There is a variety of mechanisms by which leaders can insure the adoption of their beliefs, values and assumptions, as the group evolves. Through these mechanisms, the leader teaches the organization how to perceive, think, feel and behave in ways that reinforce his or her world view (Schein, 2004). Thus, the leader incorporates into the organizational culture his or her beliefs, values and assumptions in a variety of ways: paying attention, measuring and controlling specific aspects of the culture, choosing the response to critical events and organizational crises, allocating resources, modeling, rewarding and conferring status, and recruiting and promoting of employees.

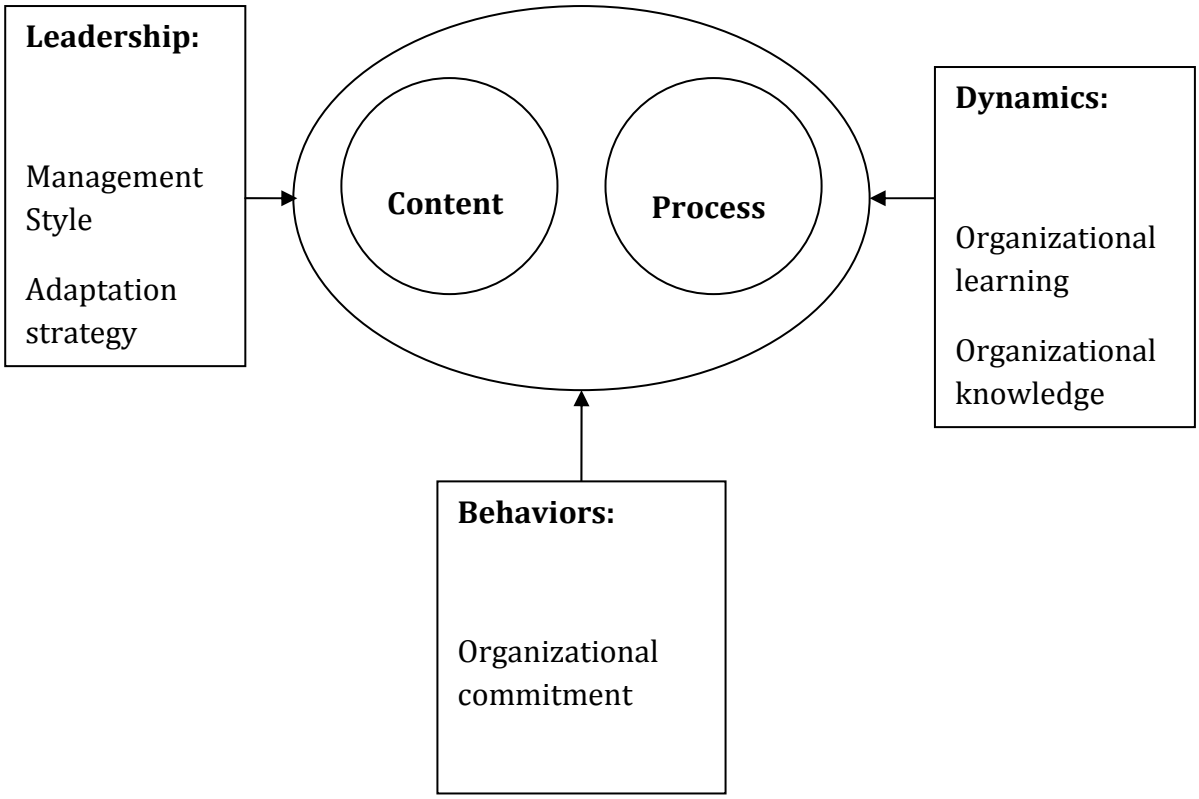
Heskett and Kotter (1992), Tichy and Devanna (1986) and Avelson (1992) suggest that the most significant agent of cultural change is a competent leader. Change-generating leaders know how to create change. Moreover, Chatman and Cha (2003) suggest that one of the most significant roles of the manager is to generate cultural change.

We name the group of factors that are leader related: *leadership*. This group includes: *management style* and *adaptation strategy*.

> *P3: Management style and adaptation strategy held by the venture founder affect the content of organizational culture*

The Proposed Model

Figure 1: The Three Perspectives Model



The proposed model examines organizational culture from three different perspectives or dimensions: *Content, Process*es and *Context*. These three aspects are dominated by different factors. The organizational culture content is affected significantly by the venture's founder or leader. The organizational context is mainly influenced by the level of commitment and OCB, which we named organizational behaviors. Organizational processes are necessary in order to distribute and absorb the organizational culture. These processes depend on the ability of the organization to manage knowledge and to learn.

Figure 1 illustrates the proposed model.

Discussion

The main objective of the present study was to explore the factors that affect organizational culture creation. Entrepreneurial organizations provide unique opportunity to examine the process of culture development. The model introduced in the article, views organizational culture from three different perspectives: content, processes, context. Each of these perspectives is affected by different group of factors.

Content dimension is affected by leadership factors, namely, management style and adaptation strategy. Processes dimension is influenced by organizational dynamics factors,

which includes: organizational learning and organizational knowlde. And lastly, context aspect is dominated by organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

This model can be a framework for further research in the fields of entrepreneurship and organizational culture, which are both characterized by disagreements, lack of acceptable definitions and non conclusive empirical evidences.

Practitioners can also benefit from the ideas presented in the article. Understanding that organizational culture is a major determinant of business success, practitioners should pay attention to the process of culture development. The first phases of the new venture are crucial to the creation of effective culture that will assist the organization to cope with changing environments and adapt to its competitive environment. Looking at culture creation form the three perspectives that were proposed in this article increases the chance of creating an appropriate organizational culture.

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Community Participation in Health and Social Projects in South India: A Case Study

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Abstract

Various studies of community-based organizations, such as coalitions, demonstrate that these minimalist organizations can be used to address a variety of health and social issues. Coalitions are highly flexible and can engender strong support locally in the communities participating in this type of planning process. This study examines community participation in disease prevention and in developing responses to urgent safety issues in urban and rural areas of southern India. It was found that both health education and eradication of disease-causing organisms in southern India are essential to improving public health and that gaining the participation of multiple communities with varying levels of understanding of disease processes is being facilitated through active participation in coalitions and advisory groups.

Introduction

Zaidi & Awasthi (2004) noted that India and other countries in South Asia are facing threats to public health from newly emerging infectious diseases, and in August 2006 the World Health Organization convened a regional conference of health ministers from South and Southeast Asian countries in Dhaka, Bangladesh to discuss the unprecedented threats that the region is facing from emerging infectious diseases and the growing burden of chronic diseases. The WHO meeting called for devising affordable methods to prevent and contain diseases such as HIV/AIDS, dengue fever, tuberculosis, malaria, and pandemic influenza, including bird flu. Community participation could become an important feature in the efforts to plan not only public health projects but also community safety and community development projects in southern India. Community participation has already been recognized as an important part of the efforts to foster a "culture of prevention" in southern India, especially in community-based hazard mapping projects. Such efforts create community awareness of health threats and make it easier for community leaders to assist in planning programs to achieve the Millennium Development Goals that have been defined for countries in South and Southeast Asia.

Research Focus

Community participation in health, safety, and community development planning occurs through a variety of community-based advisory groups, but especially through community-based coalitions. These "coalitions" can be loosely defined as a group of individuals

representing diverse organizations, factions, or constituencies within a community who agree to work together to achieve a common goal (adapted from Feighery & Rogers, 1989). Because communal identification at the village level is such a prominent feature of rural southern Indian society, examples of community participation within a single community or social grouping in a village could assist public health specialists to identify health, safety, and social issues that could be addressed by initiating community-based coalitions to assist in devising health protection, safety, and community development strategies for the benefit of local communities.

Review of the Literature

Community participation in health, safety, and community development planning, especially through community-based coalitions, can be examined from several theoretical perspectives found in the literature of organizational behavior. These include coalitions and partnerships in community health, organizational environment and form, and coordination of services. These will be examined in order to gain a better understanding of community-based coalitions as organizations.

Community Participation through Community-based Coalitions. Community participation in health, safety, and social projects can take a variety of forms and there can be variations in the extent of community participation. It has been found that community-based coalitions have most of the characteristics of minimalist organizations as defined by Halliday, Powell, & Granfors (1987, 1993) and can demonstrate progression through the stages of development noted by Aiken et al. (1975). Studies of community participation through the use of community-based coalitions have demonstrated repeatedly that these organizations have been successful in addressing a variety of health and social issues, including obesity, maternal and child health, tobacco use, asthma, and HIV/AIDS, among others. (See Butterfoss et al., 2002, 2003, 2007; Kieler, 1994; Kieler et al., 1996 [2], 1999, 2004; Minkler, 1997; Penner, 1992 [2]; and Rosenthal et al., 2006). Coalitions have been used to plan disease prevention efforts, delivery of services to persons experiencing disease, immunizations for children, and development of response plans for newly emerging infectious diseases (i.e., pandemic influenza). Coalitions can facilitate and enhance disease prevention training and the distribution and acceptance of public health announcements. Coalitions as organizations are highly flexible and can engender strong support locally from the communities participating in the health planning process.

Organizational Environment and Organizational Form. Bidwell & Kasarda (1985) note that organizational form is composed not only of the interpersonal relations of the members of the organization, but also contains properties that pertain to the organization conceived of as a collectivity with a unitary character. Some of these properties can be regarded as aggregates of interpersonal relations, such as the division of labor and hierarchy. Others may not be so regarded, such as the size and composition of an organization's membership, its stock of technological and material resources, its own institutional characteristics (structure, bylaws, rules, policies, and processes), and the technological, physical, demographic, and institutional properties of its environment.

Bidwell & Kasarda next define organizational environment to include all external phenomena that affect or could affect an organization. They identify four aspects of the environment, namely, the supplies of resources, the actors who supply them or who in other ways may affect their supply, the flows of resources to and among the various populations of

organizations within the environment, and the relationships among the environmental actors that influence the flow and utilization of resources. The first two are compositional aspects of the environment and the third and fourth are relational aspects (p.38).

In viewing community-based participatory planning entities as organizations, such as community-based planning councils and coalitions, one finds that this particular population of community-based organizations is continually expanding as additional metropolitan and rural areas turn to this type of organization to address local needs for health care, social support services, and disease prevention/education. The specific organizational form that characterizes all community-based participatory planning entities is not a unique form. Although at first glance an argument might be made that these entities have the characteristics of "synthetic" organizations as defined in Thompson (1967), their apparently increasing permanence and institutionalization in the local health care environment suggest something more. All such entities appear to have many of the characteristics of what is known in the organizational behavior literature as a "minimalist" organization.

Minimalist Organizations. The minimalist organizational form is identified by Halliday, Powell, & Granfors (1987, 1993) in a study of the vital events observed in the organizational population of state bar associations. Furthermore, Aldrich et al. (1990) use a similar approach in their study of U.S. trade associations. Both of these studies focus on minimalist organizations in the private sector and use the population ecology of organizations perspective. The studies of minimalist organizations observe that such organizations are structurally flexible, frequently exist in relatively noncompetitive environments, and have long life spans. These organizations may not demonstrate the patterns of foundings and failures characteristic of most business organizations, and especially not the liability of newness. They are called "minimalist" because they require minimal resources for founding and sustenance.

Coordination of Services. Aiken et al. (1975) note that professional ideologies often prevent professionals in one field from wanting to cooperate with professionals in another field. They observe that competing client interest groups may be working at cross-purposes, cancel out each other's efforts, and present a less than united front in the community. They also note that service organizations frequently put their own survival and prestige ahead of the needs of the clients. They point out various studies that show that acceptance of clients by service organizations depends on social, cultural, and historical factors, and not just on the needs of the clients; that agencies refer clients to places that profit the agency, rather than to places good for clients; and that agencies like to have the "right" clients rather than those with the most pressing problems.

Methodology

The research into the use of community participation through coalitions in southern India relied on qualitative research methods, including observations, interviews, and reviews of documents. The activities for this project included the following:

- Meetings with colleagues at the collaborating institutions to discuss a strategy for conducting this research.
- Examination of the organizational behavior literature and review of reports on health and social issues to determine the role of community-based coalitions.
- Selection of two or three community programs that focus on health, safety, or community development issues.

- Conducting of key informant interviews to identify the specific health and social concerns being addressed and administration of an organizational self-assessment of effectiveness at several coalitions.
- Additional interviews about and observations of the functioning of community-based coalitions in two or more areas of Tamil Nadu.
- Identification of health, safety, and social issues that have the potential to be addressed through the use of coalitions.
- Analysis of information from interviews.
- Development of a draft report for the host agency and for the Fulbright Program.

Examples of Community Participation in the Study Area

YRGCARE as a Mechanism for Community Participation in HIV Prevention. One of the leading examples of community participation in HIV prevention, care, treatment, and research is the Y.R. Gaitonde Centre for AIDS Research and Education (YRGCARE), located in Chennai, Tamil Nadu. YRGCARE's stated mission is to respond to the needs of people who are not currently receiving care and support or education/information about HIV disease. YRGCARE strives to receive and serve all patients, irrespective of their economic status. As the cost of antiretroviral treatment is out of reach to most Indians, YRGCARE has deployed a graduated cost recovery tool by which persons living with AIDS who can afford to pay for medications subsidize and sponsor those persons who are partially or totally unable to do so. Because the need for support is increasing, YRGCARE constantly reaches out for community support.

YRGCARE works to promote a social consensus towards its vision and objectives to enable people with HIV and AIDS and their families to live with dignity and to provide intervention activities to reduce the spread of HIV infection. Community participation in YRGCARE's projects occurs through review and advisory boards, rather than through community-based coalitions. YRGCARE's two committees review and oversee its social and medical research projects. The committees include an Institutional Review Board and a Community Advisory Board. These committees are responsible for reviewing each research proposal, approving the research before any work begins, and monitoring human safety issues. The members come from varied backgrounds and serve on a voluntary basis. The committees are based in Chennai.

One of the new projects at YRGCARE was a domestic violence reduction program in selected slum communities in Chennai, with the added component of HIV prevention, including counseling and testing for HIV infection. YRGCARE implemented this project in 2008 to reduce the incidence of HIV infection in Chennai slums. This new three-year project was funded by the Ford Foundation-India. The stated goal of the project was to reduce and prevent the risks of HIV and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs) among women in Chennai, India, through a sustainable community initiative. This project provided HIV/STI prevention education for men and women. It educated men about healthy relationships and provided services for vulnerable women. (Personal communications with Ganesh Aylur Kailasam, YRGCARE, Chennai, India, October 2007-February 2008.)

Development of a "Culture of Prevention" in Tamil Nadu. Development of disaster plans and recovery strategies is another area in which community participation is being stressed. For example, India's National Disaster Management Authority (NDMA) is placing emphasis on involving communities in the preparation of hazard maps for areas at high risk for tsunami damage. Citing a United Nations estimate, Professor N. Vinod Chandra Menon, a member of the Authority, noted that the number of people at risk from disasters was growing every year and that 90 percent of them lived in the developing world. He went on to stress the importance of building a "culture of prevention" that would increase public awareness of disasters, reduce risks to lives and property, and keep the community in a state of preparedness.

Professor Menon noted that the NDMA was working on a set of guidelines (i.e., "National Disaster Management Guidelines") that will include components to create public awareness, evaluate risk and vulnerability, and involve the community in planning evacuation and post-disaster management structures. Additionally, the guidelines will address associated issues such as extreme weather and the impact of climate change. The guidelines are being written with a focus on handling the situation after any kind of disaster, natural or man-made, and will serve as a composite body of strategies to help the nation bounce back to normalcy after any calamity. The involvement of communities in preparing hazard maps, escape routes, and evacuation guidelines is stressed in all of the plans. The goal of the NDMA is to include disaster management strategies in all development plans. (*The Hindu*, December 22, 2007, pp. 8-10.)

LAMP NET, India: Job Skills Training for Persons with Disabilities. An umbrella organization called LAMP NET, India, is a leader in community development and relief efforts in rural communities in several "blocks" in northern Tamil Nadu. Founded in 2004, it is a network of 12 non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Its goal is the empowerment and development of communities in rural areas of Tamil Nadu. The effort to assist with job skills training for the disabled began in 2004, and, currently, five NGOs work collaboratively to develop programs for persons with disabilities. LAMP NET has worked with the Catholic Bishops Conference of India to apply for funding for tsunami relief efforts and for social programs for persons with disabilities. The job skills program for persons with disabilities involved a three-phase effort, with Phase 1 emphasizing capacity building by training staff, coordinators, and NGO members in the issues related to disabilities and the challenges faced by persons with disabilities.

LAMP NET is currently seeking funding for Phase 2. When funded, this phase will focus on promoting community-based rehabilitation so that the entire community can embrace the disabled and "keep them as part of the family." It will also promote the development of self-help groups among the disabled and will recruit and train community leaders to facilitate and promote self-help groups. Specific job skills trainings will be offered and taught by the organization known as Hand in Hand. Phase 3 of the job skills project will focus on building a statewide federation of groups of persons with disabilities to engage in political advocacy for health, food, jobs, and homes for the disabled. This effort will start at the village level, with the formation of federations comprised of five to eight panchayats (i.e., village governments). These federations will advocate for services for persons with disabilities and for their legal and social rights. (Personal communications with Professor Praveen Prakash, Guru Nanak College, Chennai 600 042, November 2007-January 2008; also review of 2007 funding application titled "Promoting the Rights of the Rural Disadvantaged Persons with Disabilities in Melmalayanur and Kurinjipadi Blocks of Tamil Nadu, India.")

Village Development Society: Community Development in the Dalit Communities. One of the leading collaborating agencies in LAMP NET is an agency called Village Development

Society (VDS). This organization was founded in 1973 by Professor Praveen Prakash to address the pressing issues facing the Dalit communities in northern Tamil Nadu. These issues included illiteracy, under-employment, lack of scientific methods of farming, exploitation of women, child labor, indebtedness, bonded labor, and lack of infrastructure and facilities (e.g., roads, water wells, schools, and clinics).

Community participation has been part of the ongoing efforts of the VDS to promote the health and social development of the Dalit communities in northern Tamil Nadu. The VDS has conducted comprehensive surveys of the socioeconomic and educational status of 10 Dalit communities and used this data to guide its formulation of development plans for the Dalit communities. A project called "Cluster School Movement" was implemented as a pilot project and involved community participation and social research. In the Melmalayanur Block, factors contributing to children dropping out of school were identified and analyzed. Following this, an intervention was initiated to reduce school dropouts and lack of progress in learning. (Personal communications with Professor Praveen Prakash, November 2007-January 2008.)

The Servites Net: Empowering the Disabled. Another agency in LAMP NET is the Servites Net. This organization is committed to empowering persons with disabilities and has focused attention on approximately 4,000 persons with disabilities in three blocks in Villupuram District and one block in Cuddalore District. It is currently seeking funding for a database management system. The long-term objectives of a recent proposal submitted by Servites Net included (1) sensitization of members of the community about disability and the building of a disabled-friendly society, (2) facilitating a community effort to advocate for policy changes that would ensure special care for the rural deprived and disadvantaged person with disabilities; and (3) facilitating the development of self-help groups of persons with disabilities. The primary short-term objective (i.e., the immediate focus of the grant application) was the development of a database management system to manage the voluminous social data collected at the village level through needs assessments and surveys. These data include information on approximately 335,254 people in 67,000 families living in 727 villages. Community participation in this project has been in the form of needs assessments and the training of community-based workers concerning the issues relevant to disability. (Personal communications with Professor Praveen Prakash, November 2007-January 2008.)

The Hope Foundation: HIV/AIDS Care and Education. The Hope Foundation is a volunteer organization registered under Indian Trust Act of 1882. It was established in July 2005 with its headquarters at Palakkad, a city in the southern Indian state of Kerala. The organization is committed to "the integrated development of the poor and the marginalized people focusing on a convenient, reliable, continuous, and flexible range of services for a better society." The foundation works for the development of the community and includes several projects that include community participation. (Personal communication with Mr. Raju Kuriachan, Managing Director, Hope Foundation, India, December 12, 2007.)

Discussion

The most significant finding in this community participation project was the extensive use of community participation in various health, safety, and community development projects in southern India. Use of community participation is widespread and apparently very acceptable at the community level, and community participation has resulted in major improvements in health and safety in both rural and urban areas. Use of community participation was found to be an important part of planning for HIV/AIDS prevention, care and treatment, and research.

It was found also in health promotion and health education and in village-level community development projects.

The primary health and safety issues that could be addressed by including community participation in health and safety planning include diabetes education and prevention, diabetes/cardiovascular education, safety of children at work sites, malaria control, environmental safety (i.e., reducing the risks to health of residents living near chemical plants and factories), tuberculosis education and control, and exposure to exhaust fumes along roadways. Another important area where community participation could be used to address a risk to health is pandemic influenza (including bird flu). As was noted in the outbreak of bird flu in West Bengal in December 2007, education projects are needed before the outbreak of disease in order to prevent farmers from resisting the culling of flocks, selling the meat of diseased chickens at local markets, and feasting on the meat from birds that died of bird flu.

Including community participation as a component in planning health and safety projects could increase the likelihood of success of the projects. When there is community participation in planning and implementing health education projects, there is generally greater community acceptance of the message that the project is trying to deliver to the community. Health education and control or eradication of disease-causing organisms are essential to disease prevention and containment. Gaining the participation of multiple communities with varying levels of understanding of disease processes could be facilitated through active community participation in coalitions and advisory groups. Community participation can also help residents become more aware of costs as they grapple with the necessity of infrastructure development and become more personally aware of health risks and prevention which indirectly also reduce costs.

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Detecting Organizations' Cultural Barriers to Innovate in Estonian Biotechnology Organizations

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Abstract

The aim of current study is to work out suggestions for managers in Estonian biotechnology organizations to increase their organizational innovativeness. We defined five broad dimensions of organizational innovativeness and hypothesized that processes related to resource allocation and processes related to work organization would score significantly lower compared to other dimensions. We collected data from 15 biotechnology organizations in Estonia and were able to show that resource allocation was indeed the most critical barrier, however, processes related to work organization were not problematic. Instead, strategic orientation to innovation demonstrates room for development.

Introduction

The ability to systematically come up with innovations, i.e. both initiate and adopt innovations is dependent on several determinants: micro level variables (i.e. companies' characteristics), meso level variables (industry and its structure, supply side activites etc.), and macro level variables (i.e. quality and access to labour, capital, government regulations, national culture). According to Tellis *et al.* (2009), who studied radical innovation in 17 countries from different regions, macro variables were insignificant as drivers of innovation; instead, micro level, specifically organizational culture, was the key determinant. Organizational culture (OC) that supports innovation is known as organizational innovativeness, which is defined as "an organization's overall innovative capability of introducing new products to the market, or opening up new markets, through combining strategic orientation with innovative behavior and process" (Wang, Ahmed, 2004).

Current study analyzes organizational innovativeness in Estonian biotechnology organizations and outlines those cultural elements in enterprises that inhibit them of becoming more innovative. The aim of current study is to work out suggestions for managers to increase their organizational innovativeness. In this study we make use of the vast amount of research that has been conducted relating OC and innovation. Based on those, specific indicators of organizational innovativeness are developed, which can be easily assessed by managers of the organization.

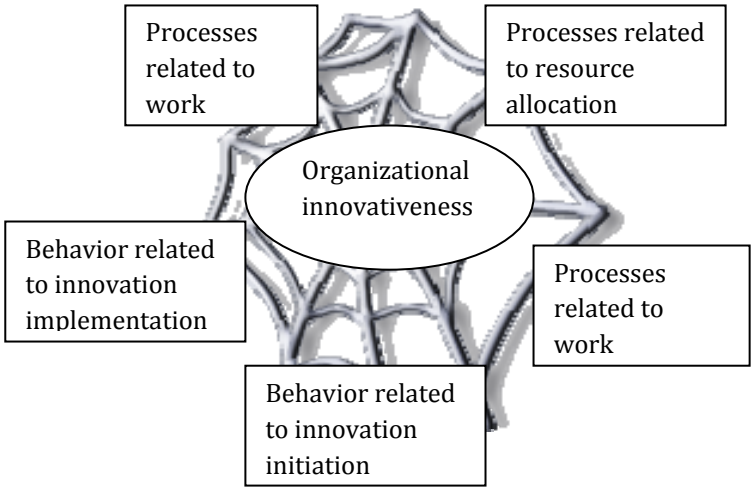
The paper proceeds as follows: first, the concept of organizational innovativeness is shortly elaborated, followed by the description of sample and method. Together with the presentation of results the paper ends with discussion and suggestions for managers.

Organizational innovativeness

Current study adopts the definition of Wang and Ahmed (2004) and therefore the point of departure is that organizational innovativeness (OI) is composed of three categories: strategic orientation to innovation, innovative behavior and innovative processes.

However, in order to link the features of OC with innovativeness, more precise categories are needed. We therefore distinguish between behavior related to innovation initiation and behavior related to innovation implementation. Also, processes supporting innovativeness are divided into two separate categories: processes (or systems) that deal with all kind of resource allocations in order for the innovation to occur and processes that are linked to general work organization to foster innovation. Thus, this study estimates OI characterized by those five dimensions as illustrated by Figure 1.

Figure 1. Dimensions of OI.



Source: compiled by the authors

Strategic orientation to innovation deals with organization's mission, vision, values, goals, growth orientation and (ownership) structure that have all been found to be correlated with innovation (Dorabjee *et al*., 1998; Martins, Terblanche, 2003; Lau, Ngo, 2004; Bhates, Khasawneh, 2005; Dombrowski *et al*., 2007; Dobny, 2008; Srholec 2009; Tellis *et al*., 2009). Resource allocation may be divided into three main areas: allocation of time and space so that people can experiment, creating incentives and providing resources to innovate, and allocating resources to constant learning. Literature on the relationship between these elements and innovation is abundant, e.g. Gudmundson *et al*. (2003), Lau and Ngo (2004), Dombrowski *et al*. (2007), Jørgensen *et al*. (2007) , Dobny (2008), Tellis *et al*. (2009).

Processes related to work organization that make up innovative workplace ensure employee freedom, autonomy and communication. There are many items in this dimension: the extent of employee independence (Gudmundson *et al*., 2003; Martins, Terblanche, 2003; Lau, Ngo, 2004; Leavy, 2005), application of teamwork (Dorabjee *et al*., 1998; Martins, Terblanche, 2003; Lau, Ngo, 2004; Oshiotse, O'Leary, 2007), internal mobility and flexible structures (Martins, Terblanche, 2003; Lau, Ngo, 2004; Leavy, 2005; Dombrowski *et al*., 2007), to name the most important ones.

Behavior related to innovation initiation describes the ways organizations try to increase the innovation potential of its employees. There are two blocks in this dimension – behaviors that concern the recruitment of employees, including employee diversity (Leavy, 2005; Oshiotse, O'Leary, 2007) and behaviors targeted to bring out and maintain their innovation potential. Nurturing creativity is in focus of the latter and reactions to employee failures are of particular interest (Dorabjee *et al*., 1998; Lau, Ngo, 2004; Leavy, 2005; Dobny, 2008). Failure tolerance and giving employee an opportunity to learn from mistakes has been found to be a building block of OI.

Finally, behavior related to innovation implementation is understood as a range of issues that facilitate the realization of innovative ideas rather than generating them. Under this dimension risk-taking behavior, i.e. willingness to engage in activities that have no certain return (Lau, Ngo, 2004; Jaskyte Dressler, 2005; Dobny, 2008; Tellis *et al*., 2009), employee participation (Gudmundson *et al*., 2003; Lau and Ngo, 2004; Leavy, 2005; Dombrowski *et al*., 2007), conflict handling (Martins, Terblanche, 2003; Leavy, 2005; Bhates, Khasawneh, 2005; Oshiotse, O'Leary, 2007; Dobny, 2008), quick decision-making (Dorabjee *et al*., 1998; Jaskyte, Dressler, 2005; Martins, Terblanche, 2003; Tellis *et al*., 2009), and customer involvement in product development (Dorabjee *et al.*, 1998; Dobny, 2008) are addressed.

Hypotheses

To set hypotheses about specific dimensions of OI we rely on the studies in the field of national culture, OC and general statistics. Benchmark countries are Denmark, Finland and Hungary as the leaders of biotechnology in the small countries of EU. Results on Hofstede's cultural dimensions lead to conclude that there might be more hierarchical structures, less participative work organization and less risk taking in Estonian organizations because uncertainty avoidance and power distance are relatively high compared to Denmark and Finland (see Table A in Appendix 1). Reino (2009) concluded that in general, OC in Estonia tends to be stability and control oriented, whereas Danish organizations have been found to be open, democratic and self-organizing (Pruzan, 2003). The findings mainly associate with the processes related to work organization in the current study. Thus:

H1: The processes related to work organization score significantly lower compared to other OI dimensions.

Appendix 1 further presents selected indicators for resource allocation for innovation in Estonia, Hungary, Denmark and Finland (see Tables B-D). Estonia is lagging far behind in spending on R&D and education compared to selected countries. Only the share of R&D personnel in labour force is slightly higher than in Hungary. While the described trends are more general and not specific to biotechnology, it can be assumed that the activity does not significantly diverge from overall country patterns. On the contrary – innovation process in biotechnology is more expensive and time consuming than in other sectors and lack of resources is often the main hindrance in the development of the biotechnology organizations. We therefore hypothesize that:

H2: The processes related to resource allocation score significantly lower compared to other OI dimensions.

Method and sample

We were interested in biotechnology companies with at least five regular employees and on-site R&D. 24 companies were contacted with study request. Interviews were conducted between October 2009-January 2010 with 15 companies: two companies declined the interview request and seven companies did not respond. Description of the study sample is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Study sample

	Subfield of organizations		Age of organization		Turnover in 2008		No of employees	
	Red biotech	Other	Established before 2000	Established after 2000	<1mln EUR	>1mln EUR	<20	>20
No of organizations	12	3	7	8	9	6	8	7
Average			7.4 years		3.1mln EUR		27	

Source: compiled by the authors

The answers for interview questions were matched with pre-defined category (e.g. yes/to some extent/no) or taken as they were (e.g. 20% of the budget is allocated to R&D). The answers were coded in the scale from 1 to 7, where 1 marked unsupport for innovativeness and 7 support for innovativeness. If the question allowed leeway answer instead of yes/no and the interviewee used this opportunity, it was assigned 4. If the answers assumed absolute figures, terciles were calculated and scores of 1, 4 and 7 were assigned, respectively. Maximum scores for each dimension were calculated and normalised to 1. The results should thus be interpreted as proximity to the ideal state of OI's dimensions. Descriptive statistics was calculated in MS Excel and statistical analysis was performed in SPSS.

Results and discussion

Table 2 presents the means, standard errors and correlations between the dimensions of OI. Estonian biotechnology organizations' mean score of OI was 3.29.

Table 2. Mean scores and correlations between OI dimensions

OI dimension	Mean (SD)	Correlations between OI dimensions				
Overall OI (max 5)	3.29 (0.49)					
Strategic orientation to innovation	0.62 (0.15)	1				
Processes related to resource allocation	0.53 (0.16)	0.53*	1			
Processes related to work organization	0.69 (0.10)	0.27	0.21	1		
Behavior related to innovation initiation	0.70 (0.16)	0.52*	0.62*	0.49	1	
Behavior related to innovation implementation	0.74 (0.09)	0.34	0.16	0.46	0.54*	1

* Correlation (Spearman coefficient) is significant at the 0.05 level
Source: calculated by authors

Table 2 shows that the OI dimension closest to the ideal state (i. e. 1.0) among study sample is behavior related to innovation implementation, while the lowest score was obtained in resource allocation dimension. As processes related to work organization scored relatively high (0.69), this clearly indicates that H1, which suggested that this dimension would score lower compared to other dimensions, is not supported. Hence, our study does not confirm that Estonian biotechnology organizations resemble overall Estonian OC pattern with respect to control and stability orientation; on the contrary, processes that described work organization in the light of employee autonomy and freedom scored relatively high. This result may refer to the specifics of biotechnology and it is pleasing that administration of work does not hinder innovation in this sector.

To see if H2 is supported, it is tested with pairwise t-test if the score for resource allocation is significantly different from the next lowest score, strategic orientation to innovation (see Table 3). Also, the differences of other closest dimensions are tested.

Table 3. Test of significance of the mean scores for OI dimensions

Pairs of OI dimensions	t	p
Processes related to resource allocation and strategic orientation to innovation	-2.012	0.064*
Strategic orientation to innovation and processes related to work organization	-1.668	0.118
Behavior related to innovation initiation and behavior related to innovation implementation	-1.108	0.286

* Significance level 0.1
Source: calculated by authors

Based on these results, we can conclude that the only dimension that significantly differs from other dimensions is processes related to resource allocation; thus, H2 is supported. Modest resource allocation to innovation is a general problem in transition countries and given the Estonian socio-economic context it is largely inevitable. Yet, there were certain items in the resource allocation dimensions that were problematic for most respondents; it might of course be argued whether the theory suggesting to measure these items is valid generally or approproate for biotechnology, in particular. However, attention to these items is paid below in the form of suggestions for managers how to improve OI.

Firstly, most organizations had not thought about “safe space”, where employees still conduct their work, but do it out of their usual routine. Low score for that item is related to the fact that there is no agreement between the management and employees about the time that employees can devote for creating new ideas; it is seen as part of the job. Having said this, it is somewhat contradictory that innovative ideas by employees are not rewarded in most cases. Personalised rewards had been given in a few occasions when innovative idea had already materialized and generated cash-flow, but this is not part of resource allocation to innovation as such. Training and learning systems in organizations diverged sharply – new organizations were inclined to devote more time and proportion of their budget to trainings, but it was rather common for CEOs to admit that employees were trained only up to 5 days per year. Also, development of new skills instead of polishing the existing ones was not a priority in the training curricula.

In the strategic orientation dimension setting clear goals, international networking and growth orientation got the highest scores. Room for the development lies in working on formal strategic elements like mission, vision and values. Values statement was a rare phenomenom

in organizations, and innovation was only loosely integrated to vision and mission. According to theory, however, committing to innovation in formal documents has implications in practice.

There are three areas in general work organization that deserve attention in order to improve OI. Firstly, employees should have more say in choosing the projects he/she is expected to undertake. If the eemployee is told top-down what needs to be done, innovative thinking is suppressed. This relates to development discussions that according to our study are not widespread among organizations (could be due to organizations' smallness) and shortcomings in long-term planning. However, managers and employees might both win if they knew in advance the specific projects that particular employee finds suitable and appealing to carry out. Secondly, organizations have not made use of systematic rotation of employees; the size of organizations might understandably inhibit it, but only a few managers had ever thought of such need in terms of innovation. Thirdly, organizations have not been able to create successful systems for gathering ideas from employees – even if the scheme was in place, it did not deliver the expected results.

One result of the study is that behaviors that encourage both innovation initiation and innovation implementation are the strongest dimensions. Innovation implementation according to this study would benefit from a less concern for profitability: half of the CEOs would admit to looking at criteria other than commercial potential when launching a new product; a few were willing to cannibalize their existing products and services. However, the true problem areas of OI in Estonian biotechnology are rather the resource allocation and formal strategic planning.

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Appendix 1

Table A. Scores for national culture uncertainty avoidance and power distance dimensions in selected countries

Country	Uncertainty avoidance	Power distance
Hungary	82	46
Estonia	60	40
Finland	59	33
Denmark	23	18

Source: Hofstede (2001)

Table B. Relative share of business enterprise and private non-profit sector spending on R&D

Country	2007	2008
Finland	69.2	71.3
Denmark	64.2	64.7
Hungary	44.5	48.9
Estonia	41.8	33.9

Source: Eurostat

Table C. Total public expenditure on education (% of GDP)

Country	2005	2006
Denmark	8.30	7.98
Finland	6.32	6.14
Hungary	5.46	5.41
Estonia	4.92	4.80

Source: Eurostat

Table D. Research and development personnel in all sectors (% of the labour force)

Country	2007	2008
Finland	2.1	2.1
Denmark	1.61	1.63
Estonia	0.73	0.73
Hungary	0.61	0.65

Source: Eurostat

Linking Factual and Normative Cross-National Cultural Values with Entrepreneurship

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Abstract

This article investigates the links between cultural values and entrepreneurial activity in different countries, which are disputed in the current literature. The current study differentiates between normative and factual culture, and tests hypothesis on the relationship between them and entrepreneurship in 20 countries represented in the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor and Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness databases. The current study demonstrates that introduction of the two different aspects of culture, normative values and factual practices, may help resolve the inconsistency in previous results. We found that normative culture is more important than factual culture for determining entrepreneurship, and the significant dimensions of normative culture are future-orientation, collectivism and assertiveness.

Introduction

The potential for and frequency of entrepreneurship has been shown to be associated to some extent with the occurrence of certain culture specific variables (Thomas & Mueller, 2000). Studies linking culture to entrepreneurship exist, but show no consistent pattern. Moreover, current knowledge is relatively eclectic and not gathered in a comprehensive, concise form (Freytag & Thurik, 2007).

Most of the studies that have been skewed towards cultural values and entrepreneurial behavior stemmed from Hofstede's research (Hayton, George & Zahra, 2002). Particularly, previous studies that used Hofstede's dimensions of cultural differences failed to consistently demonstrate correlation between various cultural dimensions and measures of entrepreneurial activities (Davidson & Wilklund, 1997; Shane, 1993).

Given the inconsistent results regarding the culture-entrepreneurship link, we argue that previous studies have ignored an important distinction of cultural values: the duality of normative values and factual practices. By introducing the double nature of values into the research on the link between culture and entrepreneurship, we aim to fill the existing gap and contribute to clarifying the link. The theoretical foundation for our distinction between factual and normative values of culture dates back to the seminal works of sociologists Talcott Parsons (1952) and David Lockwood (1967) who both suggested that every social situation consists of a normative order, an factual order, or some substratum of the former. Normative and factual values are part of the exterior constraining the social world. Parsons' sociological theory was concerned with the "should be" as this normative stance affects social and psychological processes, social structure, and the conditions of human motivation and actions (Lockwood, 1967).

This study aims to investigate the links between cultural values and forms of entrepreneurial activity in different countries. It uses two multinational databases, one of cultural variables, the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) database and the other relating to entrepreneurship, the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM).

Perceptions of factual practices vs. normative values are available in the GLOBE database for individualism/collectivism, future orientation, assertiveness, performance orientation and uncertainty avoidance. Our study examines whether each of these various cultural values, in both their factual and normative forms, correlates significantly to different patterns of entrepreneurial behavior. This study first distinguishes between factual practices and normative values, and then explores to what extent factual and normative aspects of culture interact with various manifestations of entrepreneurial activity across 20 countries.

Based on theoretical consideration, which we will describe below, we would expect factual practices ("as is") and normative values ("should be") to be associated with entrepreneurial behaviors. We claim that the reason past research did not find consistent results on the impact of national culture on entrepreneurship is due to a persistent focus on the factual elements of culture, rather than the normative aspects that influence intentions.

For Parsons (1964), the social system as a system of action was made up of the interactions between individuals that are not random but rather mediated by common standards of evaluation. Most important among these are moral standards, which may be called norms. The regularity, or patterning, of interaction is made possible through the existence of norms that control the behavior of actors. According to Parsons, the dynamic processes with which the sociologist is concerned are those which function to maintain social structures, or, in other words, the processes by which individuals are motivated to act in conformity with normative standards.

In criticizing Parsons' book *The Structure of Social Action*, David Lockwood emphasized the non-normative elements of social action that were ignored by Parsons, because he concentrated on the normative elements of social structure and process (Lockwood, 1967).

Hypotheses

Based on the literature reviewed our *general hypothesis* expects that

Hypothesis 1. Cultural values on both the **factual** and **normative** levels are expected to be related to entrepreneurial activities.

From this general hypothesis, we develop several specific hypotheses, looking at subsets of cultural values.

Future-orientation (FO). Several scholars have emphasized the facilitative role of future-orientation for achievement orientation (Sagie, Elizur & Yamauchi, 1996). Based on a review of several studies, Raynor and Entin (1982) concluded that individuals with higher future-orientation also tend to have higher levels of achievement motivation. They engage in more planning and are more cautious in initiating new tasks because they seek stronger, more positive links between their current tasks and their desired states in a distant future. Since future-orientation has been linked to achievement-motivation and behavior, and achievement-motivation has been previously shown to be a significant correlate of entrepreneurial activities (Brockhaus, 1982), we pose the following hypothesis:

- Hypothesis 2a: Future-orientation (FO) values are expected to be related with entrepreneurial activities; e.g. individuals who express the value of planning for the future tend to be more entrepreneurial.

The Individualism-Collectivism dichotomy relates to the extent to which the self or, alternatively, the group, is the prime social identifier (Hofstede, 1997). The GLOBE research distinguishes between "institutional collectivism" and "in-group collectivism." The former focuses on the societal and organizational levels while the latter at the individual level (House & Javidan, 2004). Michael, Davis and Jeffrey's (1994) findings indicate that individualism-collectivism is an important factor in understanding entrepreneurial behavior. Individualism was proposed to promote a number of entrepreneurial activities. For example, Shane (1992) linked individualism to the level of inventiveness in a society. Alon (2005) proposed that more individualistic societies also tend to have a greater propensity to use entrepreneurial franchising approaches to business development. Following the above line of thought, we can expect that in individualistically oriented cultures, higher entrepreneurial activities will be found.

On the other hand, however, a contradictory line of thought makes the opposite claim. According to the *cushion effect*, a collectivist society provides the individual with a safety net. As a result, individuals will be less risk averse. In individualistic societies, such as that in the United States, there is no safety net and the individuals are, therefore, more risk averse. Thus, Hsee and Weber (1999) compared the risk preferences of American and Chinese individuals in investments and in medical and academic decisions. They found that Chinese people are more risk seeking than Americans in the investment domain, and claim that the difference between the risk attitudes of the two groups is a result of the cushion effect. In spite of the contradictory arguments, we hypothesize that:

- Hypothesis 2b: Individualistic values are expected to be more related to entrepreneurial activities than collectivistic values.

Assertiveness is the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies are assertive, confrontational, and even aggressive in social relationships (House et al., 1999). House et al., (2002) claim that cultures that are assertive tend to have more entrepreneurial orientation. Assertiveness values seem to serve as important feature of entrepreneurial activity in various stages. According McClelland's classic (1961) study, pro-activity, initiative, assertiveness and a strong achievement orientation are competencies of successful entrepreneurs. The picture that emerges from several studies shows that assertiveness is an important feature for entrepreneurial activity through the high need for achievement that is characteristic of masculine cultures. Given the theoretical speculation and empirical support, we hypothesize:

- Hypothesis 2c: Assertiveness values are expected to be related to entrepreneurial activities.

Performance-orientation measures the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence (Javidan et al., 2004). In GLOBE, Javidan (2004) found that societies that score higher on performance-orientation tend to value initiative taking, assertiveness and competitiveness. Furthermore, these societies tend to value and reward individual achievement and believe that anyone can succeed if he or she tries hard enough. Javidan (2004) found that culture with high performance-orientation practices scores foster leaders who value and reward hard work, ambition, high standards and performance improvement. They lead to the formation of corporations that are ambitious, hard working, competitive and successful. Thus we hypothesize that:

- Hypothesis 2d: Performance-orientation (PO) values are expected to be related to entrepreneurial activities.

Uncertainty avoidance assesses the degree to which a society's members are able to cope with the unpredictability of the future and the resulting ambiguity (de Luque and Javidan, 2004; Hofstede, 1980). Tolerance of uncertainty in a society may create a more encouraging environment for innovation (de Luque & Javidan, 2004). Shane (1993) examined the relationship between Hofstede's national cultural dimensions and rates of innovation and found that societies more tolerant of uncertainty, report higher rates of innovation than societies less tolerant of uncertainty. This line of arguments may be associated also with entrepreneurship, as innovation has been frequently associated with entrepreneurial behaviors. We, thus, hypothesize:

- Hypothesis 2e: Uncertainty avoidance (UA) societal values are expected to be negatively associated with entrepreneurial activities.

Method

To examine our hypotheses we used two major data sources: 1) the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Survey, and 2) the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM). The GLOBE research program is a long-term, multiphase, multi-method research program consisting of three phases of three related empirical studies that were conducted between 1994-1996 (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE study has nine cultural dimensions, each with separate versions for "as is" (or factual, practice) and "should be" (reflecting ideals, values, normative). The GLOBE sample included countries from North and South America, Asia, Europe, the Middle East, and the Pacific Rim. A total of 17,370 middle managers from 951 domestic organizations (excluding multinationals) in three industries completed the culture and leadership questionnaires.

The 2007 cycle of the GEM database that was used for this study collected data of respondents from 39 countries. Using population samples, the GEM project estimates the prevalence rates of nascent and new businesses in different countries. In each country, a standardized survey was administered to a representative sample of adults (18-64 years old). To test our hypotheses, we used data from 20 countries that were included in both the GLOBE and GEM surveys.

Using the two separate databases to examine our hypotheses enabled us to avoid the common method bias that frequently characterizes studies where the same respondents provide data both for the independent and the dependent variables. In contrast, our research design can strengthen the validity of the findings.

Dependent Variables

GEM identifies three different stages of the process of creating and sustaining a business. **Nascent entrepreneurs** are individuals who are in the process of trying to start a firm and have done something tangible towards this end during the 12 months preceding the interview. Individual in this category plan to become an active owner-manager of a start-up but have not paid salaries to anyone for more than three months. **New (or early-stage) entrepreneurs** are owner-managers of entrepreneurial start-ups, as defined above but have been in existence for more than three months but fewer than 42 months. **Established entrepreneurs** are owner-

managers of entrepreneurial firms that have been inexistence for at least 42 months. Finally, **Total Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA)** includes both nascent and new entrepreneurial activities. It indicates the percentage of the adult working-age population (18 to 64 years old) in a country who are classified as either nascent or new entrepreneurs, (including self-employment attempts), as defined above.

Independent Variables

The six cultural dimensions in GLOBE have their origins in the dimensions of culture identified by Hofstede (1980). The GLOBE measure of collectivism vs. individualism is derived from a factor analysis intended that resulted in two dimensions: Institutional Collectivism includes laws, social programs or institutional practices designed to encourage collective behavior. In-group Collectivism is rooted in Traindis (1995) and reflects the degree to which people have pride and loyalty in their families and organizations (House & Javidan, 2004). Future-orientation was derived from Kluckhohn and Strodbeck's (1961) past, present and future-orientation dimension, which focuses on the temporal orientation of most people in the society and is similar to Hofstede's Long-Term Orientation (1984, 2001). Assertiveness is a measure developed by GLOBE that is similar to Hofstede's Masculinity dimension. Performance-orientation was derived from McLelland's (1961) work on need for achievement, however the GLOBE measure was measured on a seven-point Likert scale One score was calculated for each value/attitude variable and each GEM entrepreneurial variable for each of the 20 countries included in our sample.

Control Variables

Gross domestic product per capita (GDPPC). The relevance of the GDP per Capita to entrepreneurship was displayed by GEM examinations (Acs, Arenius, Hay and Minitti, 2004) and in particular to control for economic effects in studies of entrepreneurship and culture (Uhlaner & Thurik, 2007). *Gini Index* (Distribution of family income): GEM data have shown that there are pervasive differences in entrepreneurial behavior in different global regions and countries according to the different income distribution.

Results

To test the hypotheses, we ran a series of OLS regressions of which the dependent variables were the 4 entrepreneurial activity variables (TEA, nascent, and young & established firms). We introduced the GLOBE scores in their factual form as independent variables in each of the 4 regressions. To avoid the multi-colinearity bias, we did not include the factual and the normative indices in the same regression. GDP per capita and Gini of the countries were added to each of the regressions as control variables.

The results of the four regressions show that none of the GLOBE scores in their *factual form* exhibits a significant relationship with the entrepreneurial activity variables after controlling for GDP per capita and Gini, thus refuting Hypothesis 1 regarding the factual variables. In contrast to the factual variables, **normative** values ("should be" items in the GLOBE study) exhibit significant relationships with each of the entrepreneurial variables with relatively high Adjusted R squares. (Table 1 insert about here)

Specifically, in the first regression with the Total Entrepreneurship Activity (TEA) as dependent variable, four values out of the six that were entered to the regression were significant, except performance-orientation and uncertainty avoidance. Together with the two control variables, the Adj Rsquare was 0.38. Of the four significant normative values future-orientation had the highest marginal impact on TEA and was the only normative value that had significant negative marginal impact on TEA.

In the second regression, using nascent entrepreneurship, four values out of the six were significant, (assertiveness and performance-orientation were significant at $P<0.1$). In this regression, institutional collectiveness had the strongest marginal impact, followed by future-orientation.

In the third regression that related to young firms only three out of six values were significant. (Group collectivism was significant at $P<0.1$) and future-orientation had the strongest marginal negative impact. Finally, in the fourth regression for established firms, only one out of the six normative values showed significant impact, group collectivism.

In all four regressions there was a consistency between the directions of each the coefficients. For example, all the future-orientation coefficients had a negative significant impact. The exception was institutional collectivism that had positive impact in three out of the four regressions. Its only negative impact was on regression for established firms.

The regression of the established firms was found to have only collectivism in group as significant independent variable. This finding may suggest that normative values are more related to early-stage entrepreneurial firms rather than to established firms. Furthermore, this finding corroborates our conceptual framework that values are related to entrepreneurs as change agents.

The Specific Hypotheses

Hypothesis 2a that expected future-orientation (FO) values to be related with entrepreneurial activities is refuted (see Table 1), meaning that future-orientated values are negatively related to entrepreneurial activities. Contrary to our expectation (2b) our results showed that the collectivistic rather than individualistic values were related to entrepreneurial activities. The expectation that assertiveness would be related to entrepreneurial activities, as expressed in 2c is clearly supported by our findings.

Hypothesis 2d that performance-orientation (PO) values will be related to entrepreneurial activities was not confirmed uniformly, other than marginally for nascent enterprises. Finally, 2e that predicted uncertainty avoidance (UA) values would be negatively associated with entrepreneurial activities was not confirmed.

Discussion

Our findings clearly demonstrate that normative values exhibit significant relationships with each of the entrepreneurial variables. In contrast, the factual attitudes do not exhibit significant relationships with the entrepreneurial variables. Overall, the findings suggest that entrepreneurs tend to refer to the future order rather to the current one.

Furthermore, out of the four significant normative values, future-orientation was found to have the highest marginal impact on total entrepreneurial activity (TEA) and was the only

normative value that had significant negative marginal impact on TEA. This may suggest the presence of a paradox. On the one hand, our results show that normative values ("should be") rather than factual attitudes ("as is") are consistently correlated with the entrepreneurial activity variables. On the other hand, the negative coefficients of the future-orientation with all the entrepreneurial activity variables seem to contradict the former findings.

These contradictory results may be interpreted by the tendency of entrepreneurs to emphasize the "here and now" especially in their early entrepreneurial stages. The unpredictable and ever-changing environment in which entrepreneurs live, leads the actors to shorter-term strategies and improvisations. In contrast, future-orientation is the basis of formal organizational strategies that by definition involves the planned future action of a firm (Trompenaars & Hamden-Turner, 1998). This interpretation may obtain support from another finding. While each of the three variables of early-stage entrepreneurship showed significant associations with the normative attitudes, future-orientation did not have a negative coefficient with older entrepreneurial activities.

Following formal theory-driven models of intentions such as Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (1991), we can argue that entrepreneurs have salient attitudes and values that are not necessarily shared with the non-entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs do not aspire to the factual order. They develop conceptions and intentions for the "should be" or normative order. Later on, as shown by Bygrave's model (1994) of the entrepreneurial process, precipitating events are part of the process, but the intentions are important dimensions in the entrepreneurial process.

We found that group and institutional collectivism were both positively associated with the entrepreneurial activity variables, refuting our hypothesis that individualistic values should be more related to entrepreneurial activities than with collectivistic values. These findings corroborate the *cushion effect*, described above. This concept, borrowed from the literature on finance, contends that a collectivist society provides the individual with a safety net, making the individual less risk-averse. This explains why collectivism values rather that individualistic ones were found to be positively and strongly related with entrepreneurial activities. These results suggest that the link between individualism and entrepreneurship that is commonly assumed in the United States (e.g. Shane, 1992) is not necessarily universal.

As Thomas and Mueller (2000) state, perhaps influenced by Weber and McClelland, the ideal profile of the entrepreneur continues to reflect the characteristics of Protestantism and achievement, was primarily developed and tested in US settings. As a consequence, the US culture of individualism and achievement has dominated the world view of entrepreneurship. Our findings regarding the relationship between collectivism and entrepreneurship question this contention.

Our findings refuted the hypotheses that uncertainty avoidance values in a society would be negatively associated with entrepreneurial activities. Uncertainty avoidance was not significant in any of the regressions.

Performance-orientation and uncertainty avoidance were deemed important to entrepreneurial activities, in general, both in their factual and normative forms. It might be that the cultural characteristics of performance-orientation (PO) and uncertainty avoidance (UA) need to be perceived as culturally context-dependent variables. Previous research leaned heavily towards US-based contexts and samples reflecting a singular orientation, while our results represent a more heterogeneous sample of 20 countries.

Arenius and Minniti (2005) found that perceptual variables had an impact on new business creation across all countries using GEM 2002 samples from 28 countries. They stated that

perceptual variables are powerful predictors of the likelihood of being a nascent entrepreneur. Our findings corroborate their findings and refine them, because normative values, such as assertiveness were found to be associated with the early-stage entrepreneurship but not with the activities in established firms. Moreover, Arenius and Minniti (2005) also showed that the introduction of country-specific effects, though significant, did not reduce the cross-country importance of perceptual variables. In this vein, we also found that the introduction of our control variables of the GDP per capita and GINI index to the regressions did not reduce the cross-country importance of the cultural variables. Together, these findings may suggest that normative, cultural values could be determinants of entrepreneurial activities or at least encourage them.

Finally, methodologically this study benefits from using independent data sources for cultural practices and values, and for entrepreneurial activities. The independence of the measurement of cultural practices and values from the measurement of entrepreneurial activities lends credibility to arguments regarding linkages between these two areas of cultural values and entrepreneurship.

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Available on request

Table 1: Cultural variables and entrepreneurship (OLS regressions)

Dependent variables	TEA	Nascent	Young firm	Established firm
C	-40.81*	-41.78**	-3.62	8.53
FO (SB) Future Orientation	-7.32**	-3.77*	-4.10*	-2.86
CI (SB) Collectivism in-group	3.47*	1.69	1.95+	4.31**
CII (SB) Collectivism institutional	5.54*	4.66*	1.52	-1.68
AS (SB) Assertiveness	2.26*	1.26+	1.04*	0.40
PO (SB) Performance Orientation	3.88	3.81+	0.50	0.17
UA (SB) Uncertainty Avoidance	2.5	3.1	2.3	2.1
GDPPC	-9.16+	-3.69	-6.11+	1.68
GINI	0.31**	0.17*	0.16**	-0.02

*P-value<0.01 ** P-value<0.05+-value<0.1

Chapter 2: Human Resource Management in Practice

The Workers Perceptions about Human Resource Management Function

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Abstract

There are different perspectives about Human Resource Management (HRM) function, which emphasises (1) specific knowledge that typifies some interventions – HRM practices such as recruitment or training; (2) the role of a regulator of relations and (3) the capability of intervention which is dependable of the degree of credibility attributed by organizational actors.

There is a gap on the literature considering the workers perceptions of HRM. Our purpose is to contribute to the definition of HRM on the perspective of workers. We analyze the perceptions of HRM in six case studies of Portuguese SME.

We argue that there are some particular factors which are more evident to workers, and play an important role concerning the impact of HRM.

Introduction

There are different perspectives about Human Resource Management (HRM) function in the literature. Legge (1995) presents an interesting clarification of the concept as she discusses the change of Human Resource management focus based on *hard* and *soft* models. The former stresses the importance of "*integration of human resource policies, systems and activities with business strategy*" (p. 34) adopting the perspective that the human resource, i.e, workers, is a production factor, passive and not able to add any value to what is being produced. The *soft* model, also underlining the need of integration between HRM policies and practices, consider the worker as an active, creative Human Resource, able to add value to organizational activity. This demands committed, motivated and satisfied workers. The focus of this model implies that HRM aims to develop human resources through commitment, leadership and communication and expect to impact organizational performance.

This dichotomy between hard and soft models of HRM has received several critics. As Guest (1999) points out "… *it either perceives workers as human resources to be exploited, with implications for exploitation through work intensification, downsizing and the general potential for disposability; or it claims to place the concerns of workers at the heart of analysis and action, but in fact does so only to exploit workers through a subtle management of their mind-set and by constructing for them a view of reality reflected in organizational culture*." (p.10) And add, to this synthesis, that there is a lack of evidence to this criticism concerning the workers point of view: "*... we simply do not have good evidence about how workers react to HRM."* (p. 10).

It seems quite central the role of the worker – or human resource – on all this discussion. At least, the worker is the main and fundamental object of HRM and is considered the indispensable mean to impact organizational performance. Although recognizing workers important role in the analysis and study of HRM, there are not much evidence about the reactions of workers to HRM (Gibbs, 2001; Guest, 2002; Chang, 2005).

The purpose of this paper is to collect some evidence concerning workers' perceptions about HRM. There are some difficulties related with this objective which we will discuss on the first part of this paper.

What is Human Resource management in workers perspective? Are there some factors by which HRM are more visible to workers? Do these factors influence the capability of intervention of the function and its impact at organizational performance?

We will present and discuss the results of six case studies of Portuguese SME.

Perspectives on HRM concept (What is HRM?)

Human Resource Management (HRM) is still not a consensual concept. Some authors will assume that HRM is, for example, an answer to organizational needs or a departmental activity (Legge, 1995). This example points out an important difference: a) HRM as an organizational activity disseminates all over the organization, as a distributed function not limited to a specific department or section and performed by all, from middle management to top management; b) as a departmental activity which demand specialization from does who perform HRM activities. This means that only some will perform HRM activities, i.e., a specialized and specific field of knowledge.

Some will contribute to HRM definition by clarifying how its performance can be understood and do so defining the HR function roles: *strategic*, i.e., to develop HR strategies and policies; *administrative*, to perform executive and every daily tasks and *employee facing roles*, such as welfare (Truss, 2009, p. 718).

Others emphasis can be on (1) the body of specific knowledge which typifies some of the interventions – HRM practices such as recruitment, training or performance evaluation – Wall e Wood (2005, p.430) definition of HRM is "… *words used to define organizational activities such as recruitment, development and management of workers*" –; (2) the role of a regulator of relations (Tyson, 1999) and (3) the capability of intervention which is dependable of the degree of credibility attributed by organizational actors (Legge, 1995).

For the purpose of this research, we considered that HRM concept integrate the following elements: HRM role (related to the organization strategy and the degree of HRM specialization), HRM practices, HRM position at organizational structure and HRM capability t intervene.

The workers perceptions

The workers perceptions about HR function are important because permits a triangulation effect on the analysis of HR function (Gibb, 2001) and also contributes to overcome some methodological difficulties such those identified by Guest (1999). The recognized vacuum of data concerning HRM effects on those who are the main purpose of its activities, do not allow sustaining any critics to HRM models which have been presented in the literature, so far. He also indicates two other reasons: (1) as the link HRM and organizational performance is being discussed, the workers perceptions will permit to understand if this relation is better explained by the *hard* model, which implies intensification or effort, or by the *soft* model, i.e. through

commitment.; (2) the growing importance of partnership and stakeholding, which give more importance to other organizational actors besides managers.

The workers perceptions also translate how HRM is implemented at an operational level. To be aware of this difference, mainly when this information is confronted with the perceptions of managers– which translate HRM' strategic role or intentions–, will contribute to the data analysis. Wright and Boswell (2002) call our attention to the importance of clarifying the level of analysis when we are analyzing HRM: when the source are top managers, we will be analyzing the strategic role of HRM while an operational level is more appropriated to data collected from operational managers and workers.

We should look for specific information, when evaluating workers perceptions of HRM.Guest (1999) suggests to inquiry workers about HRM practices as a form to identify the workers knowledge of HR function and specifically those practices which allow workers to express their (in)satisfaction or conflicts. In other words, to give *voice to the workers* (Batt *et al*, 2001).

Methodology

In this study, we conducted six exploratory case studies in Portuguese SME. The chosen methodology – case studies– were due to the nature of our research purposes and the type of organizations (Yin, 1994; Curran & Blackburn, 2001).

Four of the SME are private organizations in the field of High Tech and two are in the public sector. The sample across the organization type was an opportunity sample and the facility of access dictated who was integrated in this study.

The source of data were interviews, documents (organizational reports and web pages), and observation. On two of the case studies of the public sector SME, Focus groups were used to collect data.

For the purpose of this paper, only the results of the interviews, in a total of 41, will be reported.

We interviewed the CEO, managers, the human resource manager and workers without a leadership position, from all the different organizations. Our main purpose was to understand how HR function was perceived by workers. We also considered important to interview managers as we could, identify those factors which were more evident and particular to workers by comparing their perceptions about HRM. The interviews were semi structured, lasted between 30 minutes to two hours and were integrally transcribed. A template analysis was made (King, 1998).

We questioned about HRM definition and specifically asked interviewees for evidences to support their definition of HRM, what was the position of HRM at the organizational structure and the role of HRM concerning organizational strategy. It was also asked about HRM interventions at the operational level of organizational daily activities.

Results

HRM definition (evidences that support the definition of HRM)

There is a clear idea that HRM is a function that manages people and its importance and need grows as the number of employees in the organization increases. "*The city hall has 200*

workers, more or less. It would be very complicated if there wasn't a team to manage all these people".

HRM includes two main components: an administrative "*... Perhaps the work is morebureaucratic […] recruitment […] see holidays, dismiss people, everything, admissions […] process salaries…",* and other relational/communicational *" HRM is to help people, […] to give information, in doubts, if people needs help."*

It is also a mean of negotiation between managers and workers - "*It's a link between the politicians* [the managers] *and the worker to help to solve the problems*."

Position of HRM at the organizational structure

At the organizations were HRM function was at the top level of hierarchy, workers perceptions about its importance was high "…*The HR function should have, the person who manage this area should have lots of power inside the organization as much as the CEO […] the main asset of this organization is us, the people, so […] we had to create a department of Human Resources to understand what we could improve*…"

On organizations where HRM function was integrated at the Administrative and financial area, the perceptions of ability to intervene were lower, "*... we don't have autonomy to change […] when there are changes at the organizational structure they call us [HRM] to listen to our opinion*…".

The role of HRM concerning organizational strategy

The capability to influence the organizational strategy was only visible on the organizations where the HRM function had a specialist at the top level of organizational structure."… *we realized that we didn't know everything, so we decided to bring inside a person who help us to think about HRM*…"

Does organizations where the CEO perform the role of managing workers, but was not a specialist, it was visible that this happened just only to concentrate power and control the organization. "*The HRM can execute but have to receive orders from above to do so".*

This perception was shared by CEO and top managers but not by the workers, which recognize more clear the HRM role at the operational level as we are going to present at the following section.

HRM actions

We found a clear understanding of HRM practices and its purposes and also the recognition of HRM importance.

Workers from the public organization had clearly point out two main HRM roles, according to Truss (2009) classification: the administrative and employee facing roles. The roles were supported by the description of HRM daily activities as recruitment, performance appraisal activities or training.

Workers from other organizations added to these interventions, those which aimed workers satisfaction and motivation.

There was a general idea, when we were talking about an operational level, that HRM is a matter of all managers and not only of the specialist. "… *it means that each manager is a HR*

manager. He/she can't be manager if doesn't deal with people…". This perception is stronger when the organization holds a frame of formal and well defined HRM practices.

Conclusions

HRM is perceived by workers as an organizational activity performed by all managers in an organization and two main elements are stressed: administrative and relational/ communicational. Workers have a clear perception of the HRM practices and understand the HRM function as a disseminate function all over the organization. This is especially clear when HRM practices are well defined and formal.

It is also patent the perceived strategic input that HRM can have to organizational strategy when the HR manager is a specialist and has a hierarchical position at top level.

Workers also have a perception of the HRM function importance and its capability to intervene by its position at the organizational structure.

Although, HRM practices are important it seems that HR managers should pay more attention to communicate to workers how this function demands specialization and technical knowledge. Organizations will gain more if the HRM function is positioned at organizational structure top level as it seems workers will perceive the function as more capable of introducing changes.

This is an exploratory study and only the results from the interviews are presented which is one of the most important limitations of this study. After the analysis ad discussion of all the results, we hope to be able to increase and diversify our sample and in this way to generalize our conclusions.

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Line Managers and HRM: Values and Actions

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Abstract

Devolution of HR responsibility from the central HR function to the line has become increasingly popular in organisations. This research focuses on a case study of a local government organisation in the UK and explores the impact of gender on line managers' approaches to their HR responsibility. Gender differences were identified in line managers' relationships with their HR duties. Female line managers spent more time on their HR duties than their male counterparts and were more likely to express a wish for further training in the HR aspect of their role. They were also more concerned with sickness and absence issues than male line managers.

Introduction

The human resource function in many organisations now takes a more strategic approach than in the past (Renwick, 2009). As a result, a large proportion of human resource (HR) related tasks have been devolved to line managers from the central HR function (Cunningham and Hyman, 1999; Storey, 1994; 1992; Bach, 1994). This change has had an impact on the functions and operations of HR departments and the duties of line managers and raises issues as to how line managers and HR departments interact with one another. Of course, these changes can also impact on the experiences of employees and, indeed, can affect the overall performance of the organisation (Becker and Gerhart, 1996). However, emphasis in this study is on line managers and their HR duties.The research does not focus directly on the HR departments nor on employees as the recipients of the HR implementation. Our study is distinctive in that it searches for and highlights differences in the ways in which male and female line managers interpret their HR duties.

The paper explores the limited literature on gender perspectives on HR activities by line managers, outlines briefly the methodology used in searching for any differences in male and female behaviour and then presents the results of our investigation. A conclusion highlights our findings.

Gender perspectives on Line Managers' HRM activities

Traditionally, responsibility for HR activities has been part of the central HR function. However, as noted above, in many organisations there has been a trend towards the devolution of such activities to practising line managers. Justification for this devolution includes the widely held assumption that line managers know the needs of their employees and therefore, arguably, are in the best position to carry out HR activities. This allows the HR function to focus on more strategic aims, adopting what some have called a more 'sophisticated HRM' approach (Turnbull and Wass, 1998).

It is widely assumed, as Truss et al (2002, 60) recognise, that the strategic management of people can be, 'diffused through an organisation and can be owned and directed by line managers outside the domain of formal strategic or policy initiatives'. Becker and Gerhart (1996, 794) highlight the importance of the implementation of HR policies and procedures. They identify a 'black box' between an organisation's HR systems and its bottom line and argue, 'more effort should be devoted to find out what managers are thinking and why they make the decisions they do'.

Devolving HRM to line managers can be problematic and empirical research has highlighted the lack of effectiveness of line managers in carrying out HR responsibilities (Renwick, 2000; Renwick, 2001; Renwick, 2003). It has been estimated that 60 per cent of organisations surveyed had experienced difficulties in devolving HR activities to line managers. HR tasks are often viewed as a luxury and not a necessary part of the line manager's job. Further, line managers may be ignorant of what is expected of them and find they are provided with little support and training in interpersonal skills in order to carry out their HR activities. This can result in them failing to take on responsibility for employee development, especially where HR duties are not included in line managers' targets which encourages the perception that HR activities are optional 'add-ons' rather than being a key part of their role. Overall, line managers can be reluctant to undertake enhanced people management responsibilities.

Line managers' values and perceptions play an important part in influencing their HR work, and may be affected by their personal experiences of HR practices, exercised by their own line managers. Further, it has been suggested that line managers' own perceptions can dramatically affect the fairness with which they conduct HR practices and could even become a barrier to professional people management. Watson et al (2006) note that the importance attached to HR within the organisation is a key influence on line managers' own attitudes towards HR activities. Their research also highlights the importance of a strong relationship between the central HR department and line managers in influencing the line managers' views of HR.

A key theme to emerge from this literature is that line managers' views of HR can affect the ways in which they implement HR. A critique of many of these studies is that they ignore the impact of gender. Much debate in the 1990s was given to the topic of gender differences in an organisational context, although it seems to have attracted less attention over the past decade. Parker and Fagenson (1994) identified three main theoretical approaches. The gender centred approach assumes gender drives behaviour. The second approach argues that any differences in male and female managers are due to situational differences in the organisation. The third approach emphasises that the very nature of individuals mean they may differ from one another and one of these differences may be gender.

As Wajcman (1998) points out, research implies that managerial styles are not fixed to an individual's sex. It has been recognised that other factors such as organisational characteristics can act as constraints on management styles. Indeed, some argue that gender has no impact on the behaviour of male and female managers' leadership styles (Powell, 1993). In addition, Wajcman (1998) found that men and women both described their management style as 'consultative' with a high level of interpersonal skills. Although whether those being managed would concur with this view is debateable.

Nevertheless, differences could be found in leadership styles in laboratory, rather then natural, settings with female managers more interpersonally orientated than male managers (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). Further, there is evidence to suggest that in general, in comparison with men, women have been noted for having better social skills and, 'are more sensitive to the non-verbal communication of others' (Colwill, 1995, 28). Research has shown that women are, 'more orientated towards establishing and maintaining relationships' (Vinkenburg et al,

2000, 125) than their male counterparts. It could be argued that this helps in their HR activities and may mean that they attach more importance to their HR role, particularly as a counsellor figure for their team. Women have been described as adopting a more supportive management style than men (Nebenzahl et al, 1993). This may well have implications for how women approach the people-centred activities of HRM and may affect the outcome of a HR orientated process.

These findings on gender differences relate to management in general rather than specifically to the HRM activities of line managers. Most studies of line managers and their relationship with HRM make little mention of gender issues which serves to highlight our argument that this is an important omission.

Methodology

The majority of the empirical research on line managers and HRM is focused on the private sector. In contrast, this case study focus is on a large public sector, local government organisation (PublicSectorOrg). PublicSectorOrg serves a local population of approximately 200,000 people and employs in the region of 10,500 staff. Access to Public Sector Org was agreed in principle with senior management but it became evident that agreement in principle was not agreement in practice. Gatekeepers at lower management levels had their own criteria for agreeing or refusing cooperation. Despite these problems, every effort was made to obtain a representative group of line managers across a range of departments and to ensure an approximately equal mix of males and female line managers.

Due to the diversity of the departments and their different working arrangements, it was decided that the senior managers would arrange to distribute the questionnaire to individuals with line management responsibility in their area. The questionnaire was returned directly to the researchers to protect respondent confidentiality. It was recognised that this was not an ideal scenario and might potentially pose problems. For example, there was the possibility that respondents may see the research as management led and, in turn, this might affect the response rates. The questionnaire was distributed to the research sample of 150 line managers and 67 were returned to the researchers. This gave a very encouraging response rate for a self completed, mailed questionnaire of 45 per cent. The questionnaire data were supplemented by a small number of in depth interviews with line managers.

Results

In order to contextualise line managers' HRM activities, it is important to present a picture of line managers themselves. The key elements identified here in presenting such a picture include demographic characteristics, educational background and the line manager's years of experience within PublicSectorOrg. Although the proportion of female respondents (34%) was smaller than the number of male respondents (66%) it was sufficient to use in gender contrasts in the later analysis. Most respondents were in the 45-54 age bracket with relatively equal proportions of respondents in the 35-44 age bracket (20%) and the 55 or more age bracket (22%). A small percentage of managers (6%) were between the ages of 25 to 34. Unsurprisingly, no managers were 24 years of age or under.

The age at which the managers finished their full time education was mixed. The greatest number of respondents finished full time education at the age of sixteen (44%). However, a large proportion spent longer in full time education completing at twenty one years of age or over (30%). Despite the early ending of full time education for many, virtually all managers (96 per cent) had obtained a further qualification. The respondents surveyed had considerable experience in a managerial role with 61% having ten or more years experience working as a manager. Half of these latter respondents (50%) had spent ten or more years in a managerial role within PublicSectorOrg.

In exploring the ways in which line managers value and prioritise their HR activities, we discovered that there were no significant differences between male and female managers. Male and female line managers saw HR activities as equally important and there were no differences between male and female managers in the extent to which they prioritised HR activities.

Further, exploration of gender issues were organised around the values and perceptions of HR activities held by line managers. These values and perceptions were based on managers' responses on a strongly agree to strongly disagree five point Likert scale using 14 statements about HR activities. Low scores (<3) indicates disagreement with statement, high scores. >3 represent agreement. The statements were divided into three groups: those relating to HR as a whole, those relating to appraisal and those relating to recruitment. Only the first are reported here (Table 1). 53% of managers claimed that they found it difficult to undertake all their HR activities because of other pressures on their time, with a mean score of 3.4 Despite this time constraint, managers did seem to feel that they could carry out their HR duties to a relatively high standard (mean 3.3) Line managers obviously recognised the importance of HR to the wellbeing of their employees (3.8). Further, although HR duties did carry with them administrative duties, these were not found to be a major cause for concern (2.5).

Table 1. Line managers' views of HR activities

Statement	**Mean Score**
HR activities are an administrative annoyance	2.5
I feel it difficult to carry out HR tasks because of other pressures on my time	3.4
I have to undertake HR activities on top of my day to day job as a manager	3.4
I feel I am able to carry out my HR duties to a high standard	3.3
The absence of my staff on training programmes presents a problem in achieving day to day work objectives in my department	3.0
I feel that central HR services are out of touch with the needs of managers and their subordinates	3.1
My main motivation to carry out HR tasks is to ensure the wellbeing of my staff	3.8

Source: Questionnaire n = 68
Low score (<3) indicates disagreement with statement. Score >3 represent agreement.

The lack of gender differences in the ways in which their HR duties were perceived did not carry through to the ways in which the HR duties were performed. Further analysis of our data showed that women spend more time (mean 26.7%) on their HR duties than their male

counterparts (mean 17.1 %). This is a significant difference (p=0.032). There is a suggestion here that male and female managers are interpreting their HR activities in different ways.

In addition, there was some evidence that female line managers had a wish for more training in the HR aspects of their job than their male counterparts, although at a low level of significance (p=0.066) This result may be interpreted as suggesting a greater commitment to HR activities amongst female line managers.

To explore any differences in the nature of the HR tasks undertaken by male and female line managers, nine HR activities were identified (table 2). Managers were asked to comment on how frequently they were involved in these tasks.

Table 2. Frequency of involvement in HR activities (mean frequency score)

Activity	Score
Identifying training needs	3.2
Appraisal	3.2
Sickness and absence	3.0
Recruitment and selection	2.6
Induction	2.6
Discipline and grievance	2.3
Leavers (e.g. retirement, redundancy)	2.3
Liaison with trades unions	2.3
Determining pay	1.7

Source: Questionnaire n = 68
Note: Frequency scores based on Never (1), Rarely (2), Frequently (3) Very Frequently (4)

From these results it becomes clear that the most frequent HR activities are appraisal (3.2) and identifying subordinates training and development needs (3.2). These two HR activities could be interrelated as many appraisals focus on identifying training and development needs as part of the whole appraisal process. Sickness and absence management (3.0) was also cited as a key part of a line manager's HR role. Line managers played a less significant role in the recruitment of their staff and a large proportion (35%) were rarely involved in recruitment and selection, with seven percent having never been involved in these particular HR activities. As Hales (2005, 501) notes, 'many middle management responsibilities are rarely matched with decision making authority'. Not surprisingly, the score on recruitment and selection (2.6) was identical to the score for induction (2.6). The above mentioned were the five key activities in this list and no other activity scored over 2.5 on this scale. The general pattern described in Table 1 is also evident in each manager's assessment of which activity took up most time. Eighty five per cent of line managers reported that most of their time was taken up by one of these five key activities.

The general pattern of HR activity noted above relates to both male and female managers but, in view of the objectives of this study, it is important to look at contrasts between men and women managers

Table 3. Gender contrasts in HR activities (mean frequency scores)

	Males	Females	Significance
Recruitment and selection	2.5	**2.9**	0.037
Induction	2.4	**2.9**	0.001
Sickness and absence	2.8	**3.3**	0.000

Source: Questionnaire n = 68

Although the contrasts are not strong (only 3 out of the nine tasks showed significant differences), they are striking (Table 3).

The mean scores highlight that female line managers spent more time on certain HR activities than their male counterparts. This was the case for just three activities. Females participated more frequently than their male counterparts in recruitment and selection, induction and sickness and absence management. The highest mean score was given to sickness and absence management.

Gender contrasts were also higher in respondents listing the activities on which they spent most time (Table 4). Whereas only eleven per cent of male respondents spent most of their time on sickness and absence, no less than forty per cent of female managers did so. In contrast, males argued that it was appraisal which took up most of their time. This may be due to the nature of the appraisal process which requires a lot of administrative work which may be perceived by male managers as the main feature of appraisal. The differences between male and female line managers in time spent on appraisal and sickness/absence was highly significant.

Table 4. HR activity taking up most HR time

	Males		Females	
	n	*Per cent*	*n*	*Per cent*
Appraisal	19	42	3	13
Sickness/absence	5	11	9	39
All others	21	47	11	48
	45	100	23	100

Chi Square = 9.814 p = 0.007 n=68

Interviews suggested female managers seemed to spend more time on additional HR duties that were not necessarily formal requirements but, nonetheless, these female managers saw these activities as an important part of their role. Their approach highlights how women place a high importance on building and maintaining relationships in the workplace.

The other thing .....I try and do…(is)… I've got a girl who's come back off long term sick and I make sure I see her every week now just to review how she is really and to look at her performance and set her weekly performance targets as… well, as she' s been off quite some time and she's still not one hundred percent.

Women managers felt that as women they were better equipped to understand and deal with certain issues among staff. Some comments revealed that women line managers often exercise discretionary behaviour and may try and look more in depth at a problem with a member of staff.

I think probably myself personally, I think I'm more, shall we say, aware of the general female problems... that come across or if it is the family problems…you become more aware of people's emotional capabilities and you see the cracks starting to show. I don't think all male managers necessarily see that as they try and treat it as a text book case as you would everything else. But I do think that I try to have a bit more perspective on things and think…well…she could be doing this because of that and other factors and trying to look at that.

A similar approach was described by another woman manager,

The group that I've got are predominantly part time female employees so you never know what's going to come out-- like somebody might have gone AWOL (away without leave) but, when you look into that bit closer, it's because *of family problems and family burdens and things. But I think we (women) do get more involved emotionally with our staff. I think you can often relate to the family crisis or whatever.*

These comments would suggest that female line managers tend to adopt a more supportive management style than their male counterparts and that this is translated through the way in which they conduct their HR duties. Female line managers seem to be much more concerned with establishing and maintaining relationships with their employees than their male counterparts. A female's strong emphasis on good working relationships can translate into making her HR duties an extremely important part of her management role which, in turn, would have a positive impact on the way in which a female manager carries out her HR duties.

Although both the numerical data and interview data highlight differences in the behaviour of male and female line managers on some key characteristics, it is important to remember that, in many aspects of HRM, no significant differences could be observed. Indeed, even in an interview situation, differences were seen by some respondents to reflect individual personalities rather than intrinsic differences in male and female behaviour. As one interviewee observed,

I think its fair to say that different people handle things differently but whether that comes out as men and women...um…I don't know. I know some very good male managers and I know some appallingly bad female managers so I think it's…I'm not convinced it's related to sex.

Despite this final cautionary comment, these findings would seem to indicate some differences in the ways in which male and female line managers carry out their HR roles

Conclusion

Our results highlighted some differences between male and female line managers and their relationship with their HR duties. Women spent a larger proportion of their time on HR duties than male line managers. These comments would agree with findings in literature that women have been found to be more considerate and tend to adopt a more supportive management style than their male counterparts (Nebenzahl et al, 1993). Their more supportive values will permeate through in the way they carry out their HR duties. As Vinkenburg et al (2000, 125)

claim, women are, 'more orientated to establishing and maintaining relationships' than males. A female's strong emphasis on good working relationships can translate into what she will perceive as an extremely important part of her management duties. It could be argued that differences in underlying values are manifest in the way in which line managers conduct their HR duties.

In addition, there was some weaker evidence that female line managers have a greater wish for further training in relation to their HR duties than their male counterparts. The fact that female line managers (and some male managers) are recognising the need for professional development in the HR area of their role is a positive finding as many line managers have been found to be ignorant of what is expected of them and hence may be reluctant to take on extra HR responsibilities.

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Managers Perceptions about Employee's Acceptance of HR Practices and Its Interactions with Modifications in the HR System

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Abstract

The objective of this study is to describe the interactions between individual-level response (employees' trust and adhesion to Human Resource (HR) Management practices) and organizational-level processes (managers' implementation of new practices). The need to understand employees' perceptions in an interactional perspective, correlating these variables with the perceptions of HR managers constitutes an important field of research, integrating both perspectives in multi-level studies.

In this paper we illustrate our initial research in a multi-level research project, presenting the results of a qualitative study of HR managers' perceptions of social processes involved in HR and their employees' acceptance of HR practices. We also analysed hoe these perceptions might lead to modifications of the HR system. Our results suggest that these perceptions influence the implementation or suspension of HR practices.

1. Introduction

1.1. Social Exchange Theory and Organizational Trust

This work is based on the theoretical model of social exchange theory proposed by Blau (1964). This model assumes that trust emerges with the repeated exchange of benefits between two parties due to attitudes that produce a symmetric feedback. For example, the managers' investment in employee's empowerment, recognition and in their personal abilities might enable the development of positive behaviours towards the leader. This assumption is called "norm of reciprocity". It determines that attitudes and behaviours are mutual, positive or negative, depending on the primary input.

In the development of HRM policies for organizations, organizational trust plays an important role. Tzafrir (2005) conducted a study with 104 human resource managers in industry, services and trade. His study aimed to "assess the conditions that trigger trust, or whatever it is that makes managers accept the vulnerability present in management actions that are part of HRM "(p. 1600). In his research, trust was an important variable in the expectation of the managers, reducing the perception of vulnerability and risk. According to Das and Teng (2004) trust indicates a low level of risk that makes the individual more willing to take the risk and to act.

The results of Tzafrir (2005) show that organizational trust has an impact at the design of the HRM system. This author found significant correlations between organizational trust and high-involvement practices which have been associated with increased performance (Gould-Williams, 2003). Risk perception is an important variable on trust. The literature on this issue is clear and all theoretical models highlight the need for the existence of risk and interdependence for the existence of organizational trust (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995,

Rousseau et al., 1998). Trust is not the ignorance of risk but a willingness to take risk (Mayer et al., 1995:712). Trust is the willingness to take risk and the trust level is an indication of the amount of risk we are willing to take (Mayer et. al. 1995; Schoorman, Mayer & Davis, 2007). Thus, trust is recognized as an important process for the supervisors and employees to reduce the perception of risk involved and to improve this relationship (Whitener, 2001).

In this paper we begin to develop a new concept, employees' adhesion to HR practices using also the norm of reciprocity as an important aspect in modifying the HRM system. Employees' adhesion needs more empirical and theoretical developments. Nevertheless, this initial study shows that employees' adhesion to new practices is essential to their development or suspension. We use this new concept, based in the Social Exchange theory, in order to understand the HRM system as dynamic and interactional.

Objectives of the Study

Our aim in this exploratory study was to understand the interactional process of decision making in implementing new practices from the perspective of managers, throughout the exploration of their expectations. A second objective was to understand the importance of trust in the implementation of organizational practices (Tzafrir, 2005). The third goal was to understand the concept of adhesion of employees' to practices, exploring decisions in critical situations.

Methodology

We conducted four interviews with human resources managers, four interviews with middle managers and two interviews with top managers. The middle managers were nominated by the human resource manager, according to their availability.

The semi-structured interviews had a script which included the following thematic areas: 1. HRM Practices in the organization (performance appraisal, training, recruitment and selection, career management, retention of employees) 2. HRM Decision Making (decisions about the implementation of new HR practices or their modification) 3. Adhesion of employees to the HR practices (concept, indicators that enable adhesion: personal and organizational, results) 5. Expectations of HR Management towards the implementation of the new practices 4. HRMP and Organizational Trust.

The interviews were transcribed. The data were compiled into themes arising from the script for the interview.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 – Organizations

	Sector	Nº employees	Quality Certification	District
Organization 1	Software	230	Yes	Braga
Organization 2	Electronics	2000	Yes	Braga
Organization 3	Municipal Council	230	No	Braga
Organization 4	Municipal Council	600	No	Oporto

Managerial Decision Making

The decision about the implementation of new HR practices or their modification is made in three of the organizations we studied, by top management. In organization 1, the HR manager differs from the others and has complete autonomy in these cases "What we do is our responsibility". "Decision-making in all these organizations, related to HRM is influenced by superiors, as reported by all managers, but also by the employees "People demand a lot, and not just superiors. Everyone." (HR Manager 1).

The influence of other organizations in the same sector of activity is also taken into account by all managers as an important element in the implementation or modification of practices. This concern in these organizations can be seen as an effort to match their competitors, and not to lose employees to more attractive HRM systems (Organizations 1, 2).

The decision to implement new HRM also appears associated with the need to link the new practice to previous, namely in organization 2, the performance evaluation with the training system.

Concept of Adhesion of Employees

In this study we considered important to understand the interactional process that might exist behind the implementation of new practices. Therefore we tried to describe the concept of employees' s adhesion to HRM practices and its results in the managers' decision of implementing or suspending new practices.

The concept of adhesion in the literature has not an agreed definition, so we decided to ask managers about it, and try to understand what adhesion could mean for their organizations. Employees' adhesion begins to be identified as satisfaction with the organization, an "adhesion to the organization" (HR manager2), a satisfaction with the organization itself. HR Manager 2 told us that he measured employees' adhesion just like he measured satisfaction, as if they were the same construct: "We have a survey of employees covering a wide range of issues (...) and then we have data that show us their satisfaction." The concept is not clear and needs further empirical exploration; however managers see the employees' adhesion as an important indicator.

The next table describes the indicators that were described as determinants in the employees 'adhesion.

Table 2 – Indicators that promote employee's adhesion to HRM

HR Managers Features	Empathy
	Experience
Organizational Indicators	Organizational Culture
	Training and Preparation
	Social Influences
	Perception of Utility
	Perception of Justice
	Perception of Risk Involved
	Organizational Trust
	Top Management
	Internal Agreements between the HR Manager with Middle Management

The next table describes the result of the employee's adherence.

Table 3 – Results from the employee's adhesion to HRM

Employees 'Adherence	**Managers Expectations**	Results		
		Manager	Organization	Employees
Employees adhere to new practices	Expectations exceeded	Personal satisfaction	Implementation of the same practices in other sectors. Development of similar practices Impact on the organization's strategy	Satisfaction and other Collaborative activities of the company in the same area
Employees do not adhere to new practices	Expectations frustrated	Personal frustration, discouragement	New attempt to implement the same practice with modifications Suspension or postponement of the practice	Conflict, lack of motivation

In this initial data, the employees' adhesion was determinant to the development or suspension of the practices. This new data suggests that the HRM system is dynamic and interactional. Managers identified the adhesion of employees to HRM as a voluntary act of acceptance, or cooperation with practices or activities promoted by the Department of Human Resources "The balanced scorecard is voluntary." (HR manager 2).

Employees adhesion to new practices, appears to have a strong impact in the HR manager, therefore in the organization, through the change that he implements in the HR practices "later we extended to the whole production." (HR manager 2).

Practices of High Involvement Tzafrir (2005) and Organizational Trust

All of the managers described organizational trust as determinant in the organization. They assume that trust influences the dynamics at the organization "I think trust has a lot of influence. They know (...) I'll find a solution. (HR manager1). In the organization 1, the HR manager's has a strong power, and trust appears with relevance in the implementation of new measures. In the other organizations (1,3,4) the influence of organizational trust appears in the managers relationship with their own team, usually by delegating tasks "I delegate everything I could, because of technical trust, I have confidence in their capabilities "(HR manager4).

The results show that there is a relationship between organizational trust and decision-making daily. The top and middle management relates to trust with a general importance. The top management associates trust with loyalty in all decisions "Loyalty is very important" (Top head management 2). The middle managers also describe the importance of trust in all the decisions they make "I think the managers rely more on staff. (...) Trust is very important (...) I do not need to be afraid when I delegate (...) When I trust people I do not need to be afraid" (Middle management 4).

At the organization 1, the HR manager described that he took more risks and was more vulnerable to implement new HR practices because he trusted in his employees. The modification of the incentive plan, delegating tasks, training, were new activities that this manager identified as a result of trust, in their employees (Tzafrir, 2005). Also, organizational trust is acquiring the status of a strategic objective for this organization. The findings indicate the importance of trust in reducing the risk perceived by the manager, (Das and Teng, 2004). When the supervisor trusts, the risk is lower for him, therefore he assumes behaviours towards the employee that are commonly associated with increased performance, such as the delegation of tasks (Tzafrir, 2005). The influence of trust is clear to the managers so much that one of the respondents addresses the importance of managing the trust and not let it interfere negatively in the business decisions. Trust reduces the perception of risk involved and may increases the risk of making wrong decisions professionally (Zahra, Yaruz & Ucbasaran, 2006). When the HR manager is the main decision maker in the modification of the HRM system, organizational trust interferes in the process of implementing new practices considered good for the employees (Whitener, 2001).

When practices are rigidly formalized by Top Management, trust does not have a direct role. The practices are determined by the top management of these 3 cases, such as strategic objectives (Org 2,3,4). The interference of trust, is strongly conditioned by these factors. Take the case of internal promotions "are formalized and can only occur through internal competitions, and training. They will be based on needs identified at the beginning of the year, meeting the technical needs of the population according to mechanisms well established and clear objectives." This manager (2) does not identify the trust as an important variable in promoting further training for employees in his organization. All HR managers, top managers and middle managers assume the centrality of organizational trust and its clear role. Our initial assumption that the organizational trust reduces risk and helps managers to introduce new practices (Tzafrir, 2005) was partially confirmed by our data.

Conclusions

One of the main issues that emerged in the course of the study was the importance given to the HR function by the Top Management at the Organization. In other words, the autonomy

and power granted to the HR managers, how the function is perceived by the top management, determines the type of modifications that can be introduced in the HR system.

Therefore, future developments are needed in this area and the influence of indicators, such as the organizational trust, in the modification of the HR system, could be mediated by the power of the HR function. Also, these indicators need more empirical and theoretical development in order to understand their importance in employees' adhesion to new practices.

Employees adhesion, and the interactional HR system are important concepts that need further development. This study gave initial input to the next phase of research, as we understood that the interactions between the individual response of employees and organizational processes (implementation of new measures) must be taken into account. The importance of variables such as organizational trust cannot be viewed isolated, and its influence on changing the HRM system depends on the HR manager power. The results suggest that the modification of the expectations of HR managers due to the different responses of employees' adhesion, influences the implementation or suspension of the new practice. The employees' adhesion to new practices or activities undertaken by the HRD had clear impact on HR managers and organizations.

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Chapter 3: Meaning of Work

The Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction in the Organizational Justice and Commitment Relationship: The Case of Immigrants vs. Non-immigrants

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Abstract

Immigrants bring a different set of values from their home culture to the local labor market. Perceived organizational justice in immigrants compared to their non-immigrants peers is a possible indicator of integration. Data were collected from a sample of 100 employees composed of 37% immigrants and 63% long term residents. Findings showed that procedural and distributive justices were positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, but minor differences were found between immigrants and locals. When job satisfaction was introduced into the model, procedural and distributive justice no longer predicted commitment. A full mediation effect was found between procedural and distributive justice and organizational commitment. Results are discussed and future research is recommended.

Introduction

Employees expect their employers to treat them fairly. Fairness, equity and fulfillment of expectations have long been discussed in organizational behavior research (Adams, 1965). Perceptions and feelings of injustice and discriminatory behavior have negative ramifications on employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and other organizational outcomes. Discrimination (i.e. gender, minority groups, age, race, etc.) is a "built in" situation prevailing in organizations and in the labor market. These areas have been widely researched on the macro and micro levels. Another weak group in the labor market is that of new immigrants to a "host" country. This area has been less researched since it is more relevant to countries that absorb substantial numbers of immigrants. Such immigrants tend to bring a different set of values, traditions, work norms, etc. to their new destination. The importance of culture in general and organizational culture in particular in explaining organizational behavior issues is considerable. It takes time for immigrants to integrate into the labor market and work organizations. What happens to these newcomers during the integration phase, which can last a considerable amount of time? Are they discriminated against because of their background? Clearly there is a need to explore the ways in which their feelings and perceptions of their treatment at work differ from those of their long-term resident peers.

Israel is a country that has experienced massive waves of immigration since its founding in 1948, particularly after the Holocaust in the aftermath of WWII. However, the relatively recent influx of 1 million immigrants from the former Soviet Union within one decade from1990 to 2000 significantly affected Israeli society and work organizations. This massive wave of immigration within a period of ten years represented roughly a quarter of the total Jewish population living in Israel. It impacted considerably on the Israeli labor market and on the firms that recruited these immigrants for various types of jobs. This study is two-fold. First, it examines the impact of both distributive justice (DJ) and procedural justice (PJ) on

job satisfaction (JS) and organizational commitment (OC); and second, it tests for differences between local-born employees vs. their immigrant peers.

Procedural and Distributive Justice

Folger and Cropanzano (1998) made a compelling claim for organizational justice as an important factor in organizational efficiency and equity perceptions. More recently, Colquitt (2001) studied the impact of justice and organizational fairness. OJ is commonly divided into Procedural Justice and Distributive Justice. Procedural justice is related to decisions concerning entitlement to rewards. If PJ has been rendered, employees will feel that a procedure has been applied in a transparent way and was uniform for all workers. Thus employees feel there has been organizational fairness and justice. Procedural Justice can be a good predictor of job satisfaction and loyalty; those employees who feel they are being treated fairly may be more satisfied in their jobs. Previous research reported a positive and significant relationship between Procedural Justice and Job Satisfaction (Agho, 1993). As such it is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1: Procedural Justice is positively related to job satisfaction.

Greenberg (1990) defined distributive justice as an employee's evaluation of the fairness of rewards and the understanding that these rewards are in return for his or her contribution to work. Feelings of distributive justice are believed to contribute to job satisfaction. Accordingly, it is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 2: Distributive Justice is positively related to job satisfaction.

Both hypotheses can be related to Adam's (1965) equity theory which suggests that when there is an equilibrium between one's "inputs" and "outputs" an employee's motivation will influence organizational outcomes. A key feature of Adam's theory is that the employee's evaluation is not based on an absolute yardstick but rather works by comparison to "significant others".

Job Satisfaction

Odom, Boxx and Dunn (1990) characterized job satisfaction as a positive or negative feeling towards one's place of work. Job satisfaction can be divided into "intrinsic" and "extrinsic" components (Tang, and Gilbert, 1996). (See Hypotheses 1 and 2 above).

Organizational Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) proposed classifying commitment into three dimensions: affective, continuous and normative. Studies typically examine affective commitment since it refers to one's free will to behave in a certain way (Loscocco, 1989; Cropanzano and Folger, 1991; and Tremblay, Sire and Balkin, 2000). Here it is argued that organizational commitment can be affected by an employee's feelings of procedural and distributive justice. Thus it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 3: Procedural Justice is positively related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4: Distributive Justice is positively related to organizational commitment.

Background: Long term residents and Immigrants

Employee expectations, work behavior and work performance vary among cultures (Redding, 1990). When moving to a different country, new immigrants may feel inferior to long term residents. Their social networks are much less developed and relationships with locals can be hesitant and at times suspicious. Such feelings also exist at work in relationships to managers and immediate supervisors. Thus it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 5: Employee background (Residents (0) vs. Immigrants (1) will be negatively related to Distributive Justice.

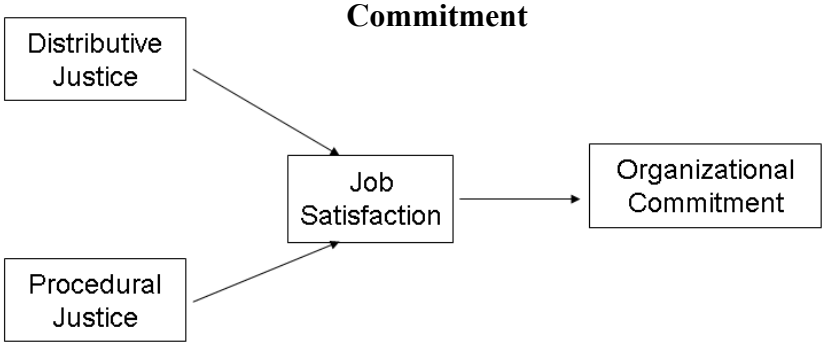
Hypothesis 6: Employee background (Residents (0) vs. Immigrants (1) will be negatively related to Procedural Justice.

Hypothesis 7: Background (Residents (0) vs. Immigrants (1) will be negatively related to Job Satisfaction.

Hypothesis 8: Background (Residents (0) vs. Immigrants (1) will be negatively related to Organizational Commitment.

Below a model is presented that tests the concurrent impact of procedural and distributive justice on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Then, the mediating effect of JS on the link between Justice and OC is examined.

Figure 1: Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment



Method

Sample. Data were collected in one of the largest soft-drinks companies in Israel that employs close to 900 employees. In order to obtain a balanced sample that included long term residents (or native born Israelis; henceforth "residents") and immigrants we constructed a sample composed of 100 employees of whom one third were immigrants and two thirds were residents. A structured questionnaire based on commonly used constructs was distributed during working hours with the management's approval. The questionnaires (in Hebrew and in Russian) were returned directly to the research team who was on site to provide any help required, particularly to the immigrants.

Translation back-translation

The back-translation technique is advocated in cross-national studies to demonstrate questionnaire reliability (Brislin, 1980). The questions were translated from English to

Hebrew for the residents and into Russian for the immigrants, and then retranslated back into English. No significant differences were found between the translated and the original items.

Sample Characteristics. The sample was made up of 67% males; however, within the immigrant population, 87% were males as compared to 56% for the residents. The immigrants were relatively older as compared to the residents. Level of education for both the immigrants and the residents indicated that 57% possessed at least a Bachelor's degree. Residents occupied higher ranking job positions than the immigrants. Finally, the immigrants had been working with the firm longer than the residents. The average tenure among the immigrants was 11.2 years as compared to 6.3 years for the residents. These figures indicate that the labor turnover among immigrants is lower that among residents, probably due to fewer openings on the labor market. Thus, once immigrants have a job they tend to hold on to it.

Instruments. Scales commonly used in organizational behavior research were used. Respondents were asked to answer on a 5- point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). In the four instruments, several of the items were reverse-coded. All four Cronbach Alphas reached the acceptable required level.

Procedural Justice. We employed the Price & Muller (1986) scale that is comprised of 5 items that refer to the organizational fairness of one's investment, responsibility, etc.

Distributive Justice. We employed the Saylor & Wright (1992) andTang & Sarsfield-Baldwin (1996)scale that is comprised of 7 items that refer to organizational fairness in sharing rewards among employees.

Job satisfaction. We employed the Brayfield & Rothe (1951)scale that is comprised of 5 items that refer to employee job satisfaction at work.

Organizational Commitment. We employed the Allen & Meyer (1990)scale that assesses affective commitment and is comprised of 7 items that refer to one's identification with the organization and one's willingness to spend the rest of one's working life in the organization.

Results

Table 1 shows the inter-correlations between study variables. Distributive Justice was positively related to Job Satisfaction ($r=.49$; $p<.01$) and Organizational Commitment ($r=.39$; $p<.01$) confirming Hypotheses 1 and 2. Similarly, Procedural Justice was positively related to Job Satisfaction ($r=.47$; $p<.01$) and Organizational Commitment ($r=.36$; $p<.01$) confirming Hypotheses 3 and 4. Surprisingly, only the relationship between background and Procedural Justice was significant ($r=-.27$; $p<.01$) confirming Hypothesis 6, whereas Hypotheses 5, 7 and 8 were not confirmed. In other words, among residents, procedural justice was more important than for immigrants. For the other study variables there was no significant difference between residents and immigrants.

Table 1: ***Intercorrelations among Study Variables for the total sample***

Variable	1	2	3	4
Distributive Justice	.94(1)			
Procedural Justice	.49**	.66(1)		
Job Satisfaction	.53**	.47**	.78(1)	
Organizational Commitment	.39**	.36**	.53**	.61(1)
Background (0=Resident; 1=Immigrant)	-.04	-.27**	-.08	-.09

*p< .05, **p< .01

Note 1. The coefficient alphas for the whole sample are along the diagonal. (1) 0.6-0.7 indicates acceptable reliability.

Note 2. The demographics did not correlate JS and OC significantly.

Multivariate Regression Analysis. Following bivariate hypothesis testing, the model was subjected to a hierarchical multivariate regression analysis.

Table 2: ***Hierarchical Regression Models for Job Satisfaction & Organizational Commitment***

Variable	Job Satisfaction			Organizational Commitment			
	M-1	M-2	M-3	M-1	M-2	M-3	M-4
Age	.08	.14	.15	-.04	-.01	.01	-.06
Education	.14	.14	.04	.07	.06	-.01	-.03
Background (0=Resident; 1=Immigrant)		-.13	-.05		-.08	-.02	-.01
Distributive Justice			.38**		.	.29	.12
Procedural Justice			.28**			.21	.09
Job Satisfaction			-			**	.44**
ΔR^2	.02	.01	.32**	.01	.01	.18**	.12**
Adjusted R^2		.01	.32**	-.01	-.02	.15**	.27**

*p < .05, **p < .01

Note. The values in the table are standardized regression coefficients

In the first model, we tested the predictors of the dependent variable, job satisfaction. In the first step, the demographics were entered but no significant differences were found. In the second step, background (residents vs. immigrants) was entered. Similarly, no significant differences were found. In the third step, Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice were entered and showed significant impact on job satisfaction (β=.38; p<.05 and β=.28; p<.05, respectively).

In the second model, we tested the predictors of the dependent variable, organizational commitment. In the first and second steps, demographics and background were entered, revealing no significant relationship. In the third step, Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice failed to show a significant impact on organizational commitment.

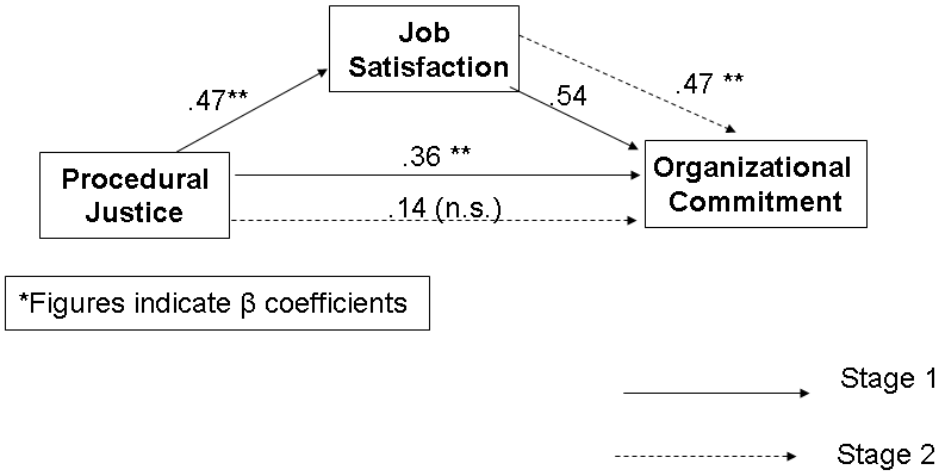
In the final step, job satisfaction was found to be significant (β=.44; p<.01). In other words, the difference between the two models is that when tested on job satisfaction, PJ and DJ were

significant but when tested the model on OC, DJ and PJ ceased to be significant for JS. Both models showed R^2 of 36% for JS and 31% for OC. These results indicate that JS might mediate the link between both DJ and PJ and OC.

Job Satisfaction mediates the link between Justice and Organizational Commitment

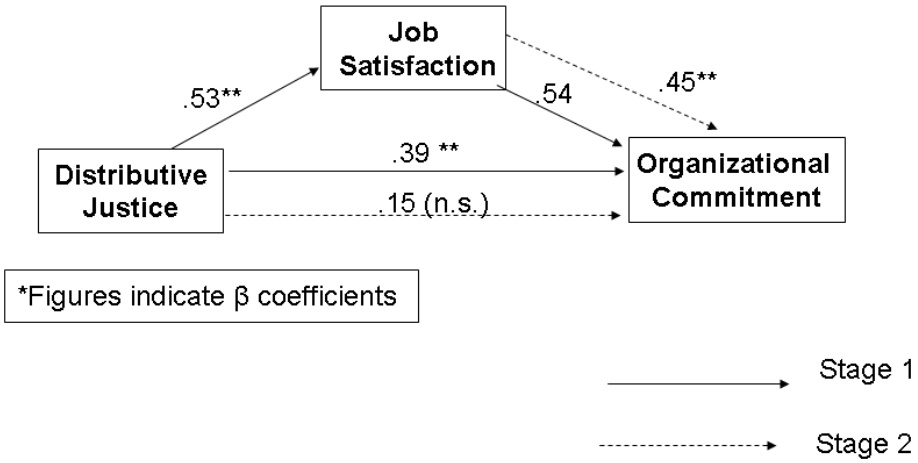
In order to test for a possible mediating effect of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Procedural Justice and Organizational Commitment we performed multiple testing as originally suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The method to identify a mediation effect is based on three conditions: first, a significant relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable; second, a significant relationship between mediator variable and the independent variable; and third, testing the concurrent relationship between the independent variable and the mediator variable with the dependent variable. If the relationship between mediator and the dependent is significant and the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables ceases to be significant, then full mediation is obtained whereas if the latter relationship decreases but remains significant, partial mediation is obtained. The results of the mediation test are presented in Figure 2 and Figure 3.

Figure 2: Mediation of Job Satisfaction between Procedural Justice and Organizational Commitment



The mediational effect of Job Satisfaction on the link between Procedural Justice and Organizational Commitment. The first condition for a significant relationship between Procedural Justice and Organizational Commitment was met (β=.36, p <.01). The second condition requiring a significant relationship between Procedural Justice and Job Satisfaction was met (β=.47, p <.01). The third condition requiring a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and the Organizational Commitment (β=.54, p <.01) was found and decreased to (β=.47, p <.01). The relationship between Procedural Justice and Organizational Commitment decreased from β=.36 (p <.01) to β=.14 (n.s.) indicating that there was full mediation of Job Satisfaction between Procedural Justice and Organizational Commitment (see Figure 2).

Figure 3: Mediation of Job Satisfaction between Distributive Justice and Organizational Commitment



The mediational effect of Job Satisfaction on the link between Distributive Justice and Organizational Commitment. The first condition for a significant relationship between Distributive Justice and Organizational Commitment was met (β=.39, p <.01). The second condition requiring a significant relationship between Distributive Justice and Job Satisfaction was met (β=.47, p <.01). The third condition requiring a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and the Organizational Commitment (β=.54, p<.01) decreased to (β=.47, p<.01). The relationship between Distributive Justice and Organizational Commitment decreased from β=.39 (p <.01) to β=.15 (n.s.) indicating that there was full mediation of Job Satisfaction between Procedural Justice and Organizational Commitment (see Figure 3). These two mediation analyses were repeated for the two groups (residents and immigrants) and showed similar results (available upon request).

Discussion

This study assessed putative differences between local-Israeli born workers who grew up in an Israeli culture vs. immigrants who were not born in Israel and who grew up in a different culture and brought it to the new labor market and organizations. Surprisingly, in this study resident vs. immigrants differed only as regards PJ but not for DJ, JS or OC. In the first stage we found significant correlations between the study variables and the hypotheses, but not for Background of the employees. In the regression analysis Background failed to differentiate between the two groups. A possible explanation for the lack of difference between the two sub-groups is the fact that differences over time may decrease, and after several years in the new country immigrants absorb the local culture and develop perceptions and attitudes similar to those of more long term residents. To explore this eventuality we compared the average years of employment with current employer and found that immigrants had a significantly higher tenure; namely 11.2 years that the locals 6.3 years (p<.01). The fact that in the regression model PJ and DJ showed a lack of significant relationship to OC indicates that JS plays a mediating role in this link.

Managerial Implications. In spite of these study limitations that may explain the lack of differences between residents and immigrants, the findings still have implications for organizational life. Job satisfaction plays a major role in influencing outcomes such as commitment, turnover and performance. The findings here show that JS fully mediates the relationship between DJ and PJ with OC. Hence, employers who want to increase their employees' OC should make an effort to increase PJ and DJ but still bear in mind that JS plays a major and a stronger role.

Study limitations. This study has two possible shortcomings. First, the sample size was 100 employees of whom one third were immigrants and two thirds were locals. In fact this was the total population of immigrants in the company. Second, the immigrants in this study had a relatively longer tenure than the locals. This led us to posit that the immigrants had weaker social networking connections, and would stick to their jobs, thus explaining the relatively low labor turnover.

Future Research. Future research could explore a different national culture that changes over time and also examine changes in organizational culture. Would organizational culture develop differently when affected by the different national culture that immigrants bring with them to the new country? The second intriguing question is the period of time required for immigrants to become integrated. In other words, at what point does the difference between locals and immigrants vanish and cultural differences no longer play a role? An additional possible angle is to compare immigrants from different countries.

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Psychological Health and the Meaning of Work

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Abstract

Work occupies a prominent place in our society. Nevertheless, the definition of what work is, its organization and relative position when compared to other areas of life has suffered several changes. It is also known that work has an impact on workers, on their satisfaction, motivation and well-being, and consequently on individual and organizational outcomes. Workers' health is on organizations' current agenda. This may be the opportunity to reorganize work and rethink the role job plays, all while taking into account workers' expectations about the future and promoting workers' engagement with the organization.

Our research provides an alternative approach to the relationship between psychological health and the meaning of work, thus aiming to identify the meaning of work based on the worker's level of perceived psychological well-being. Data was collected through a questionnaire (adapted from MOW, 1987) and applied to 235 Portuguese workers. The analysis of the results shows that the most important things in participants' lives are family and health, whereas leisure comes last. About 86.0 % of the respondents reported that if they had enough money to live at ease without having to work for the rest of their lives, they would still choose to continue working. Results show differences in the way people define work and in their levels of well-being; i.e., workers with higher levels of well-being define work using less instrumental definitions. Results do not reveal differences in work centrality between individuals with higher or lower well-being.

Introduction

Since the 1980s, the world has faced the deterioration of working conditions, resulting in adverse effects on employee health (Morin, 2000). The Fourth European Working Conditions Survey (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2006) showed that, in 2005, 20 % of workers in the EU-15 and 30 % of the ten new member countries of the European Union believed that their health was threatened because of risks associated with work and stress at work. In addition, in 2002, the economic cost of work stress in the EU-15 had been estimated at 20 000 million Euros.

Work and working are an integral part of human life (England & Whitly, 1990). An employed person spends a lot of time working, preparing and training for work. Moreover, "work can be an anchor of psychological well-being, a way of establishing identity and maintaining self-esteem" (Kets de Vries, 2001, p. 101). Several clues suggest that the nature of work has changed in recent decades, although "it may be impossible to identify clear chains of cause and effect, it is possible to highlight changing environmental conditions and likely concomitant changes in the meaning of working" (MOW, 1987, pp. 8-9).

Literature has proven the relationship between the meaning of work and stress, in that workers who attach more meaning to their work reveal less stress than others (e.g., Isaksen, 2000). The present study provides an alternative approach to the relationship between psychological health and the meaning of work. Therefore, it tries to identify the meaning of work based on the level of perceived psychological well-being. Our main argument in this paper is that lower or higher feelings of well-being are associated with the different meaning each individual attaches to work.

Psychological health

According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2001), health does not merely consist in the absence of disease or disability, but also in a state of complete physical, mental and social condition. WHO also defines mental health as a state welfare that allows the individual to adapt and adjust to the demands of normal life; it also allows the individual to work efficiently and productively, and make his or her contributions to community.

WHO (2001) recognizes that work and the conditions under which it takes place have impacted on mental health, stress, inequity, discrimination, etc. Warr (1985) has reviewed the literature on the relationship between unemployment and health, and has concluded that unemployment clearly impairs psychological well-being. Therefore, work is important for maintaining workers' well-being.

In the literature it is possible to find several models of stress and well-being, for instance, the model of cognitive evaluation, stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and the Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). These models address the process in different ways; however, all argue that context (e.g., workplace) and its characteristics promote either stress or well-being, and this will obviously have different outcomes.

It is known that psychological states can lead to different perceptions, attitudes and behaviors. Some examples of this are the works based on Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model (1976) that advocates that positive psychological states can lead to positive attitudinal, perceptional and behavioral outcomes (e.g., high intrinsic motivation, high job performance, high job satisfaction, low absenteeism, and low turnover).

This is the idea that the present study tries to apply to the relationship between psychological health and the meaning of work through the question: may psychological health states help identify the meaning that a individual gives to his or her work? Our goal is then to identify the meaning of work based on the level of perceived psychological well-being. So far we have no knowledge of any other study trying to answer this question and meet this goal.

The Meaning of work

The meaning of work for an individual has often been discussed in different contexts. Nord, Brief, Atieh and Doherty (1990, p.21) started a chapter with the following question: "What is the meaning of work?". Their answer shows how difficult the definition of the meaning of work is; it "is a question which has intrigued humanists and social scientists alike" (Nord et al., 1990, p.21), and yet the definition remains unclear and ambiguous (Šverko & Vizek-Vidović, 1995).

Šverko and Vizek-Vidović (1995, p.3) stated that "[b]asically, the concept refers to the set of general beliefs about work held by an individual, who acquires them through interaction with

the social environment." The literature is consensual as to the fact that the "meaning of work is determined by the choices and experiences of the individual and by the organizational and environmental context in which they work and live" (MOW, 1987, p. 15). If the meaning of work is determined by context experiences, perhaps it makes sense to think that different psychological states, which are products based on these experiences, will make different contributions to the meaning of work and to how workers perceive and define work.

There are three main approaches that characterize the study of the meaning of work in social sciences. Some researchers have attempted to determine the meaning of work for individuals by studying their work values or the goals they try to attain through their work. The sense of work may be defined as orientation towards work, or what guides the individual's actions concerning his or her research work and goals. This leads us to determine the values associated with work (MOW, 1987; Super & Šverko, 1995). Another line of research has focused on the study of the importance of work in people's lives, using concepts such as work centrality. Morin (2000) includes in this line of research the representations of a person's activity and the value he or she attaches to it. This way of defining the direction of work has made it possible to determine patterns in the definition (MOW, 1987) or the centrality of work (Morse & Weiss, 1955). Thirdly, the meaning of work can be conceptualized as an effect of coherence between the individual and the work he or she performs, the degree of harmony or balance he or she achieves in relation to work (Morin, 2000). Studying the effect of working in a context of consistency can be part of the theoretical approach person-job fit.

A remarkable study has been conducted by the Meaning of Work International Research Team (MOW), a group of researchers from eight different countries who have a broad project and scientific work on the meaning of work. In 1987, in a book entitled *The Meaning of Working*, they pointed out the importance of studying the meaning of work and the need of expanding the theoretical and empirical knowledge.

The present study focuses on the meaning of work following the second research line, i.e., the importance of work in people's lives, using concepts such as work centrality – how central or important the role of working is in workers' lives and how workers define work.

In a study about the meaning of work and work definitions in cross-national samples from six countries, the authors (England & Whitely, 1990, p.99) concluded that: "approximately one-half of these people view work positively in terms of work values or in terms of how they define working." In the literature there is evidence that there are individual differences in the meaning of work according to age, education and occupation. People in higher skilled jobs perceive their work as being more important than those in lower skilled jobs. Young people display a stronger pro-work ethic than older people, and those with graduate education expect more intrinsic outcomes from their work than those with less education (Locke & Taylor, 1990). For instance, Šverko, Jerneić, Kulenović & Vizek-Vidović (1995) in a study on life roles and values in Croatia globally found that the importance attributed to leisure decreases with age, while the importance of family and work increases.

Method

Procedure

It was our aim to recruit as many participants as possible from different backgrounds. To meet this goal, we used the "snowball" method, which allowed us to minimize costs. Approximately 30 people were approached, and each was asked to recruit ten other people to

answer the questionnaire. These ten people were invited, in turn, to distribute the questionnaire to their contacts. Once these people had completed the questionnaire, they forwarded it to the researchers.

Measures

The questionnaire used in this study included scales measuring the following:

a) Work definition (participants had to rank 14 statements that help distinguish work from other areas of life; e.g., "You do it in a working place"; six point-likert scale, from 1= Totally disagree to 6= Totally agree; adapted from MOW, 1987).

b) Centrality of work (6 domains of activity were given and each participant had to sort them hierarchically: community, family, work, leisure, health and spiritual life; adapted from MOW, 1987). We also asked if the participants had enough money to live without having to work for the rest of their lives, what they would do in terms of work (abandon work, keep working in the same job, or keep working under different circumstances).

c) Psychological well-being indicators (7 statements, α=0.784; e.g. "I felt full of energy", adapted from Morin, 2000). The psychological well-being index was recoded into two groups based on mean and one standard deviation, either below (lower well-being) and above (higher well-being).

Sample

The 235 people who responded to the questionnaire are on average 36.58 years old (standard deviation=10.32 years). Among these respondents, 62.1 % were female and 37.9 % male. In regard to the education level of participants, 14.9 % had a basic diploma, 36.6 % had a high school diploma, and 47.2 % held a university degree. Furthermore, respondents held different but generally high skilled jobs (e.g., teachers, psychologists, physicians, social workers, engineers, secretaries, publicists, consultants from various sectors, etc.). As to their tenure within the organization for which they were working at the time of the questionnaire, 42.2 % of the participants had less than 5 years, 20.9 % had between 5 and 10 years, 12.2 % had between 10 and 15 years, and 24.8 % had over 15 years. 10.1 % of the participants worked in a non-profit organization, 57.9 % in a state organization, and 28.9 % in a private organization. Finally, 44.9 % of the respondents were working in an organization with fewer than 100 employees, 32.6 % with over 500 employees, and 22.5 % with 100 to 500.

Results

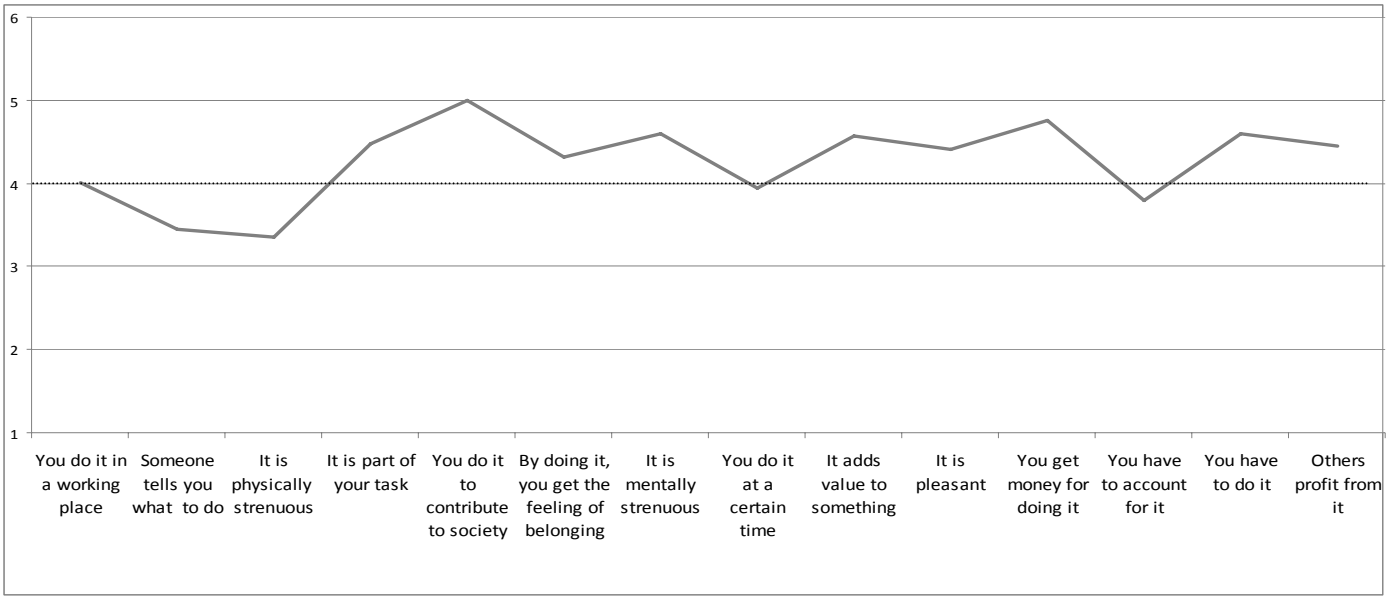
How is work defined in our sample?

Globally, the participants defined their work using the following statements: "Contribute to society", "Get money for doing this," "It is mentally strenuous," and "Adds value to something." Statements like "[s]omeone tells you what to do", "[y]ou have to account for it," and "[i]t is physically strenuous" cause less agreement (Graphic 1).

Results based on a paired-samples test reveal that the statement "[y]ou do it to contribute to society" has a higher occurrence and higher significance in comparison to other statements.

"Someone tells you what to do" and "[i]t is physically strenuous" have a less significant mean when compared to other statements.

Graphic 1. Means of work definition

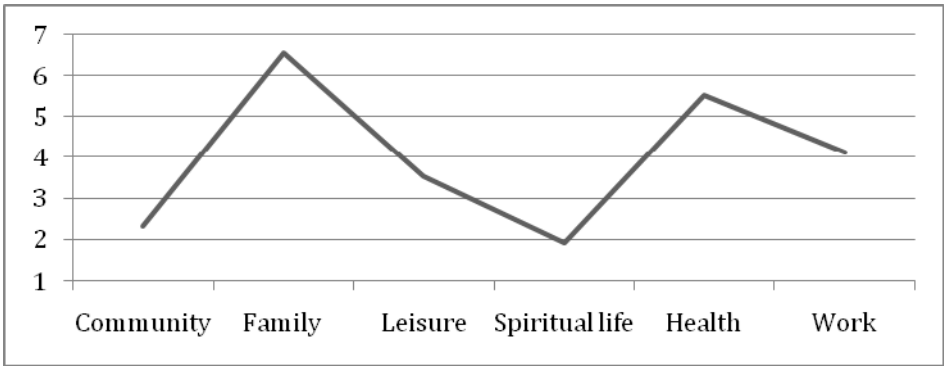


Note. Answer scale from 1= Totally disagree to 3=Disagree and 4= Agree to 6= Totally agree

How central is work for the participants?

The ranking of life-role salience revealed that family occupies a central place in participants' lives, and it is followed by health. Work is in third place followed by leisure. Spiritual life is less central; it comes after community (Graphic 2).

Graphic 2. Life-role salience



Note. The paired-samples test reveals that all means are statically different

When we asked the participants if they had enough money to live without having to work for the rest of their lives and what they would do in terms of work, 86,8 % said that they would keep working (12,8 % in the same conditions and 74% under different circumstances).

How different is work defined by workers with lower well-being and workers with higher well-being?

From the comparison between individuals with higher and lower well-being and the statements used to define work, the results show that individuals with higher well-being tend to describe work using more statements like: "You do it to contribute to society," "By doing it, you get the feeling of belonging," and "It is pleasant" (Table 1).

Table 1. *T-test* results regarding the definition of work

	Groups based on well-being level	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test (df), *p*
You do it in a working place	Lower well-being	4.05	1.313	0.605 (218), *p*= 0.546
	Higher well-being	3.94	1.370	
Someone tells you what to do	Lower well-being	3.54	1.035	1.906 (218), *p*=0.058
	Higher well-being	3.27	1.045	
It is physically strenuous	Lower well-being	3.47	1.182	1.424 (219), *p*=0.156
	Higher well-being	3.24	1.142	
It is part of your task	Lower well-being	4.43	0.965	-1.045 (219), *p*=0.297
	Higher well-being	4.57	1.035	
You do it to contribute to society	Lower well-being	4.85	0.930	-2.527 (218), *p*=0.012
	Higher well-being	5.16	0.876	
By doing it, you get the feeling of belonging	Lower well-being	4.19	1.088	-2.091 (219), *p*=0.038
	Higher well-being	4.50	1.037	
It is mentally strenuous	Lower well-being	4.55	0.978	-0.890 (217), *p*=0.374
	Higher well-being	4.67	1.008	
You do it at a certain time	Lower well-being	3.97	1.389	0.442 (217), *p*=0.659
	Higher well-being	3.88	1.402	
It adds value to something	Lower well-being	4.47	0.952	-1.380 (216), *p*=0.169
	Higher well-being	4.66	1.116	
It is pleasant	Lower well-being	4.22	1.058	-3.090 (212), *p*=0.002
	Higher well-being	4.68	1.114	
You get money for doing it	Lower well-being	4.69	1.008	-0.944 (215), *p*=0.346
	Higher well-being	4.82	1.053	
You have to account for it	Lower well-being	3.79	1.005	0.510 (218), *p*=0.610
	Higher well-being	3.72	1.216	
You have to do it	Lower well-being	4.58	1.049	-0.184 (219), *p*=0.854
	Higher well-being	4.61	1.122	
Others profit from it	Lower well-being	4.49	1.064	0.860 (216), *p*=0.391
	Higher well-being	4.36	1.180	

How central is work forpsychologically healthy workers and non-healthy workers?

When comparing the average importance given to each area, depending on the well-being score (high or low), the results show that differences lie only in the average importance attached to health. Healthy individuals tend to assign more importance to health (Table 2). No other differences were found.

Table 2. *T-test* results regarding life-role salience

	Groups based on well-being level	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test (df), *p*
Community	Lower well-being	2.35	1.109	0.610 (206), *p*=0.0543
	Higher well-being	2.25	1.164	
Family	Lower well-being	6.60	0.806	0.647 (206), *p*=0.518
	Higher well-being	6.53	0.774	
Leisure	Lower well-being	3.58	1.455	0.283 (206), *p*= 0.778
	Higher well-being	3.53	1.207	
Spiritual life	Lower well-being	1.92	1.564	-0.094 (205), *p*=0.925
	Higher well-being	1.94	1.692	
Health	Lower well-being	5.37	1.379	-2.210 (205.966), *p*= 0.028
	Higher well-being	5.77	1.236	
Work	Lower well-being	4.17	1.469	0.682 (206), *p*=0.496
	Higher well-being	4.03	1.374	

There were no significant differences when comparing lower and higher well-being groups [χ^2=0.677; *p*=0411] concerning the question if workers had enough money to live without having to work for the rest of their lives what they would do in terms of work.

Discussion and Conclusion

The present study has provided an alternative approach to the relationship between psychological health and the meaning of work. Our hypothesis stated that individuals with lower or higher levels of well-being will define and perceive work in a different way. This hypothesis was partially confirmed. There are differences regarding the characteristics used to define "work": healthy individuals tend to use less instrumental aspects. However, the centrality of work does not differ between the two groups. This result may be explained in view of the sample characteristics, since most of the respondents have high skilled jobs. As Locke and Taylor (1990) concluded, there are several demographic variables that influence the meaning of work and which were not controlled in this study, since our sample was very homogeneous.

Similarly to other studies (e.g., England & Whitely, 1990), work seems to enjoy a central place in a individual's life. When participants were asked what they would do in terms of work if they had enough money to live without having to work for the rest of their lives, 86,8 % said that they would keep working. This answer shows how important work is. The

ranking of role-salience complies with the literature (e.g., Šverko et al., 1995): leisure is the least important, while family and work are the highest values. This may be linked to the age of our participants; for instance Šverko et al. (1995) show that the importance attributed to leisure decreases with age, whereas the importance of family and work increases.

In future studies the sample should be more heterogeneous regarding demographics variables (e.g., low and high skilled jobs). The control of these variables could help support our hypothesis. Nevertheless our results show that we should continue to look for the meaning of work as an outcome of psychological states.

As for human resource management, the findings underline the need to take into account the similarities and differences in the individual meaning of work when designing and implementing organizational development and training interventions.

Studying work meaning is important, since "[p]eople not only develop work meaning as a result of their experiences with work and work conditions, but they use work meanings in changing organizations and social structures" (MOW, 1987, p.7). Brief and Nord (1990, p.1) reinforced that "[o]ur research questions [concerning the meaning of work] are not purely academic. It will be shown that meanings attached to work spill over and help to create the economic, political, and social texture of society. Moreover, work has real personal and social consequences. For the worker who finds dignity and pride in his work and for the one who sees her work only as a means of sustaining her family, the nature of work and its ramifications are obvious."

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Motivation at the Heart of the Crisis- Cutting Expensses vs. Mistreating Employess – Three Personal Stories

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Abstract

This paper shows that we can learn important lessons from employee-employer relations during times of crisis. We will explore this via three personal stories.

During a crisis, employers tend to take employees for granted, viewing them as captives, unable to move or present any threat to their employer. Employees are forced to do exactly as they are told. This leaves them very little room for self actualization, for building competence and for being creative .

Treating employees in this fashion, it will be argued, leads to poor performance (especially in times when one needs to be very creative), unhappiness, and work "by the book", in other words, where employees are doing only what they are evaluated for.

Consequently, employees who have alternatives (who are usually the best) leave the organization as soon as the crisis is over.

Employers pay the price for such behavior in times when they can least afford to.

The paper is based on personal stories which highlight the "hidden" aspects of such behaviors and their implications for both management and organizations.

I will conlcude with suggestions for policies that can be implemented today to prevent employees from leaving an organization after a crisis, and other recommendations for steps to be taken during the next crisis.

Introduction

In recent years there have been growing interest and concern with the question of how companies can retain good employees and how they can cope with wild fluctuations in the business environment, for example, the recent financial crisis (Boxall, 1999; Bufe et al., 2004)

Coping with a changing business environment successfully may mean– in the eyes of management – reducing salaries while increasing the workload of each employee.

This also puts pressure on managers which in many cases results in improper behavior towards their employees (Brockner, 2003).

These misbehaviors, coupled with a reduction in employees' benefits and a deterioration of other terms of employment, make employees feel abused. In many cases, actions and verbal exchanges with disgruntled employees may put greater pressure on employers as well, making the situation even worse.

However, difficult economic times can also lead to exploitation of employees, coupled with disregard for the human aspects of work.

Deteriorating relations in the workplace can then lower the observed level of performance to its lower bound – the level of doing just what is needed and no more. (Edvardson, 2000) This is not enough for a competitive global marketplace.

Personal stories

The first employee to tell his story is a middle manager, who has been working in a high tech company for 6 years, advancing in a slow (some will consider it normal) pace.

He was basically liked by his superiors, but was not considerd a "high performing" employee. As opposed to many of his friends, he did not leave the company when opportunities arose, and remained (some would call it loyalty) with the company even when he received better offers from other companies (the company in turn, showed him some gratitute along the way).

When the crisis struck, he was ready to do everything so that the company can survive (of course, within reasonable limits). He tried to show loyalty to his superiors.

However, as the crisis progressed, he felt (and also received concrete proofs) that as compared to many other employees, he was being mistreated both in term of a pay cut he was forced to agree to and in terms of the heavy work load he was forced to take upon himself.

The final confirmation of his worst fears and bad feelings came when he accidentaly overheard his boss tell the vice president of the company that now they could make him (the employee) do what ever they wanted since after being 6 years with the company, and in the face of the current economic crisis, he had nowhere to go, and he depended on the company for his livelihood.

From that moment on – he did the absolute miniumum required while looking for anther job.

By the way – he is still with that company, and he is still looking for another job…

The second story is of a young woman who has been working in a call center of one of the Israeli cellular companies for about 5 years.

She had a child two years ago and went back to work after a maternaty leave.

She worked as many hours as the job formally required (she found it hard to stay longer because of the child) and tried to give the company extra time whenever her husband or parents could take care of the child.

Last year, when the economic crisis erupted, she gradually felt pressured to work longer hours – regardless of her personal circumstanes. The presuure began with a"polite" request from her boss and quickly progressed to demands. After a few months, her boss called her in almost every morning to tell her about colleagues staying late without much warning. He also never forgot to add what she called "the daily briefing about the miserable job market out there".

Gradually she understood that unless she made huge sacrifices at home, and was always ready to take an extra shift, stay later with little or no warning, and accede to other job related demands, she would lose her job.

After consulting with her family, and with no other choice in hand, she agreed to the new (informal) terms of her job.

The personal price she paid was very high, but so was the price the compay paid.

She made sure that she stayed long hours and did double shift – but as she says "I did not double my productivity or my service to the customer, I only did what was necessary to keep my job".

Now she she is still working for the company, looking for another job.

The third story is of an entrepreneur who came up with a new idea. He and several friends approached one of the largest high tech companies seeking financial and professional backing. After about a year of negotiations, and about six months before the crisis broke, they had reached an agreemnt and began their cooperation.

It was obvious from the beginning that the start up would need much financial and professional support from the company during the first year and half and then they were hoping they could proceed on their own.

It all started as planned and than the crisis broke.

Suddenly, the start up people felt that they are not receiving the agreed upon support they were expecting to receive.

The group approached the people with whom they had signed the agreement.

Initially, the start up people received some general answers telling them about the general difficulties the company was experiencing during the crisis.

For few months they tried to work together, not necessarily according to the original agreement, but nevertheless with some support.

It did not work out. The people in the start up were being told "We want your business and we intend to live up to the agreement-but later- not now". They overheard one of the top managers of that high tech company saying that in face of the current crisis – the start up would never find someone to support them “so the only sensible thing for them to do was to accept any offer, stay and wait for better days".

The start up group was pushed to a corner and decided that they had enough grounds to get out of the agreement (although at that point in time they did not have any other backers).

They did so and luckily enough they soon found – in the middle of the crisis – another backer. The terms of the agreement were not as good, those who were working still in other jobs had to resign and work only for the start up, and all employees had to make painful concessions.

As it stands now – they are doing very well. As a matter of fact – their old backer(the big high tech company) offered them now a much better deal with cash and all the support they needed.

They refused.

Discission

What can one learn from all of this?

Theory tells us (Herzberg 1973) do not push your employee to the limit – he might come up with a solution you have not taken into consideration.

Do not exploit your employees (Vardi et al 2003) If you do , they will exploit you back – the only difference is that by the time you will be aware of it – you have already lost much.

Try to find out what your employee is expecting and than try to find the middle ground to do it.

If you do not follow this advice your are going to lose your best employees – as soon as they can leave – usually when you will find it very difficult to find good replacements.

An employer may lose more than just employees.

In many cases the employer needs the employees (especially the better ones) more that the empployees need him (they can find another job – he has to find another organization!!!).

Many of the managers today have gone through an MBA program in which they are taught that exploiting employees does not benefit anyone – but nevertheless they do it – Why?

There are plenty of explanations and we would like to review just a few of them.

The first explanation is that in many cases what the employee views as exploitation is not viewed the in the same fashion by the employer. It is therefore important to find out what the employees are realy thinking of your actions as an employer.

It does not mean you have to change, it means that you have to know what employees think.

The second explanation (which is popular with employers)is: "No matter what I do – my employee will always view it as exploitation".

The third one is that in order to trace the real feeling of employees, one has to know them and set aside enough resources to do something with that knowledge.

The forth explanation is that managers are under such pressure in today's business environment that they only want their employees to do what they are told an be quiet.

The fifth explanation is that the business environment does not allow for any better behavior to occur.

No matter what explanation one brings to the table, the main issue is that it is very costly to mistreat employees on the one hand, and relatively easy to remedy the situation (attention and care).

The key point is that changing the situation leads to better proformance which leads to a better bottom line.

Although the power in employer-employee relations seems to be tilted in favor of the employer – the situation may be, in reality, completely different.

It should also be noted that the price of mistreating employees is hard to calculate and may be hidden from sight.

A slow production activity, not putting all one's abilities into practice at work, not bringing to the table useful personal knowledge etc. are just a few examples of the price an organization pays without being able to prove that things could be done in a better way.

Our suggestions cannot solve the entire problem, but they can certainly ameliorate the situation. This in turn can quickly translate into profitability.

We are trying to push managers and management change the "rules of the game" (Saj-nicola, 2010).

Yes, Management makes the rules and has the hierarchical power in an organization. But employees have, in many cases, the professional power over the organization.

Treat them well and they will exercise their professional power to your benefit.

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Religions and the Meaning of Work: The Case of Jews, Muslims and Christians in Israel

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Abstract

The meaning of work among the Jews in Israel has been studied for several decades while there has been no attempt to study the meaning of work among the religious minorities. This paper examines and compares the meaning of work among Jews, Muslims and Christians in Israel. In 2006 the Meaning-of-Working (MOW) questionnaire was conducted on 1464 working respondents, 1201 were Jews, 219 were Muslims and 44 were Christians. The MOW variables were: economic orientation, entitlement norms, obligation norms, interpersonal relations, intrinsic orientation and work centrality. The findings reveal substantial differences between the three religious groups and the differences are discussed and explained by social, political and economic factors.

Introduction

Work plays a fundamental role in the life of the individual, who makes an absolute commitment to it in terms of time; work has notable social and economic consequences in organizations and society. For most people, the meaning of work has generally been explained by three propositions of which the most prominent is economic or instrumental, and the second concerns commitment to work as part of human nature and human needs, and the third is socio-psychological (Sharabi and Harpaz, 2007). Similar to work, religion plays an important role having had an impact on world events for millennia (present day examples include the Middle East, Russia, Iraq, Iran, India), and on individual perceptions and attitudes. In various nations religion is a pivotal institution of culture; consciously or unconsciously, religious beliefs and practices affect individual attitudes to important facets of life (Harpaz, 1998).

Perhaps the most prominent articulation of the relationship between religion and work was presented by Max Weber in his seminal work *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*. Weber (1958) examined Calvinism and showed that this theology, such as Protestantism as a whole, held that work was a virtue and that even menial jobs should be performed well. Reformers like Luther and Wesley preached that work was the individual's mission to God and paved the road to redemption. By excelling at their work believers could prove to themselves and to others that they were among the elected. An individuals' idea of success depended not only on social conditions, but also on religious ideals and values. Judaism, Christianity and Islam also concerned themselves with the value of work (Harpaz, 1998). A model seems to emerge depicting major religions as converging rather than diverging in their relationship toward work. Principal streams of Christianity, Judaism and Islam (and probably all major religions) generally view work favorably and request their followers to behave accordingly, namely work hard, be frugal, etc., as a manifestation of faith (Sharabi and Harpaz, forthcoming, a). Major world religions seem to be homogeneous in their view of the meaning of work so it is interesting to study how each religion group internalizes, translates and implements their religious belief into work values.

The present study attempts to describe the current relationship between religions (Judaism, Islam and Christianity) and work values. Little empirical research has been conducted on the association between these two variables. In examining this relationship, we assume that the similarity and differences between the three religions could be explained by social, political and economic factors.

Literature Review

The Israeli Context

The state of Israel was founded by Jews in 1948 and the dominant culture is Jewish and secular, with a western orientation. The Arab citizens in Israel (or Israeli Palestinians) are 19% of the Israeli population. Of these, 82% are Muslims, 9% Christians and 9% Druze. The Jewish society in Israel has undergone a gradual change in values, similar to that of the Western world, moving from a collectivist society in its early years to an individualist society. These global processes have left their mark on Israel and can be seen in the rapid change that has occurred since the late 1970's. Today, the Jewish society places great emphasis on the different dimensions of individualism, cultivating personal independence and autonomy, while granting a high degree of social permissiveness (Harpaz, 1999; Kenny-Paz, 1996; Sharabi and Harpaz, 2007). As part of an Americanization process, Jewish-Israeli culture has become more and more materialistic, emphasizing instrumental achievements (Harpaz, 1999; Kenny-Paz, 1996). Unlike the Jewish society, the Arab Christian and especially the Arab Muslim subcultures in Israel are more conservative, emphasizing tradition, the welfare and safety of the group, rigid hierarchy and little autonomy - all fundamentally collectivist characteristics (Al-Haj, 1996; Nabil, 2005; Smooha, 1999). In the past, the Arab work force was mainly agricultural, but over time the number of farmers decreased, while the numbers of those employed as hired workers in the Israeli labor market increased (Al-Haj, 1996; Nabil, 2005). The Arab society especially the Arab Christians are undergoing a process of rapid modernization and internalization of western values of self actualization, materialism and individualism (Nabil, 2005).

Arabs in the Israeli labor market

The Israeli-Arabs economic market is dependent on the Israeli-Jews economic market and the work options that it provides. This situation stems mainly from the fact that the modernization process in Israeli Arab society (Muslims and Christians) was not accompanied by an internal economic development of the Israeli Arab market, partially due to the lack of government investment and private funding (Al-Haj, 1996; Kraus & Yonay, 2000; Nabil, 2005). Most Israeli Arabs remain dependent upon the Israeli Jews economy to earn a living, and are concentrated in fields and professions that are characterized by tough competition and no collective wage agreements. Their integration into the Jewish-Israeli economy was limited from the beginning, enabling them mainly inferior occupations that only enhanced their dependency. For the sake of comparison, 1.5% of Arabs hold managerial positions, while 5.8% of Jews hold such positions (Jerby & Levi, 2000). In addition, some areas of employment, such as the military industry and other security related fields, are closed to Arabs as they usually do not have adequate security classification. At the same time, most of the industries in the Arab sector consist of physical labor and pay low wages (Jerby & Levi, 2000; Kraus & Yonay, 2000; Nabil, 2005).

The Meaning of Work among Religions

Six variables were found to operationally define the five central variables of the MOW (MOW-International Research Team, 1987). These are: economic orientation, intrinsic orientation, interpersonal contacts, entitlement norms, obligation norms and work centrality. According to these variables the literature on the relationship between the three religions and the MOW is presented. There are several studies on work values that compare between Muslims and Christians, there are fewer studies that compare between Jews and Christians but as far as we know, there are no studies that compare work values of Jews and Muslims in or out of Israel.

Economic and Intrinsic Orientation: Smith-Speck and Roy (2008) found that materialism in Middle Eastern countries (who are mostly Muslims) was higher than in Latin America (mostly Christian Catholic) and similar to the developed countries (United States, New Zealand and Europe, who are mostly Christians). Another study of 44,030 individuals from 39 countries revealed a positive relationship between Islam and extrinsic and intrinsic values, whereas Christianity had no relationship to intrinsic values and a negative relationship to extrinsic values (Parboteeah, Paik and Cullen, 2009). Harpaz (1998) findings reveal that the Israeli Jews have higher economic orientation than the Dutch and Germans (who are mostly Christians). The lowest economic orientation was among the Dutch people. Additionally, the intrinsic orientation in Israel is higher than in Germany and the Netherlands. In Germany the intrinsic orientation was the lowest.

Interpersonal Contacts: In Israel the importance of an interpersonal relationship was higher than in Germany and the Netherlands while in Germany it was the lowest (Harpaz, 1998). A study among Turkish (mostly Muslims) and American (mostly Christians) university students, found that Turkish participants have higher feminine values (e.g. working with people and being part of a team than) the American participants.

*Obligation and Entitlement Norms:*In a survey conducted in eight countries, the MOW (1987) found that the Jewish work force in Israel have a higher level of agreement with obligation norms than in Germany, Belgium, Holland, Japan and the US. The US was conspicuous among the countries, having the lowest rate of acceptance of entitlement norms. Opposite findings show that in Germany and the Netherlands, individuals had a higher agreement with obligation norms than individuals in Israel (Harpaz, 1998). Harpaz (1998) found no differences in agreement with entitlement norms in Israel (among Jews), Germany and in the Netherlands, similar to MOW (1987) but the former researchers found that the agreement with entitlement norms in Israel is higher than in the US. Among Turkish managers there is a higher level of agreement with obligation norms (money and time saving and work as an end in itself) than among British managers (Arslan, 2001).

*Work Centrality:*The studies involving Christians and Muslims show that Muslims have higher 'Protestant work ethic' and higher work centrality than Christians. Arslan (2001) found that Protestant and Catholic managers in Britain have lower orientation to 'Protestant work ethic' characteristics (especially towards hard work) than Turkish managers. Aygun et al. (2008) found that Turkish Students reported greater 'Protestant work ethic' scores than their American counterparts. In the 1980s work centrality in Israel was higher than in Britain,

Germany, Belgium, the US and the Netherlands (MOW, 1987). Sharabi and Harpaz (2007) found that work centrality among Israeli Jews in the 1990s was higher than in the USA, Germany and Japan. Other findings show that work centrality in Israel was higher than among Dutch and Germans. In Germany the work centrality was the lowest (Harpaz, 1998).

A survey of the literature did not disclose any systematic empirical attempts to study the MOW of Israeli Muslim and Christians, nor is there any comparison of work valuesstructures, between Jews, Muslims and Christians in Israel. This paper tries to fill this gap and hence make a contribution to the existing literature.

Procedure

Sample

Data for the present study were collected in 2006 via the Meaning-of-Working (MOW) questionnaire, developed by the MOW- International research team (1987). The respondents were selected randomly and the interviews were conducted at the respondents' homes by trained interviewers and the average interview lasted 25 minutes. The study was conducted on 1464 working respondents. 1201 were Jews, 219 were Muslims and 44 were Christians (82%, 15% and 3.0% respectively, similar to the ratio among the Israeli population). Among the Jews, 51% were men and 49% women. 5.3% had primary school education, 30.8% had secondary school education, 33.7% had some college or vocational-technical education and 30.1% had university degrees. 65.9% were secular, 27.8% semi-religious and 6.3% religious. 63.1% lived in cities, 8.4% in little towns and 28.3% in rural areas. Among the Arabs, 55.3% were men and 44.7% women. 8.7% had primary school education, 31.1% had secondary school education, 28.1% had some college or vocational-technical education and 32.1% had university degrees. 24.7% were secular, 60.3% semi-religious and 15.1% religious. 33.2% lived in cities, 10.1% in little towns and 56.7% in rural areas. Among the Christians, 51% were men and 49% women. 4.8% had primary school education, 19% had secondary school education, 38.1% had some college or vocational-technical education; and 38.1% had university degrees. 63.6% were secular, 29.6% semi-religious and 6.8% religious. 54.5% lived in cities, 13.7% in little towns and 31.8% in rural areas.

The Measurement of the Meaning of Work

The MOW was conceptualized in terms of five major domains (or central variables): centrality of work as a life role, valued work outcomes, work role identification, importance of work goals, and societal norms regarding work (MOW-International Research Team, 1987). Each domain was based on several questions. We formulized six variables: economic orientation, intrinsic orientation, interpersonal contacts, entitlement norms, obligation norms and work centrality, which were found to operationally define the five central variables of the MOW domains (cronbach's α for the six variables were in the range .68-.87).

Results

Table 1 presents a comparison of each of the MOW indices between Jews, Muslims and Christians. The findings reveal significant differences in four out of six MOW indices between the three religions groups.

Table 1: ANOVA of the MOW Indices for Jews, Muslims and Christians in Israel

	Jews		Muslims		Christians		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	***F***
Economic orientation	3.88	1.08	3.60	1.11	3.43	1.15	8.60***
Intrinsic orientation	3.21	.67	3.09	.58	3.23	.69	3.25*
Interpersonal relations	2.91	.82	2.74	.79	3.19	.77	6.84***
Entitlement	3.22	.45	3.18	.42	3.14	.56	1.19
Obligation	3.09	.50	3.05	.46	3.02	.70	.80
Work centrality	4.05	.82	4.44	.86	4.26	.87	20.72***

The economic orientation of the Jews was the highest and the economic orientation of the Christians was the lowest, whereas the Muslims' work centrality was the highest and the Jews' work centrality was the lowest. Jews and Christians had higher intrinsic orientation than Muslims, additionally; interpersonal relations gained the most importance among Christians and the lowest importance among Muslims. There were no differences between Jews, Muslims and Christians related to the agreement with obligation and entitlement norms.

Discussion

Although the Jews, the Christians and the Muslims in our research live in the same country, they have a different MOW structure since there were significant differences in four of six MOW variables between the three religions. The significant importance of economic orientation among Jews compared to Muslims and Christians may be an expression of the greater integration of Western materialistic values into the Jewish Israeli culture than the Muslims and Christians Arab culture (Al-Haj, 1996; Nabil, 2005). Harpaz also (1998) reveals that the Israeli Jews have higher economic orientation than the Christians in Germany and the Netherlands. Other studies found that the Muslims' economic orientation is higher than the Christians (Parboteeah, et al., 2009; Smith-Speck and Roy, 2008) as we have found. There is a similar intrinsic orientation among Jews and Christians and it is higher than among Muslims, hence it is on the contrary to Parboteeah, et al. (2009) findings that Muslims had higher intrinsic values than Christians and to Harpaz (1998) findings that Israeli Jews had higher intrinsic orientation than Christians in Germany and the Netherlands.

The highest work centrality was found among Muslims and the lowest was found among Jews. Higher work centrality of Muslims compared to Christians was found also in Arslan (2001) and Aygun et al. (2008) studies but the Jews lower work centrality compared to Christians, contradicts former studies (Harpaz, 1998; MOW, 1987; Sharabi and Harpaz, 2007). We have to take into consideration that those comparisons were to the Christians in other countries were they are the dominant religion. In Israel the Christians are a small minority and part of the Arab society in Israel. The high work centrality among the Christian and Muslim Arab minority stems presumably from the perception that work is a main means of social mobility; furthermore, working in the labor market (instead of working in the wider family affairs), the status and the income related to it, are also a means for fulfillment of other needs (such as influencing family decisions, working outside of the community, achieving independence and shaping one's own destiny) in a collectivist, traditional and patriarchal

society (Al-Haj, 1996; El-Ghannam, 2002; Sharabi, 2009). Al-Haj (1996) notes, that among the Israeli Arabs, education and occupation has taken the place of land as a source of pride and a reliable way to earn a living and guarantee socio-economic mobility. Moreover, among minorities there is a tendency to view work (and education) as a means for prestige and social mobility (Haveman and Smeeding, 2006; Sharabi, 2010). It seems that the Israeli Arabs as an ethnic minority, value work much more than the Israeli Jews due to all the reasons that were mentioned above. Another explanation for the Jews' low work centrality can be the religiosity trend occurring in the last decade. Sharabi and Harpaz (forthcoming, b) found that the religions' importance that declined between the 1980s and the 1990s rose in 2006, correspondingly, work centrality that rose between the 1980s and the 1990s declined in 2006. All the studies in Israel found that among religious Jews the work centrality is lower than among Secular Jews (Harpaz, 1998; Snir and Harpaz, 2005). This phenomenon is unique to Israel and can be explained by the fact that religious Jews may view work as less important than their practice of religion and even perceive it as interfering with it. Accordingly, it is possible that the latest religiosity trend reduced the Jews' work centrality.

While the Christians in our study bestow higher importance of interpersonal relationships than Jews and Muslims, other studies found that Christians in Germany and Netherland gave lower importance to relationships than Jews (Harpaz, 1998) and Turkish Muslim students gave higher importance to relationships than American (mostly Christians) students. Maybe it is because they are a small minority spread out all over Israel and has lack of interpersonal relationships between them. The only common values between the three religious groups were the agreement with obligation and entitlement norms.

Throughout this study we generally observed that the MOW variables among Jews, Muslims and Christians were totally different. It is interesting to realize that the three ethno-religious groups who have been living together for many decades (before and after the establishment of the Israeli state), have a different perception and internalization of the MOW structure. Hewstone (2003) claims that the level of friendship, trust, and collaboration between individuals of different ethnic groups, can affect the understanding between ethnic groups, and their willingness to accept each other's values. Higher levels of trust, can lead to higher levels of cultural similarity between societies and ethnic groups, whereas mistrust and conflict between societies and ethnic groups, may lead to rejection of the other's culture and values (Sharabi, 2010). It seems that the MOW differences between Jews and Arabs (Muslims and Christians) in Israel stem primarily from three sources. First, there are cultural differences between Jews and between Muslim and Christian Arabs (and between the three ethno-religious groups). Second, there is a high degree of residential and occupational segregation. Third, there is occupational discrimination of Arabs in the labor market; and fourth, the long and tough conflict between Israel and the Palestinians in the occupied territories, as well as with other Arab countries, has led to a high level of mistrust and social tension between Jews and Israeli Arabs (who are Palestinians as well), and to the double identity problem (Al-Haj, 1996; Nabil, 2005; Sharabi, 2009). Those factors minimize the possibility for diffusion of work values and MOW similarity between the Jewish dominant culture and the Arab subculture, now and in the nearest future.

Various findings show that people, who have higher work centrality, have higher level of performance, job involvement and commitment to the organization and work longer hours (Harpaz, 1998; Mannheim, Baruch and Tal, 1997; Sharabi and Harpaz, 2007). The extra-high work centrality of Arab Christians and especially Muslims reflects high non-actualized potential for organizations and for the Israeli society. Although the Israeli government has recently decided to implement affirmative action for Arabs, especially for Arab academic graduates, it seems that it will take some time until the changes are reflected in the labor

market. Future research of other religious subcultures in Israel (mainly Druze) and the influence of demographic variables (age, gender, education, etc.) can lead to better understanding of the MOW structure and its causes among the varied religions in Israel.

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Chapter 4: Values and Change

Managing in the New Millennium:
Gen Y and Workplace Expectations

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Abstract

Recent literature has characterized the millennial generation as spoiled and entitled, emphasizing work/life balance, and having expectations of rewards for effort rather than performance. We examined the relationship between achievement motivation and work expectations in a large scale survey of more than 10,000 Canadian undergraduate students. High-achieving students emphasizedcognitive work attributes such as *challenging work* and *good variety of work*, while lower performing students emphasized extrinsic work values such as *good health and benefits plan* and *job security*. High-achieving students also reported lower preference for work/life balance, while having greater expectations for success. The results suggest that not all Millennials conform to the stereotypes that persist among them, and individual differences do play an important role in their achievement motivation.

Introduction

As members of the millennial generation (also known as "GenY") transition from college into the workforce, there appears to be a commonly held belief that they are a "spoiled and entitled" generation. This generation has already presented itself as having work values and attitudes different from those of previous generations (Loughlin & Barling, 2001; Smola & Sutton, 2002). As an example, recent literature has documented how the Millennials prioritize work/life balance over long hours of work, and would even refuse work that they do not wish to do (CLC, 2005).The present study applies the concept ofachievement motivation (Judge & Bretz, 1992; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987) to the millennial generation to determine if there are differences in career expectations and preferred work attributes across different levels of performers.

Millennials

The Millennials are the generational cohort born between 1980 and 1995 in the U.S. and Canada (Foot & Stoffman, 1998). There are 76 million Millennials in the U.S. (Trunk, 2007), and 6.9 million in Canada (Foot & Stoffman, 1998). The Millennials have been characterized as entitled (Twenge, 2006; Twenge & Campbell, 2008), ambitious (Erickson, 2009), and impatient to succeed (Erickson, 2009).It has been suggested that the Millennials value intrinsic rewards over extrinsic ones, and are constantly searching for interesting and meaningful work (CLC, 2005; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). They also appear to be concerned with "saving the world" issues, ranging from diversity and the environmentto a corporatesocial responsibility (Greening & Turban, 2000). Additionally, having seen their

Baby Boomer parents work long hours, only to fall victim to layoffs, downsizing and high divorce rates(Loughlin & Barling, 2001; McDonald & Hite, 2008), the Millennials are more likely to demand work/life balance and are much less likely than their parents' generation to sacrifice their personal lives for their careers (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Consistent with this, the Millennials are expected to seek work/life balance at every stage of their careers. Against this backdrop, many have written extensively on how best to attract and retain this unique generation of workers who are the workforce of the future (e.g., Lowe et al., 2008; McDonald & Hitt, 2008).

Hill (2002) noted that there is adisconnect between performance and rewards expectations among the Millennials. He attributed this to a generation that has been raised in a more nurturing and less competitive environment, where the focus has been on individual effort rather than accomplishments. As an example, there are no winners or losers in competitions, and everyone receives a ribbon (cf. Lowe et al., 2008). However, we argue that the millennial generation is not a homogeneous cohort, but rather, they have different achievement motivations and consequently different career expectations and desired work attributes.

Achievement motivation

Achievement is a concern for the advancement of one's career and willingness to work hard, seeking opportunities to learn new skills, taking on additional responsibilities, and sacrificing personal gratification for work-related objectives (Judge & Bretz, 1992; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Achievement motivation, therefore, is the frequency with which one thinks about competing with a standard of excellence or doing something better than before (McClelland, 1965). An individual's achievement motivation has been found to be related to academic achievement (Sid & Lindgren, 1982; Spence, et al., 1989), intrinsic motivation (Elliott & Harackiewicz, 1994; Kahoe & McFarland, 1975), social affiliation needs (Chang & Wong, 2008), work attitudes (Lee & Liu, 2009), pace of life (Kirkcaldy et al., 2002), job choice decisions (Judge & Bretz, 1992; Kuo, 2006), as well as career and salary attainments (Bartol & Martin, 1987; Smither & Lindgren, 1978). On the basis of previous work, we have reason to believe that an individual's achievement motivation will have an influence on their career expectations and the work attributes that they value.

The present study

Although literature has described the Millennials as spoiled, entitled, and viewing work as more about personal fulfillment and less about external rewards (Hill, 2002; Twenge 2006; Twenge & Campbell, 2008), we argue that their attitudes and work values are not homogenous, and they vary widely according to their personal achievement motivations. Individuals with high achievement motivation have been found to display a strong work ethic, perform to their best abilities, aspire to social statusand hierarchy, thrive on competition, and value money and material wealth (Cassidy & Lynn, 1989; Ward, 1997). In this study, we extend previous work on achievement motivation, and examine how it may influence the work values and career expectations among a cohort of college students, who are about to embark on their careers, and have values and attitudes different from those of previous generations. Consistent with previous work (e.g., Trank et al., 2002), we operationalize achievement motivation using a student's grade point average, given that grades are strongly

correlated to achievement motivation (Sid & Lindgren,1982; Spence et al., 1989), ability and motivation to do quality work (Afarian & Kleiner, 2003; Howard, 1986).

Methodology

The data for this study were collected by three strategic consulting firms, commissioned by a consortium of large Canadian employers interested in better understanding the views of the current generation of post-secondary students on jobs, organizations, and careers. The full data set included 27,592 post-secondary students from across Canada. As our objective was to examine the attitudes and work values of the millennial generation, we only includedMillennial respondents (i.e., born between 1980 and 1994), who answered questions related to work attributes, and who are studying for an undergraduate college or university degree (note: graduate students and respondents born before 1980 were excluded). The subsample used in our analyses included11,062 respondents, representing 40% of the original data set.

Women made up 61% of our sample. The median age of the respondents was 21.7 years (*SD*= 1.92), ranging from 17 to 27. The sample also included several minority groups: aboriginal people (1.2%), persons with disabilities (1.2%), racial minorities (19.8%), and gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgendered persons (2.8%). Half of the respondents were studying science or engineering (49.9%) and almost a third were in business school (31.3%), with the balance in arts or social sciences (18.8%). Finally, the majority of the respondents reported their grade point average (GPA) in the "B" range (58.5%), 27.9% reported an "A," and 13.6% have a "C."

Measures

The original survey was very broad, and as such, we selected only those items that pertain to the career expectations and work attributes of the Millennials. These included expectations about their pay and advancement, as well as the work attributes they value in their future employment.

Salary and advancement expectations were assessed by three separate questions. The first asked respondents to enter the dollar amount corresponding to the salary that they expect to earn immediately following their graduation from university. The second asked for the dollar amount corresponding to the salary that they expected to earn five years following graduation. Finally, respondents were asked to indicate how soon they would expect to be promoted after they have found employment after graduation.

Work attributes. The respondents were asked to rate the importance that they placed on 16 work attributes when considering employment opportunities following graduation from college (1=not at all important, 5=essential). The full list of attributes can be found in Table 2. Sample items included "opportunities for advancement," "good people to work with," "challenging work" and "good health and benefits plan."

Analysis

We conducted a number of analyses to determine the extent to which the set of work attributes were valued by Millennials reporting different levels of academic achievement. Several one-way ANOVAs were performed, with salary, promotion expectations, and each work attribute as the dependent variable with GPA as the independent variable. In following the lead of Lyons et al., (2009), we usedsmallest space analysis (SSA) in order to explore the relationships between each attribute and the structure of the overall domain (cf. Elizur et al., 1991).

For the SSA, we used the Pearson correlations between the 16 work attributes as similarity data, and the MINISSA module of the NewMDSx software to perform the SSA analyses. SSA converts the rank order of the similarities into distances in a space of specified dimensions, with each attribute representing a point in the space. Attributes which are highly correlated, relative to the overall set of bivariate correlations, would be located closer together within the space. Conversely, attributes having lower correlations would have greater distances between them. The configuration of the points provides a visual representation of the relationships between attributes and the overall structure of the domain. The number of dimensions of the space which best represent the data is suggested by the coefficient of alienation, a function of the extent to which the distances within the represented space differ from the rank order of the original similarity data (Bloombaum, 1970). The dimensionality that provides the greatest relative reduction in the coefficient of alienation from the next lower dimension provides the best fit (Bloombaum, 1970).

Results

Table 1 displays the mean salary expectations immediately after graduation and after 5 years for students at each level of academic achievement. The initial and five-year salary expectations were normally distributed with means of $43,104 (*SD* =15,110) and$69,663 (*SD* = 34,073) respectively. The level of academic achievement was significant for both the initial and the five year salary expectations ($F(2, 10412) = 23.81$, $p<0.00$ and $F(2, 10305) = 13.79$, $p<0.00$). In each case, the salary expectations of the "A" students were approximately 5 percent higher than the "B" and "C" students. The differences between the "B" and "C" students were very small.

The mean expected time to promotion for students at each level of academic achievement are also presented in Table 1. The promotion expectations were normally distributed with a mean of 15.1 months (*SD* = 7.26).The level of academic achievement was not significant ($F(2, 10400) = 0.04$, $p = 0.96$) as the expectations for promotion were similar for all levels of academic achievement.

The mean ratings for each of the 16 work attributes are presented in Table 2. Level of academic achievement was significant for five of the work attributes. Students with higher academic achievement rated the work attributes, *good variety of work* ($F(2, 10947) = 12.73$, $p< 0.00$) and *challenging work*($F(2, 10947) = 64.98$, $p< 0.00$), higher than those with lower academic achievement. Conversely, the higher the academic achievement, the lower the rating for *good health and benefits plan*($F(2, 10947) = 10.65$, $p< 0.00$)*, job security* ($F(2, 10947) = 23.24$, $p< 0.00$)*,* and *strong commitment to employee diversity*($F(2, 10947) = 27.19$, $p< 0.00$).

The results of the SSA analysis are presented in Figure 1. The coefficient of alienation for the two-dimensional solution was 0.172, indicating an acceptable level of fit (Shye, Elizur &

Hoffman, 1995). The two-dimensional SSA for the 16 work attributes was divisible into four distinct regions corresponding to the following work values: instrumental (extrinsic), cognitive (intrinsic), affective (altruistic/social) and prestige (Lyons et al., 2009). Fifteen of the 16 work attributes fell into the appropriate region, indicating only one inconsistent result.The instrumental region contained the attributes *good health and benefits plan*, *good initial starting salary* and *job security.* The cognitive region contained *good variety of work*, *challenging work*, and *opportunities for advancement.*The affective region contained *work/life balance, good people to work with*,*good people to report to,commitment to social responsibility*, *strong commitment to employee diversity*, *opportunities to have a social impact* and *opportunities to have a personal impact.*

Table 1. Salary and Advancement Expectations

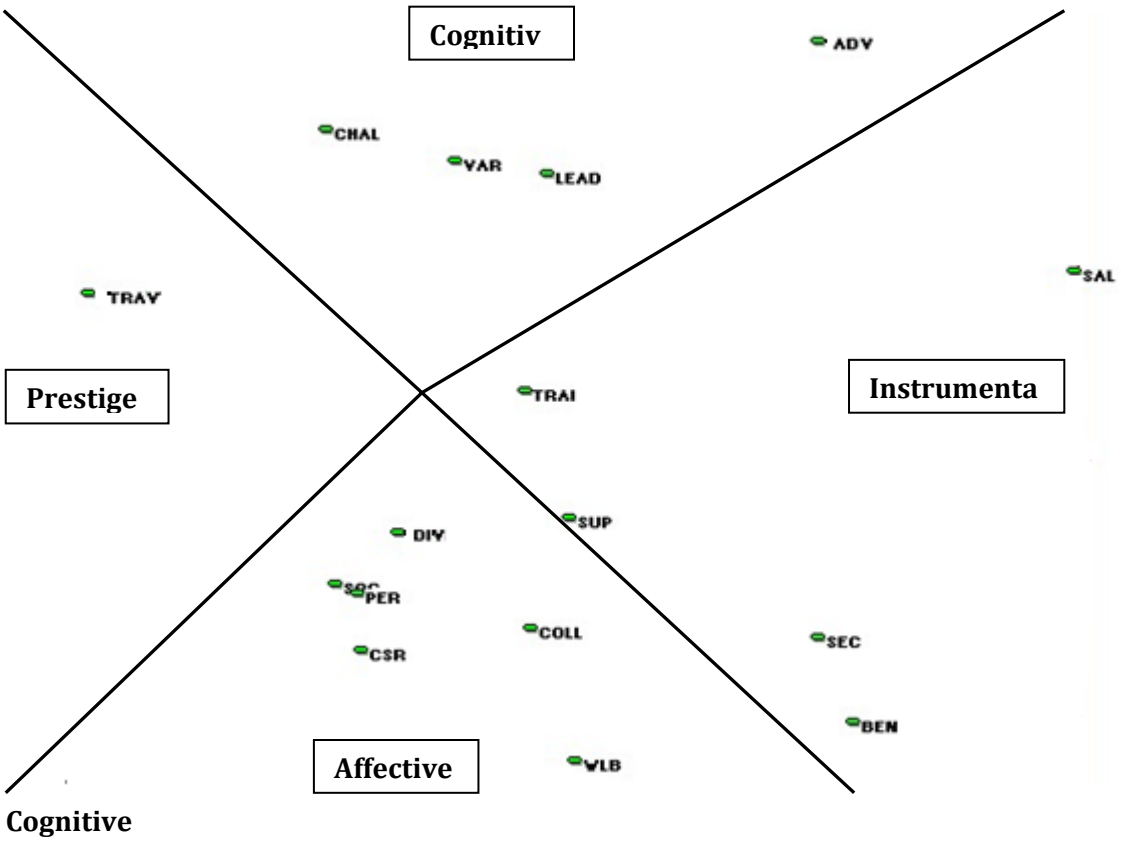
GPA	**A** ***M*** **(*SD*)**	**B** ***M*** **(*SD*)**	**C** ***M*** **(*SD*)**	**Total** ***M*** **(*SD*)**
Salary expectations immediately after graduation (*n* =10,414)	$44,733 (16904.00)	$42,463 (14244.69)	$42,475 (14532.63)	$43,103* (15110.73)
Salary expectations after 5 years (*n* =10,307)	$72,344 (38463.69)	$68,469 (32399.31)	$68,314 (30022.75)	$69,533* (33952.83)
Promotion Expectations (how soon do you expect to be promoted?) (*n* =10,402)	15.1 months (7.26)	15.1 months (7.19)	15.2 months (7.56)	15.1 months (7.26)

*differences significant at $p<0.01$

Table 2. Work Attributes (*n* = 10,949)

GPA	**A** ***M*(*SD*)**	**B** ***M*(*SD*)**	**C** ***M*(*SD*)**	**Total** ***M*(*SD*)**
Instrumental (Extrinsic)				
Good initial salary level (SAL)	4.14 (.695)	4.18 (.699)	4.18 (.756)	4.17 (.706)
Job security (SEC)	4.10 (.821)	4.20 (.801)	4.26 (.805)	4.18*(.809)
Good health and benefits plan (BEN)	4.27 (.789)	4.34 (.749)	4.33 (.809)	4.32*(.769)
Cognitive (Intrinsic)				
Opportunities for advancement in position (ADV)	4.47 (.708)	4.51 (.674)	4.49 (.684)	4.50 (.685)
Good variety of work (VAR)	4.29 (.739)	4.23 (.744)	4.17 (.790)	4.24*(.750)
Challenging work (CHAL)	4.19 (.775)	4.07 (.809)	3.91 (.883)	4.08*(.815
Affective (Social/Altruistic)				
Work/Life balance (WLB)	4.31 (.811)	4.34 (.794)	4.31 (.814)	4.33 (.802)
Good people to work with (COLL)	4.46 (.663)	4.46 (.666)	4.45 (.706)	4.46 (.671)
Good people to report to (SUP)	4.42 (.651)	4.44 (.667)	4.43 (.717)	4.43 (.670)
Good training opportunities/developing new skills (TRAI)	4.38 (.689)	4.42 (.676)	4.42 (.693)	4.41 (.682)
Strong commitment to employee diversity (DIV)	3.46 (1.120)	3.62 (1.085)	3.66 (1.107)	3.58*(1.101)
Commitment to social responsibility (CSR)	3.86 (.972)	3.84 (.931)	3.80 (.929)	3.84 (.943)
Opportunities to have a personal impact (PER)	3.97 (.890)	3.98 (.874)	3.96 (.913)	3.98 (.884)
Opportunities to have a social impact (SOC)	3.84 (1.005)	3.82 (.973)	3.79 (1.017)	3.82 (.988)
Prestige				
Organization is a leader in its field (LEAD)	3.65 (.917)	3.65 (.885)	3.65 (.936)	3.65 (.901)
Opportunity to travel (TRAV)	3.44 (1.087)	3.48 (1.070)	3.46 (1.068)	3.46 (1.075)

*differences significant at $p<0.01$



Opportunity to travel fell into the prestige region. The work attribute, *organization is a leader in its field*, which was expected to fall within the prestige region, was located in the cognitive region.

Comparing the results from the ANOVAs and the SSA, indicates that those work attributes which were given higher ratings by high achieving students (*good variety of work* and *challenging work)* were both in the cognitive work values region. Conversely, two of the three the work attributes which were given lower ratings by the high achieving students (*good health and benefits plan,* and *job security*) fell into the instrumental work values region. *Work/life* balance, which was also rated lower by the high achieving students, fell into the affective work value region.

Discussion

Our findings from a large survey data do not support Hill's (2002) assertion that Millennials are a spoiled and entitled generation who emphasize work/life balance and have expectations of rewards for effort rather than performance. In this study, we found that Millennials are not a homogeneous group with respect to their career expectations and work values. High achieving students appear to value cognitive work attributes, while low achieving students value instrumental work attributes, suggesting a pattern of differences in their career expectations and desired work attributes. Individuals with high achievement motivation are more likely to seek out environments that provide interesting and challenging work. Challenging work environments allow high achievers to build higher levels of

competence,and to test themselves against other competent peers (Trank et al., 2002). Indeed, high achievers are intrinsically motivated (Elliott & Harackiewiecz, 1994; Kahoe & McFarland, 1975), and motivated to do good work (Howard, 1986). High achieving students also have a lower preference for work/life balance, suggesting that they may in fact emphasize work over their personal lives, which is in contrast with the popular stereotype about Millennials preferring work/life balance. Furthermore, high achievers also have greater expectations for success, as evidenced by initial and five-year salary outlooks, consistent with previous research (e.g., Afarian & Kleiner, 2003; Bartol & Martin, 1987). Although our results did not find achievement motivation to be related to expectations for fast-track promotions, this lack of support could be due to tempered expectations in light of the current economic climate.

A few limitations should be noted to put the findings into context. First, the data were self-reported, which may give rise to social desirability and response-set biases. However, there was good variance and normal distribution in the responses (e.g., self-reported grades), giving us no indication of bias. Second, this study investigates the career expectations and preferred work attributes among the Millennials. Given that they have little work experience, some of their expectations may be unrealistic. The findings nonetheless represent the views of a large cohort who are about to embark on their careers. Third, the sample was collected from Canadians, and care must be taken when generalizing the results to other countries.

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Service Quality – A Competing Value in the Health and Wellness Industry

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Abstract

This study examined the impact of service quality on clients' satisfaction. The empiric data were collected through surveys administrated to the users of five Portuguese thermal units and a hotel Spa. The investigation was based on SERVQUAL scale presented by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985). Necessarily, this model was adapted to the nature and characteristics of health and wellness industry. The dimensions of the service quality scale were reduced to the more significant ones for the studied units (attendance, assurance and tangibles). The results showed that are the aspects related to assurance and attendance that give more satisfaction to the users, that service quality is an antecedent of clients' satisfaction and it has an impact on users' loyalty.

Introduction

Health and Wellness Tourism is considered by PENT (2006-2015)[1] as one of the most important markets for the future development of tourism in Portugal. So, through this study we intend to contribute to the development of the Health and Wellness touristic organizations, as well as to increase their service quality.

Service quality and satisfaction as been critical concepts in the field of tourism and leisure, as well as in the marketing because of the fact they can be used as productivity indicators, constituting a guarantee to achieve the organizational objectives with success. Service quality and satisfaction are seen as essential aspects, with a growing importance to the touristic companies in the sense they valorize their services and they can compete effectively in the market. The potential consequences to the companies to in achieving high levels of consumer satisfaction regarding with service quality are well studied and documented (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1996).

Relation between satisfaction and service quality

These concepts were always related, because they present strong similarities at the conceptual level (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Spreng & Mackenzie, 1996).These concepts are so many times related that Liljander (1994) defends that they are synonymous, in the way that both refers to "an evaluation process in which the client compares the service experience with some previous expectations." Besides that, both concepts have in common the fact of considering as a central aspect the point of view of the consumers in the moment they evaluate the services offered by a specific company.González *et al* (2004:5) also contributes to this perspective,

[1] We can translate PENT (2006-2015) as the *Strategic Plan for Tourism in Portugal*, between 2006 and 2015.

verifying the existence of a great similitude between them, mainly when defines quality service as "the satisfaction of clients' expectations."

On the specific case of health and wellness tourism, and recognizing the increase of the number of people interested in having leisure times with quality, becomes evident and necessary that the supply should give special attention to this question, as an answer to the needs and wishes of consumers, as well as the fulfillment of their satisfaction levels. Nowadays and according to Antunes (2008), service quality represents a competing value in this industry. In this sense, this study focuses on identifying the relation Health and Wellness Tourism and its relation with clients' satisfaction and its' impact on consumers' loyalty.

Otherwise, these objectives lead to a final goal that consists in giving to those units a deeper knowledge of the market, so that they may define a proper supply to the needs, wishes and attitudes of their market targets, looking for a better use of their potentialities. This perspective is seen as a determinant factor in what concerns to the competitiveness which allows the regional development of the inner regions of Portugal, where this kind of touristic offer can mainly be found.

Methodology

According to the established objectives, a quantitative analysis was made to attempt to analyze the satisfaction. The empiric research consisted in the interpretation of surveys, administrated to the users of five thermal units and a hotel with Spa facilities situated in Viseu – a Portuguese central region, well-known by its thermal and touristic potential. The survey was constituted by four groups and it was administrated to 400 users of those units. It had a rate of answer of 64,5%, making a total of 258 valid surveys.

The SERVQUAL scale

To analyze the service quality perceived by users we used the SERVQUAL scale presented by Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry (1985). Originally, this scale was created to measure the service quality in lodging and it's composed by five dimensions, with a total of 22 items. Necessarily, the 22 items that composes the service quality scale were adapted according to the nature and characteristics of Health and Wellness Tourism, where each one was evaluated by the users in a Likert scale of five points. To assure the fidelity of the scale of measurement we calculated the Cronbach's Alpha and we obtained a high level of fidelity for the service quality scale, as well as for each one of the three dimensions of service quality (Table 1).

Table 1 – Cronbach's Alpha of the service quality scale

Dimensions of Service Quality	Valor do *Alpha de Cronbach*	Number of *itens* of the scale
Service quality scale	**0,938**	**22**
DEMC (*Attendance*)	0,924	11
FIAB (*Assurance*)	0,880	6
TANG (*Tangibles*)	0,816	5

The dimensions of the scale of service quality were reduced by factorial analysisto the more significant ones for the clients of the studied units (Table 2).

Table 2 – Factorial analysis of principal components

Factors	*Eigenvalue*	% Acumulated Variance
DEMC (*Attendance*)	6,319	28,722
FIAB (*Assurance*)	3,912	46,501
TANG (*Tangibles*)	3,431	62,096

To identify the items that compose the main dimensions or factors of service quality in Health and Wellness units we used the factorial analysis with a principal component of Varimax rotation (Table 3).

Table 3 – Matrix of components after Varimax rotation

	FACTORS		
SERVICE QUALITY ITEMS	DEMC	FIAB	TANG
7. Personal treatment and attendance.	0,756		
2. Presentation of the front-office staff.	0,745		
6. Quickness in answering to the clients' requests.	0,721		
9. Technical competence of the staff.	0,712		
1. Sympathy of the staff.	0,712		
10. Capacity to anticipate the clients' needs.	0,709		
8. Competence of the front-office staff.	0,704		
5. Services according to the publicity and promotion.	0,617		
4. Service done in the right time.	0,615		
3. Service done in the right data.	0,614		
14. Service efficiency.	0,500		
21. Efficiency in invoicing.		0,808	
22. Possibility of quick correction of lacks of service.		0,718	
17. Cleanness e hygiene of installations.		0,681	
16. Service done with good-will.		0,666	
15. Capacity of interaction with the client.		0,568	
20. Nice schedules to the different services and facilities.		0,565	
13. Conservation of the equipments.			0,778
18. Comfort of the installations.			0,771
19. Attractiveness of the public areas.			0,756
12. Technological characteristics of the equipments.			0,710
11. Variety of offered services.			0,504

Results Analysis

To analyze the satisfaction of users about the service quality perceived, we followed the study of Sarmento (2003), determining the mean, the standard deviation, the minimum and the maximum of the three dimensions of service quality found after the factorial analysis (Table 4).

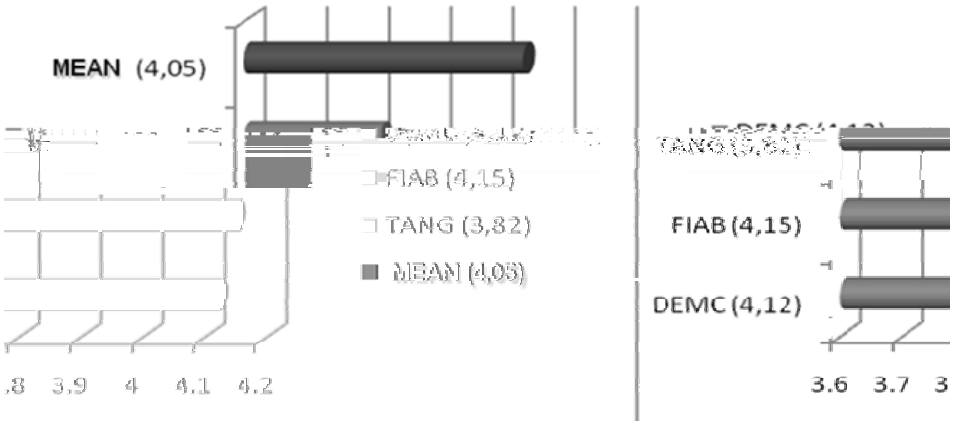
Table 4 – Relation betweenservice quality dimensions and users' satisfaction

DIMENSIONS OF SERVICE QUALITY	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard-deviation
DEMC (*Attendance*)	**1,5**	**5**	**4,11**	**0,817**
1. Sympathy of the staff.	2	5	4,25	0,761
2. Presentation of the front-office staff.	2	5	4,19	0,743
3. Service done in the right data.	2	5	4,25	0,789
4. Service done in the right time.	1	5	4,28	0,797
5. Services done according to the publicity and promotion.	1	5	3,79	0,912
6. Quickness in answering to the clients' requests.	1	5	4,13	0,847
7. Personal treatment and attendance.	2	5	4,16	0,801
8. Competence of the front-office staff.	1	5	4,16	0,806
9. Technical competence of the staff.	2	5	4,10	0,862
10. Capacity to anticipate the clients' needs.	1	5	3,89	0,790
9. Technical competence of the staff.	1	5	4,00	0,878
FIAB (*Assurance*)	**1,7**	**5**	**4,15**	**0,797**
15. Capacity of interaction with the client.	1	5	4,16	0,774
16. Service done with good-will.	2	5	4,18	0,821
17. Cleanness e hygiene of installations.	1	5	4,15	0,909
20. Nice schedules for the different services and facilities.	2	5	4,01	0,807
21. Efficiency in invoicing.	2	5	4,23	0,772
22. Possibility of quick correction of lacks of service.	2	5	4,16	0,700
TANG (*Tangibles*)	**1**	**5**	**3,82**	**0,937**
11. Variety of offered services.	1	5	3,98	0,779
12. Technological characteristics of the equipments.	1	5	3,90	0,903
13. Conservation of the equipments.	1	5	3,91	0,933
18. Comfort of the installations.	1	5	3,86	0,996
19. Attractiveness of the public areas.	1	5	3,47	1,075
Mean Value:	**1,4**	**5**	**4,05**	**0,84**

Based in the study of Sarmento (2003), we calculated a new variable, that's the *mean* (4,05) of the cases or units that compose the several dimensions that regulates satisfaction. In this study satisfaction was measured by a scale of five points.

Observing the results of the Graphic 1, we can conclude that satisfaction level of the users of the studied health and wellness units in what concerns to service quality perceived origins an intermediate to a high level of satisfaction (Xm=4,05 and standard-deviation=1,06).

Besides that, analyzing the dimensions of quality of service, we verified that *Assurance* – FIAB (4,15) and *Attendance* – DEMC (4,12) are the ones that give more satisfaction to the users of the studied units. On the other hand, the service quality dimension *Tangibles* – TANG (3,82) is the one that gives less satisfaction to the users.



Graphic 1– Mean of clients' satisfaction with service quality in health and wellness units.

b). The relation between service quality and satisfaction

According to the literature (*e.g.* Bitner, 1990; Bolton & Drew, 1991; Oliver, 1981), satisfaction leads to service quality. Although, some studies in marketing demonstrates that service quality, in reality, contributes to satisfaction (Caruana & Leyland, 1997). For that reason, mostly of the authors suggest that service quality and satisfaction are different constructs that establish a permanent relation (Bitner, 1990; Bolton & Drew, 1991; Oliver, 1980; Carman, 1990; Taylor & Baker, 1994; Spreng & Mackoy, 1996).

In this study, through linear regression we can confirm, through the significant values obtained, that service quality comes before satisfaction (sig<0,05).

c). The impact of satisfaction on customers' loyalty

According to Chen & Gursoy (2001) in consumer research, loyalty is measured by different indicators, including the intention of keeping buying the same product or service and the will to recommend the product or service to others. In this relation, some authors defend that service quality and satisfaction have independent effects in the future behaviour of users (Cronin & Taylor, 1992). Although, Bloemer*et al.* (1998) in their analysis of the structural

relation between loyalty, product's image, service quality and satisfaction, concluded that exists an indirect relation between loyalty and service quality that leads to satisfaction.

To analyze the impact of service quality in the users' intentions of returning and recommending, we used the linear regression, considering the service quality perceived as the independent variable, evaluated through the 3 factors DEMC, FIAB and TANG and as dependent variable the intention of return and of recommend. The results show that service quality explains through the *Adjusted R Square* 2,7% of the users' intention of recommend the service to others and influences only 0,60% the users will in return to that unit (Table 5).

Table 5 – Linear regression

	Model	R	R Square	*Adjusted R Square*	Std. Error of the Estimate
Intention of recommend	1	,194(a)	,038	**,027**	,483
Intention of return	1	,132(a)	,017	**,006**	,493

a Predictors: (Constant), TANG, DEMC, FIAB

To analyze the impact of satisfaction in the users' intentions of returning and recommending, we also used the linear regression, considering satisfaction level as the independent variableand as dependent variable the intention of return and of recommend. The results show that satisfaction explains through the *Adjusted R Square* 11,1% of the users' intention of recommend the service to others and influences 16,5% the users will in returning to use the services again (Table 6).

Table 6 – Linear regression

	Model	R	R Square	*Adjusted R Square*	Std. Error of the Estimate
Intention of recommend	1	,338(a)	,114	**,111**	,462
Intention of return	1	,410(a)	,168	**,165**	,452

a Predictors: SATISFACTION LEVEL

Finally, the results of the study confirm the influence that satisfaction has on the fidelity of the users and in its buying intentions. Besides that, this study confirms that the influence of satisfaction in the purchase intention is greater than service quality (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Although, service quality represents a global and long term relation with the company, through multiple service experiences, and satisfaction is associated to a transitory judgment that can be changed in any new transaction (*e.g.* Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Bitner, 1990; Bolton & Drew, 1990; Carman, 1990).

Conclusions

In a practical perspective, the results of this study gives important contributions in what concerns to the evaluation of clients' satisfaction of health and wellness units, permitting to verify if it is according with the expectations and desires of their clients.

Besides that, this kind of information can help to improve the global quality of the offered services. Once it's difficult to answer to all the desires and necessities of the clients, we can prioritize objectives according with the aspects of the service that as a lower evaluation, obtaining the maximum benefit.

Besides some limitations, we think the conclusions about the satisfaction levels of the users of Health and Wellness Tourism in the region of Viseu, constitutes the base for a larger investigation in the near future. This kind of investigation seems to us justified because of the existence of so many Thermal units that as contributed so much for the touristic development of this Portuguese region.

In this study we can consider some limitations in what concerns to methodological options. Among it, we identified some of the questions of the survey that should follow the same type of scale in every options of answer to facilitate the analysis of the variables and the statistical treatment of the data.

On the other hand, we should refer that the items of the SERVQUAL scale can be revised in another study in the future, because this scale was adapted to the study of health and wellness and not to lodging, as originally was conceived and applied. We recognize that in what concerns to the analysis of global satisfaction, we agree that should be more convenient the measure of satisfaction thru a bigger scale that can give a big objectivity of results.

Although, service quality and satisfaction have been critical concepts in the fields of tourism and leisure, as well as in the field of marketing, as we referred before, these concepts haven't systematically applied yet to health and wellness tourism that's why this study has got an exploratory character. Besides that, as refers Mueller and Kaufmann (2000), are not yet defined the tools of quality management applied to Health and Wellness Tourism. Because of that and because of the fact that wellness is a complex and multidisciplinary concept, this study as an exploratory and a sectorial character, being limited to a defined and specific geographic area, that although it is very representative of the reality, it's not possible to generalize the results.

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Work to Retirement Transition Effects on Well-being and Life Satisfaction

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Abstract

This research studies the effects of work to retirement transition on well being and life satisfaction. The methodology adopted follows the same individual at pre and post retirement status (N = 413) analysing perception concerning multiple aspects of satisfaction, socialization and health. European Community Household Panel (ECHP, Eurostat) is the main data source considering eight waves (1994-2001) corresponding to seven transitions. In general the individual situation becomes worst after retirement (e.g. health) and socialization increases.

Introduction

The characteristics of employment of older people in Portugal have unique aspects when compared with other countries. The level of participation in the labor market for workers aged 65 years or more is five times higher in Portugal compared with the EU-15 (Figure 1). This value is also higher in the 60-64 years age groups (Figure 2). The stabilization of the participation rate and is apparently contradictory because during the period 2000-2008 a social security reform occurred which included measures to encourage the retention of older workers in the labor market. However, because the Portuguese values for the participation rate of old people were higher than in other countries, stabilization of the values is, in fact, not so surprising (Fontainha et al 2010).

This research sheds some light on the motivations for a worker choosing to stay in the labor market or to retire, analysing the effects of work to retirement transition on certain aspects of well being.

Fig. 1. Participation rate by age groups 2000-2008 Portugal, EU15, US, OECD
Age group 65 +

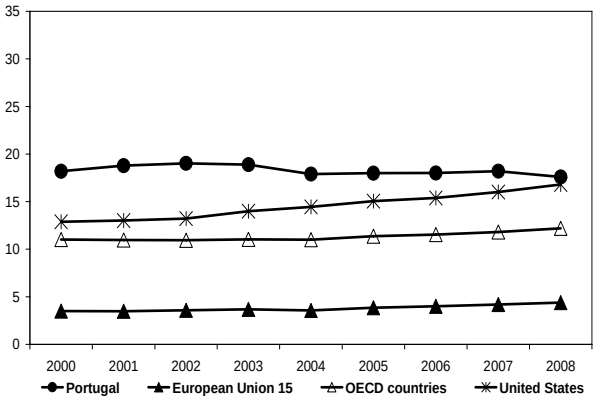
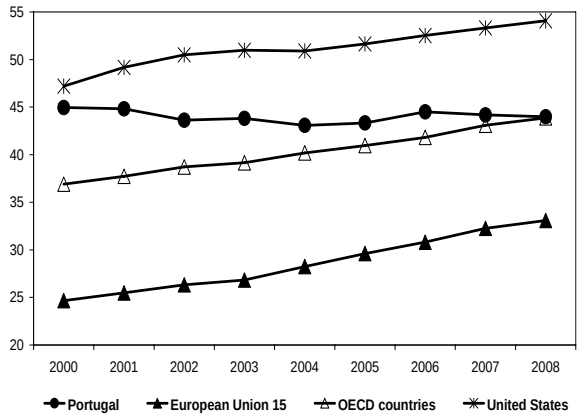


Fig. 1. Participation rate by age groups 2000-2008 Portugal, EU15, US, OECD
Age group 60-64 years



The study of work to retirement associated with early retirement or delaying retirement receives an increasing attention from different scientific fields as for example gerontology (Ekerdt 2010), psychology (Schalk et al. 2010; Cantisano et al. 2009), sociology (Nimrod & Adoni 2006; Atchley 1976). Some empirical studies tried to identify some patterns of the work-to-retirement transition (Larsen & Pedersen 2008).

Data and Methodology

To evaluate the effect on well-being of retirement is difficult because we have to separate the age effect or vintage effect, and the ageing effect, from the effects of historical changes, namely with regard to the standard of living and well-being and the individual's social and family role. One way of separating the age effect from other effects that are associated with it is to work with *panel data*, in which the same individual is surveyed on several occasions over time.

Such an analysis is, possible in the case of Portugal and other European countries using ECHP data and other international databases (Fontainha 2005). The *same* individual, well-being dimensions before and after the retirement date are studied in this paper. European Community Household Panel (ECHP) micro data are used, considering eight waves (1994-2001) and seven transitions. The ECHP variables and questions related with well-being are explained in detail in Eurostat (2001).

The methodology adopted follows the same individual at pre and post retirement status. The paper studies the changes that occurred before and after retirement in relation to satisfaction, perception concerning multiple aspects of life, socialization and health in a total of 413 observations/individual transitions.

The sub-samples of transition cases were constructed this way:

Firstly, for each of the eight years of the panel a sub-sample of individuals was selected based on employment status transition: all individuals who are in the labor market in year *t* and declared retired in year *t+1* and following years until 2001 (the last observed year) were selected.

Secondly, for some dimensions associated with well being, the situation before and after retirement is analyzed. Those aspects are: self perceived satisfaction with health, social contacts and care activities.

Results and Discussion

Next tables summarize the before and after retirement characteristics of persons employed at year *t* and retired at *t+1*. After retirement the socialization increases by different ways (being member of a club or group, talk with neighbors and meet friends or relatives and he participation in care activity (e.g. to spouse or grandchildren) doubles (Table 1). In general the individual situation becomes worst after retirement in multiple domains: satisfaction with health and financial situation are the most relevant. Table 2 shows the self perceived effects on health and also the mean of age at the retirement moment which is around the normal age of retirement fixed by law (65 years).

Table 1. Social Relations and Care Before and after Retirement

	Member of a club or group (Yes)	Talk with Neighbors (Yes)	Meet friends or relatives (Yes)	Looking after children or other person with special need (Yes)
Before Retirement	18%	86%	66%	5%
After Retirement	21%	90%	74%	12%

Table 2. Retirement and Health Satisfaction[a]

	Transition W1->w2	Transition W2->w3	Transition W3->w4	Transition W4->w5	Transition W5->w6	Transition W6->w7
	Before-After	Before-After	Before-After	Before-After	Before-After	Before-After
Mean	2.97 - 3.11	3.01 - 3.47	3.19 - 3.36	3.30 - 3.25	3.31 - 3.34	3.12 - 3.39
St. dev.	.830 - .896	.838 - .802	.751 - .726	.855 - .806	.884 - .893	.677 - .744
Age (retirement)	63.9	65.2	64.8	65.26	62.83	65.29
Mean St. Dev	7.78	9.36	8.33	7.93	8.43	8.32

[a]The question on ECHP was "*How is your health in general?"* 1=very good, 2= good, 3=fair, 4=bad, 5=very bad).w1=1994, w7=2000. (Min=5very bad; Max=1 very good).

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Person-Environment Fit and Readiness for Change: Exploring the Moderating Role of Managerial Support, Organizational Support, and Tenure

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Abstract

The present study investigated the moderating role of organizational support, quality of relationship with supervisors, and tenure with the organization on the relationship between person-environment fit (p-e fit) and readiness for change. Data for this study were collected in two manufacturing firms (N=169). With the exception of tenure, the results failed to support the interactions hypothesized. However, the unique patterns of findings obtained for each of the two organisations sampled underscore the importance of climate variables on readiness for change. Implications of workforce composition and climate to fit perceptions and readiness for change will be discussed.

Introduction

Organizational change often requires that employees redefine their professional goals, and develop new behaviors and competencies. However, when individuals identify with the existing organizational culture, goals, and work roles, and also experience stability with respect to the status quo, transformations can be met with opposition (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Musteen, Baker, & Baeten, 2006; Ryan & Schmit, 1996). The extant literature suggests that support from organization and supervisor may determine the degree to which change and identification represent competing forces (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Rafferty & Simons, 2006). Hence, the purpose of the present study is to examine the effect of perceived organizational support (POS), leader-member exchange (LMX), and tenure on the relationship between different facets of person-environment fit (p-e fit) – person-organization fit (p-o fit), person-job fit (p-j fit), and person-group fit (p-g fit) – and readiness for change.

Readiness for change is reflected on positive beliefs about the need for organizational change, a manifest intention to support implementation, and the conviction that these transitions can be successfully accomplished and will entail benefits for all (Holt, Armenakis, Field, & Harris, 2007; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). The extant research suggests that readiness for change is largely contingent on perceived differences and commonalities between the individual and the work environment. Therefore, understanding how perceptions of fit with the organization, work roles, and workgroup affect change readiness is critical to the success of change management initiatives (Caldwell, Herold, & Fedor, 2004; Ryan & Schmit, 1996). There is general consensus in the literature that perfect fit is seldom a guarantee of change readiness. In fact, high identification with organization and workgroup is believed to negatively impact attitudes toward change (Van Knippenberg, Martin, &Tyler, 2006). Recently, however, it has been advanced that greater fit is advantageous during transitions if organization and managers are able to convey that the proposed changes will maintain a desired degree of matching among individual's goals and values, and those of the organization (Choi & Price, 2005; Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005). This can be achieved through a number of measures, including a) clear communications regarding the goals and

benefits of change, b) provision of necessary resources and training to ensure adjustment to new work demands, and c) employee involvement in planning and implementation (Cole et al., 2006; Rafferty & Simons, 2006; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). In view of this, LMX and POS are expected to positively affect attitudes toward change. In particular, the detrimental effect of high identification with organization and workgroup on change perceptions can be attenuated or modified by managerial support, trust in leadership, and a positive organizational culture (Goodman & Truss, 2004; Madsen et al., 2005). Recent empirical findings suggest that positive relationships with supervisors and trust in the organization's capacity to effectively plan and implement change are positively related to readiness for change (Holt et al., 2007; Raffery & Simons, 2006). While there has been some evidence of the positive effects of LMX and POS on attitudes toward change (Self, Armenakis, & Schraeder, 2007), these effects have not been examined with reference to p-e fit frameworks. In view of this, an examination of the moderating effect of LMX and POS on the relationship between p-e fit and readiness for change is proposed:

H1: There is an interaction between LMX and facets of p-e fit (p-o, p-j, and p-g) such that high LMX individuals demonstrate greater readiness for change than low LMX individuals when p-e fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-e fit is low.

H2: There is an interaction between POS and facets of p-e fit (p-o, p-j, and p-g) such that high POS individuals demonstrate greater readiness for change than low POS individuals when p-e fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-e fit is low.

With few exceptions (see Ostroff & Rothhausen, 1997), there is little research examining the moderating role of tenure in p-e fit. In view of the well-established relationship between tenure and job autonomy, job involvement, and decision-making centrality (Cheng & Chan, 2008), which represent critical antecedents of employee attitudes during transitions, it is conceivable that longer tenured individuals will display less willingness to abdicate their achieved status and embrace change (Barker & Patterson,1996; Musteen et al., 2006). Furthermore, this reluctance may be exacerbated by lack of perceived identification with organizational values and with the workgroup, which for longer tenured, higher status individuals often represent important sources of support and validation. Hence, the present study hypothesizes the following:

H3: There is an interaction between Tenure and facets of p-e fit (p-o, p-j, and p-g) such that longer tenured individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than shorter tenured individuals when p-e fit is low. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-e fit is high.

Methodology

Sample

Data for the present study were collected in two manufacturing organizations (herein Organization A and Organization B). In Organization A, 94 employees volunteered to participate (70% response rate), and in Organization B, the survey was completed by 75 respondents (52% response rate). Based on power analysis results, the sample size obtained (N=169) was adequate for the regression analyses proposed. This study's participants were mostly male (69.7%), and 64.2% were over the age of 40. It should be noted that, while age

and gender distributions were similar across both organizations, Organization B participants reported substantially longer tenure than participants from Organization A (53% of participants in Organization B and only 24% of participants in Organization A had been affiliated to the organization for more than 10 years).

Procedure

Respondents from both participating organizations were instructed to access a web link to the survey. Each person was assigned a code to ensure that the survey was only administered once to the same respondent. The online survey consisted of a cover page with a disclaimer regarding informed consent, confidentiality, and use of the data collected; demographic information (i.e., age, gender, managerial position, tenure, and functional group); and nine measures corresponding to the variables of interest. Two alternate forms of the survey were issued to both participating organizations to control for order effects.

Measures

Person-organization fit (POFit) and Person-job fit (PJFit) were each measured using four-item scales developed by Saks and Ashforth (2002). POFit items reflected value congruence between employee and organization, and need-fulfillment perceptions (α = .87). PJFit items reflected demands-abilities fit and needs-supplies fit (α = .84). Finally, person-group fit (PGFit) was determined with a three-item scale (α = .88) (DeRue & Morgeson, 2007). Responses to all p-e fit facets were measured along a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*to a very little extent*) to 5 (*to a very large extent*). The participants were also asked to provide an assessment of perceived quality of relationship with the supervisor, measured with the five-item scale LMX 5 (α = .80) (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982). Unlike other measures used in the present study, the LMX response anchors were specific to each of the five items. The participants' Perceived Organizational Support (POS) was assessed using a 9-item abbreviated version of Eisenberger's (1986) measure. Internal consistencies for this short version range from .93 to .97 (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Responses were obtained on a 7-point Likert scale anchored at 1 with *strongly disagree* and at 7 with *strongly agree*. Individual readiness for change was assessed using 25 items from Holt et al.'s (2007) Readiness for Change Measure. Ten items related to the perceived "appropriateness" of change to the organization (CAppr) (α = .80), six items assessed the respondent's perception of "management support" for change (CMgt) (α = .79), six items determined the respondent's belief in their capacity to adjust and adequately respond to job demands following change ("change self-efficacy") (CEffic) (α = .79), and three items evaluated the degree to which respondent's considered that the change would be "personally beneficial" (CBene) (α = .65). Responses were measured on a 7-point response format ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Results

Bivariate Correlations

Table 1 summarizes the intercorrelations between the variables in study. As expected, all p-e fit facets were positively and significantly correlated with each other; with the moderator variables, POS and LMX; and with the readiness for change dimensions "managerial support

for change" and "appropriateness of change". No significant correlations were obtained relating p-e fit types with "change self-efficacy" and "change perceived as personally beneficial". Interestingly, tenure was negatively and significantly related to "appropriateness of change", to "change self-efficacy", and to "change perceived as personally beneficial". These findings merit further attention, especially in light of the positive and significant relationship obtained between tenure and organization.

Table 1: Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. POFit	(*.90)*										
2. PJFit	.59**	(*.87)*									
3. PGFit	.61**	.41**	(*.94)*								
4. POS	.67**	.51**	.61**	(*.95)*							
5. LMX	.43**	.38**	.53**	.60**	(*.77)*						
6. CAppr	.42**	.19*	.34**	.50**	.41**	*(.92)*					
7. CMgt	.42**	.21*	.34**	.56**	.39**	.41**	(*.89)*				
8. CEffic	.11	-.05	.13	.08	.19*	.48**	.18*	(*.80)*			
9. CBene	.07	.03	.07	.08	.13	.27**	.02	.14	*(.84)*		
10. Age	.06	.05	-.07	-.06	-.04	-.15	-.03	-.15	-.10		
11. Tenure	-.06	.04	-.14	-.04	-.08	-.20*	-.00	-.18*	-.21*	.50**	
12. Org.	-.11	.04	-17*	-.21**	-.20**	-.36**	-.05	-.36**	-.66**	.29**	.40**

Note: n = 169; All alphas in diagonal; POFit = person-organization fit; PJFit = person-job fit; PGFit = person-group fit; POS = perceived organizational support; LMX = leader-member exchange; CAppr = appropriateness of change; CMgt = managerial support for change; CEffic = change self-efficacy; CBene = change perceived as personally beneficial; Org. = Sampled Organization; * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Hypotheses Testing

A series of moderated multiple regressions were conducted to test the study hypotheses. The results failed to confirm Hypotheses 1 and 2, proposing significant interactions between LMX and p-e fit facets, and POS and p-e fit facets, respectively. Despite this, LMX and POS seemed to play an important role as predictors of readiness for change. The addition of LMX to the model improved the prediction of "appropriateness of change" and "managerial support for change" for POFit (ΔR^2= .07, p< .01 and ΔR^2= .05, p< .01), PJFit (ΔR^2= .13, p< .01 and ΔR^2= .11, p< .01), and PGFit (ΔR^2= .08, p< .01 and ΔR^2= .06, p< .01). Moreover, although none of the main effects were significant regarding "change self-efficacy", the inclusion of LMX in the model also elicited significant R^2 changes for POFit (ΔR^2= .03, p< .05) and PJFit (ΔR^2= .05, p< .01). With respect to POS, the addition of this variable to the model substantially improved the prediction of "appropriateness of change" and "managerial support for change" for POFit (ΔR^2= .11, p< .01 and ΔR^2= .14, p< .01), PJFit (ΔR^2= .21, p< .01 and ΔR^2= .28, p< .01), and PGFit (ΔR^2= .16, p< .01 and ΔR^2= .19, p< .01). Contrary to LMX, POS did not elicit significant improvements to the prediction "change self-efficacy" and "change perceived as personally beneficial".

In partial support of Hypothesis 3, tenure showed significant interaction effects with POFit (ΔR^2= .03, p< .05) and PGFit (ΔR^2= .04, p< .05) regarding "appropriateness of change". At high levels of POFit and PGFit, there were no significant differences in perceptions of appropriateness of change between tenure groups. However, at low levels of the predictors, the short tenure group displayed more positive perceptions with regard to "appropriateness of

change" than the group with longer length of tenure. Longer tenured individuals tended to exhibit lower readiness for change, especially when they also perceived low p-e fit. With respect to direct effects, tenure improved the prediction of "change self-efficacy" and "change perceived as personally beneficial" across all p-e fit facets.

Overall, the results obtained suggest that the positive impact of LMX and POS on readiness for change exceeded that of fit with the organization, job, and workgroup. It should be noted that "organization" was significantly correlated with readiness for change with and tenure (see Table 1). Independent t-tests, conducted to examine mean differences in readiness for change between the two participating organizations, revealed that readiness for change was significantly greater for Organization A than for Organization B. Considering the relationship between tenure and readiness for change, between organization and readiness for change, and between tenure and organization, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted post hoc.

Table 2: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Person-Environment Fit, Tenure, and Organization as predictors of Readiness for Change (Appropriateness of Change)

Predictors	b	SEb	β	F Change	R^2	ΔR^2
Organization	-.801	.176	-.351**	20.722**	.124	.124**
Organization, Tenure	-.317	.188	-.138	2.849	.140	.017
Organization, Tenure, POFit	.448	.078	.401**	32.869**	.299	.159**
Organization, Tenure, PJFit	.168	.084	.150*	4.001*	.173	.023*
Organization, PGFit	.362	.082	.325**	19.372**	.226	.103**

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Appropriateness of Change; POFit = person-organization fit; PJFit = person-job fit; PGFit = person-group fit $^{*} = p < .05$. $^{**} = p < .01$.

Table 2 shows that tenure and organization – especially the latter – explained a significant portion of the variance in "appropriateness of change" beyond that explained by p-e fit. In addition, organization uniquely contributed to "change self-efficacy" and "change perceived as personally beneficial" where p-e fit facets had no significant impact.

Discussion

The present study holds interesting implications regarding the impact of individual- and organization-level variables on readiness for change. Nonetheless, the study exhibits a few limitations that require caution in the interpretation and generalization of findings. First, a considerable proportion of the respondents exhibited long tenure (> 15 years). These tenure distributions do not accurately depict any of the participating organizations' workforce composition, which approximate a normal distribution. This skewed distribution was particularly evident in the second organization surveyed, and may have accounted for the strong relationship between tenure and organization, and for the patterns of response obtained with regards to attitudes toward change. Second, the findings may have been influenced by the manner in which tenure information was collected. In order to preserve the respondents' anonymity and to ensure an adequate response rate, interval tenure data were collected. However, continuous data would have allowed for better detection of existing moderating effects, and potentially provided more interpretable results (Aguinis, Beaty, Boik, & Pierce,

2005). Third, organization-level variables were not included in the present study (e.g., previous change experience, organizational climate for change) and could have elucidated the findings regarding the differential impact of lengths of tenure on readiness for change, the relationship between readiness for change and its predictors (Armenakis et al., 2003), and the different patterns of results obtained across participating organizations. Finally, the p-e fit measures used in this study, though well-established in the extant literature, failed to capture essential functional elements, including complementary p-o fit and p-g fit. It appears that the attempts made in the last several decades to create abbreviated measures of the p-e fit construct have accomplished as much at the expense of a comprehensive assessment of fit. All-inclusive measures of p-e fit would likely provide more meaningful results, and exhibit more moderate correlations with measures that reflect affect toward the organization (e.g., perceived organizational support).

Despite its limitations, the present study offers several contributions to organizational change research and practice. In particular, it informs the debate on the relationship between each of the p-e fit facets and readiness for change dimensions. In this study, increasing fit with the organization, job, and primary workgroup was associated with increasingly positive perceptions regarding the appropriateness of upcoming changes, and with perceptions of managerial support for these changes. However, no significant findings were obtained with regard to the remaining dimensions of readiness for change: change self-efficacy and perceptions of change as personally beneficial. These findings are consistent with existing perspectives on organizational change, suggesting that multiple and often competing attitudes toward change and interpretations of change can coexist within an organization (Gilbert, 2006). While change was generally perceived as necessary to the organization, and supported by senior management, these positive attitudes were not extended to the individuals' sense of ability to functionally cope with upcoming changes, nor did they reflect positive individual-level valence toward change. The relationship between cognitive representations of change and change implementation stages may clarify these findings (Gavetti & Levinthal, 2000; Gilbert, 2006). At an earlier stage of change implementation, positive attitudes are fostered by organization-wide communications that underscore the importance of the changes to the future of the organization. At a later stage, these positive attitudes are drawn out by individual-level interventions, including training and intra-departmental communication, emphasizing the personal benefits of change. Because both organizations sampled were at early stages of implementation, respondents had a more acute understanding of the importance of upcoming changes to the organization and of the degree of managerial support, but had yet to develop self-efficacy and positive valence at the individual level.

The hypotheses regarding the moderating role of LMX and POS were not supported. However, perceived support from managers and organization elicited positive attitudes toward change, even in the absence of perceived fit. High-quality relationships with the supervisor had a positive impact on attitudes toward organizational change, including change self-efficacy and perceptions of change as personally beneficial. LMX appeared to be a key component of change readiness across its operational dimensions. In practice, the supervisors' role during organizational transformations is to promote confidence in their subordinates' ability to navigate through organizational change, and to clarify the benefits of these changes. Positive relationships with supervisors are typically associated with effective mentoring and training outcomes and with effective communication across organizational levels. In turn, competency development for change and quality of communication regarding change initiatives is associated with readiness for change. Further research should explore the causal links advanced. While support from the organization was not significantly related to change self-efficacy and to perceptions of change as personally beneficial, POS was positively

associated to perceptions of appropriateness of change and of managerial support for change. Consistent with the literature, these findings corroborate the differential impact of LMX and POS on organizational change facets (Van Knippenberg et al., 2006).

Results of the present study suggest that the direct impact of tenure on readiness for change may differ from its moderating effect. Regarding the direct impact of tenure, short tenured individuals exhibited greater readiness for change than long tenured individuals. While long tenure may be indicative of individuals' satisfaction with the organization's culture and functioning, which will render them less amenable to change (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Musteen et al., 2006; Van Dam et al., 2008), short tenured individuals will perceive change as a necessary mechanism to improve organizational functioning (Barker & Patterson, 1996). Regarding the moderating effect of tenure, the relationships between p-e fit and readiness for change were more substantial for the long tenure group. It is possible that attitudes toward change will become increasingly contingent upon fit with the organization, job, and workgroup as the length of affiliation increases. Whilst this assumption requires further empirical examination, it raises interesting questions regarding the different meanings of fit and of readiness for change for individuals of different lengths of tenure.

Lastly, study findings revealed that tenure and organization uniquely predicted readiness for change. This unique impact of tenure and of organization-level variables on readiness for change has been reported in the extant literature (Armenakis, Beaty, Boik, & Pierce, 1993; Van Dam, Oreg, & Schyns, 2008). In regard to the organization, a positive climate for change associates with greater involvement in the process, enhanced trust in management, and better information networks, which in turn have a positive influence on cognitions regarding change and increase overall readiness (Van Dam et al., 2008). Given that climate variables were not examined in the present study, further research is needed to explore the concurrent impact of workforce composition, attitudes toward the organization, and organizational climate on individual responses to change.

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Understanding Practitioner Resistance towards Amalgamating Patient Health Data in South Australian General Practice

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Abstract

This paper reports the results from a survey of 131 medical practitioners in South Australian General Practice concerning their potential adoption of a computerised system for storing and amalgamating patient health information from several practices. While exposure to use of other Health Informatics technology in their workflow underpinned both the importance and the certainty that practitioners attached to potential implementation outcomes for an amalgamated system, practitioner attitudes were found to be primarily decided by how each resolved the dichotomy between competing influences. The perceived potential for such technology to improve the health and well-being outcomes of their patients was the primary influence and predominantly positive. The perceived potential for involuntary or unwanted change in the status, control and autonomy of the professional's role was the second most important influence and primarily negative. The data nonetheless indicated almost one quarter of the sample was likely to resist the adoption of such technology if it were to be immediately implemented. This suggested that strategies for implementing such systems might beneficially be tailored for individual practitioners so as to address and modify their individual perceptions of the relative strengths of competing influences. The paper discusses some possible ways to improve adoption rates for such systems by either increasing practitioner belief in the potential for improvement in their patient health and well-being outcomes, or decreasing their belief in the inevitability of unwanted change to their role and value both within their practice and the wider system of healthcare delivery.

Introduction

This paper explores potential adoption of data amalgamating Health Informatics (HI) technology by South Australian practitioners in general practice medicine (GPs). General Practice in South Australia, estimated to see 85 percent of healthcare consumers annually, mostly operates as solo practices, partnerships, or incorporated bodies averaging 2.5 GPs each. Within this scenario, Health Informatics is presently being promoted by governments as an emergent interdisciplinary label for the application of computers to improving the efficiency and effectiveness of healthcare management (Knight, Patrickson et al., 2008). Yet implementing HI systems requires adoption of electronic patient records and potentially the need to reengineer traditional workflows and disrupt existing business and clinical processes (Ford, Menachemi et al., 2006).

Background

Nowadays, almost all practices have at least one computer, and some have designed their processes to increase the use of technologically supported systems in order to increase practice

income (Powell-Davies and Fry, 2005; Rudd and Watts, 2005; Weller and Dunbar, 2005; Henderson, Britt et al., 2006). Nonetheless, understanding why people accept (or not) a particular innovation remains a challenging and complex issue, and medical practitioners have been cited as classic examples of 'professional' populations where understanding decisions of what innovations are adopted and when has been especially problematic (Mintzberg, 1979; Davis, Bagozzi et al., 1989; Frambach and Schillerwaett, 2002; Greenhalgh, Glenn et al., 2004).

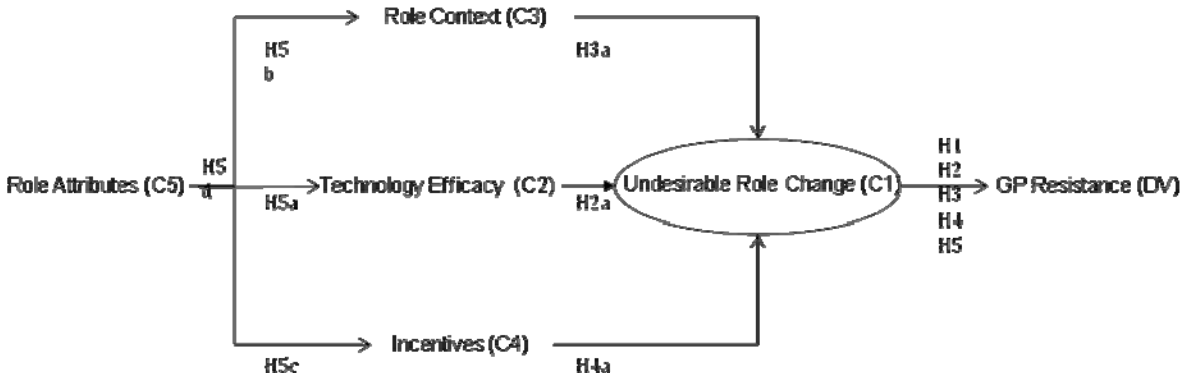
Research Approach

Table 1: Hypotheses concerning GP resistance towards new HI technology adoption

H_1: *There is a direct positive relationship between the potential for new HI technology to undesirably change their role (C1) and emergent GP resistance to adopting new HI Technology (DV)*
H2: *There is an indirect negative relationship between the potential for HI technology to improve patient outcomes (C2) and emergent GP resistance to adopting new HI Technology (DV).* ***H2a:*** *There is a direct negative relationship between GP perceptions of the potential for HI technology to improve patient health and well-being outcomes (C2) and the potential for undesirable change to the GP role (C1).*
H3: *There is an indirect positive relationship between the context in which they perform their role (C3) and emergent GP resistance towards adopting new HI Technology (DV).* ***H3a:*** *There is a direct positive relationship between GP perceptions of the context in which they perform their role (C3) and the potential for undesirable change to the GP role (C1).*
H4: *There is an indirect negative relationship between the influence of incentives on HI technology adoption decision-making (C4) and emergent GP resistance to adopting new HI Technology (DV).* ***H4a*** *There is a direct negative relationship between GP perceptions of the influence of incentives on HI technology adoption decision-making (C4) and the potential for undesirable change to the GP role (C1).*
H5: *There is an indirect positive relationship between the attributes of a GP role (C5) and emergent GP resistance to adopting new HI Technology (DV).* ***H5a:*** *There is a direct negative relationship between GP perceptions of the attributes of a GP role (C5) and the efficacy of new HI technology (C2).* ***H5b:*** *There is a direct negative relationship between GP perceptions of the attributes of a GP role (C5) and the role context (C3).* ***H5c:*** *There is a direct negative relationship between GP perceptions of the attributes of a GP role (C5) and the influence of incentives to adopt new HI technology (C4).* ***H5d:*** *There is an indirect positive relationship between GP perceptions of the attributes of a GP role (C5) and the potential for undesirable change to the GP role (C1).*

The purpose of this study was to test tentative hypotheses from an earlier qualitative enquiry that had been directed at a small sample of GPs to try and capture potential reasons why they tend to resist (or not) adoption and implementation of HI systems (Knight, Patrickson et al., 2008). Findings had suggested that sources of GP resistance stemmed from deeply held GP beliefs, feelings, anxieties and values that could be challenged by such technology adoption. Findings suggested motivation for adoption reflected GP belief in the efficacy of the technology to improve health outcomes of their patients, the wider population and management of the healthcare system. These data led the authors to formulate a series of hypotheses about the relationships between these forces, rewritten as five main hypotheses concerning forces influencing GP intention to resist adoption (**Table 1**). Testing these hypotheses formed the basis of the design of a questionnaire for distribution to a representative sample of GPs and the findings presented in this paper.The conceptual model below (Figure 1) frames the hypotheses and reflects the view that GP resistance towards new HI technology adoption is the outcome of the perceived advantages (or otherwise) of potential changes in valued antecedents associated with their role such as patient outcomes and their status and autonomy.

Figure 1: Theoretical Model of Forces of Influence on GP Resistance



The dependent variable (GP Resistance) sought to measure GP beliefs that adopting new HI technology would improve the legibility, accessibility and communicability of their patients' health data and improve their workflow efficiency and effectiveness as a medical professional. Anticipated as factors that might underpin resistance, measurement of change to the GP role focused on the perceived potential for change to their autonomy, control, status and relationship with their patient. Measuring context antecedents focused on collecting information on the extent to which perception of the environment influenced GP resistance. These included practice characteristics such as the number of practice GPs and nurses and the current use of clinical and billing software.

Anticipated as a positive force for adoption, measurement of the potential for HI technology use to underpin improved patient health and well-being outcomes focused on the importance of improvement in different patient populations. The survey also sought to measure the influence of incentives and what modifications in existing strategies might potentially improve the penetration of HI technology use in GP practice. This included the extent to which incentives were seen to address the value of the GP role, data, participation in policy decision-making and patient attitude toward GP use of such technology. The survey also encompassed individual and role attributes that in combination potentially ameliorated or exacerbated GP perceptions of other influences. This included information on their relative, self-perceived professional, technological and innovative traits. Interview content had also indicated experience as a GP and hours worked per week were both potentially influential, while literature on professionals and technology adoption studies also suggested alignment with professional organisations, age and gender may be relevant to GP attitude (Mintzberg, 1980; Venkatesh, Morris et al., 2003).

Pre-testing of the survey instrument resulted in some minor modifications. Respondents were targeted from member practices of three South Australian Divisions of General Practice. This gave an estimated potential sample size of 650 GPs from 210 practices. Questionnaires were distributed resulting in a return rate of 131 usable replies (20.15%). The sample demographic profile was found to roughly reflect the Australian GP population.

Data Analysis and Results

Factor Analysis was performed to reduce each construct of items to fewer factors, to make the data set more manageable and to facilitate testing the theoretical model with valid variables

(Coakes and Steed, 2007). Principal Axis Factoring was chosen because the aim was to describe structure and using Squared Multiple Correlations provides more accurate estimates of initial communalities (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). Only the 130 items with a continuous scale of measurement were analysed, only factors with eigenvalues >1 were extracted and only items correlating at >0.4 with the factor were considered to be adequately loading. The single Factors extracted were transformed into new variables (see **Table 2**).

Table 2: Results of Factor Analysis showing items excluded and variance explained

Factor	Description	Included	Excluded	KMO	% Var
DV	**Intention to Resist Adoption**	**11**	**0**	**0.900**	**54.318**
F_1	Undesirable Role Change	31	3	0.929	48.791
F_2	Technology Efficacy	11	0	0.923	72.182
F_3	Role Context	13	25	0.861	46.442
F_4	Incentives	11	0	0.897	57.501
F_5	Role Attributes	16	9	0.853	39.834
	Total Items	**93**	**37**		

Factor Analysis narrowed the focus of the Role Context influence on GP intention. A high score in the Role Attributes Factor indicated the belief that the respondent used HI technology as much as other GPs, had a similar propensity for its use in their workflow, and was not influenced by their comparative professional and innovation traits. Factor Analysis similarly narrowed the focus of Role Attributes influence on GP intention and showed all five factors to have the anticipated significant relationship with GP intention to resist (see

Table 3). The results also suggested the relationship between role attributes with GP resistance may be fully mediated by the perceived potential for undesirable role change as hypothesised.

Table 3: Correlation of Factors extracted through Factor Analysis

	DV	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
DV:GP Resistance						
F_1:Undesirable Role Change	**0.626****					
F_2:Technology Efficacy	**-0.653****	-0.513**				
F_3:Role Context	**-0.203***	0.009	0.170			
F_4:Incentives	**-0.401****	-0.199*	0.328**	0.169		
F_5:Role Attributes	**-0.512****	-0.530**	0.471**	0.098	0.107	
α-value	**0.919**	0.966	0.965	0.909	0.935	0.904
Mean	**2.53**	4.95	5.23	4.56	6.14	3.52
Standard Deviation	**1.143**	1.332	1.357	1.049	0.930	1.226
Minimum	**1**	1	1	3	2	1
Maximum	**6**	7	7	7	7	7

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

Thus factor correlations supported the hypothesised significance (albeit not always the pathway) of relationships between the original constructs of influence and GP intention to resist in H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4 and H_5. However the anticipated mediation of the GPs' role attributes relationship with GP intention to resist by the GP context (H_{5b}) and financial incentives (H_{5c}) was not supported, nor was the anticipated mediation of the GP context influence on GP resistance by the perceived potential for undesirable role change (H_{3a}) supported.

A series of ANOVAs were subsequently carried out to examine the effect of the categorical variables on the derived factors, and the *F*-value results are summarised in

Table 4. These show solo GP status, accreditation, practice nurses employed, experience as a GP and AMA membership all had significant relationships with GP intention to resist new HI technology adoption. On the other hand, none of the categorical variables had a significant relationship with GP context and incentives, while hours worked, gender and practice designation had no significant relationship with any of the factors or with GP intention.

Table 4: F-values when comparing Categorical Variables and Factors using one-way ANOVA

	F_3	F_4	F_5	F_2	F_1	**DV**
RACGP membership	0.627	0.058	12.953**	4.978*	4.093*	**0.248**
AMA membership	0.062	1.287	2.322	0.274	4.412*	**4.296***
Gender	1.659	1.030	0.806	3.582	0.388	**0.006**
Age >55	2.239	0.073	7.126**	1.879	5.818*	**1.636**
Age <45	0.422	3.273	1.748	2.147	2.565	**1.655**
Experience <15	1.077	3.070	1.847	5.808*	1.571	**4.618***
Experience 15 -25	2.630	3.021	0.724	0.059	1.597	**0.275**
Work <15	1.555	0.412	0.518	0.092	0.307	**0.324**
Work >40	2.258	2.212	1.092	2.399	1.489	**1.086**
Teaching Accreditation	0.110	0.000	26.402***	10.196**	17.677***	**9.089****
No Practice Nurses	0.092	0.014	19.848***	7.154**	12.635**	**7.209****
1 Practice Nurse	0.184	2.739	9.167**	1.981	5.154*	**4.151***
Solo GP	2.737	0.412	33.743***	15.686***	26.666***	**9.402****
GPs > 5	0.761	2.442	9.123**	1.512	4.986*	**0.609**
Outer Metropolitan	2.466	0.073	0.021	0.152	0.736	**0.021**
Rural	0.346	0.142	0.768	0.083	0.648	**0.001**

***p<.001**p<.01, *p<.05

Analysis to determine whether the derived factors were predictive of GP intention to resist utilised Exploratory Factor Analysis through multiple regression. This resulted in the evaluation of ten models with Model 10 containing all four factors that had a significant individual relationship with GP intention to resist in the presence of the other factors ($F_{(4, 122)}$ = 44.772, p<.001) and explained 59.5% of the variance. This was a more parsimonious

representation of the key common factors influencing GP attitude formation and identified the potential for HI technology to improve patient outcomes as statistically the most important factor in predicting GP intention to resist adoption ahead of Undesirable Role Change, Incentives and GP Attributes. Thus, moderation of the Incentives Factor and GP resistance relationship may be indicated by different combinations of individual and practice attributes for different GPs. Also, the anticipated indirect relationship between the Role Attributes and Undesirable Role Change Factors emerged as a significant direct relationship.

Table 5: Summary of Data Analysis support for Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Significant	Directness	Supported	Comment for this Sample
H_1	F_1, DV - yes	Direct - yes	Yes	As hypothesised
H_5	F_5, DV - yes	Indirect - yes	Yes	Also Direct (not hypothesised)
H_2	F_2, DV - yes	Indirect - no	Partially	Direct (not hypothesised) clearly supported
H_3	F_3, DV - yes	Indirect - moderator	Partially	Not significant with other factors
H_4	F_4, DV - yes	Indirect - no	Partially	Direct (not hypothesised) clearly supported
H_{5a}	F_5, F2 - yes	Direct - no	Partially	Strong indications
H_{5d}	F_5, F_1 - yes	Indirect - no	Partially	Direct (not hypothesised) clearly supported
H_{2a}	F_2, F_1 - no	Direct - yes	**No**	Strong indications
H_{3a}	F_3, F_1 - no	Direct - no	**No**	F3 Moderation of F4 strongly indicated
H_{4a}	F_4, F_1 - no	Direct - no	**No**	F2 Mediation of F4 strongly indicated
H_{5b}	F_5, F_3 - no	Direct - yes	**No**	Strong indications
H_{5c}	F_5, F_4 - no	Direct - yes	**No**	Strong indications

Discussion

It seems conceptually reasonable that resistance would be abrogated by GP belief in the potential of new HI technology to improve patient health outcomes. It also seems reasonable the perceived potential for undesirable change to the GP role would be a barrier to GP adoption of new HI technology. It further seems reasonable that using HI technology and the propensity to use technology would influence both GP resistance and GP perception of the desirability of any perceived potential for technologically facilitated change to their role. It finally seems reasonable that the influence of incentives targeted at increasing GP uptake of new HI technology on GP attitude formation would be moderated by the range and frequency of consult types in combination with other individual and practice attributes. This thinking is represented in the modified research model (see

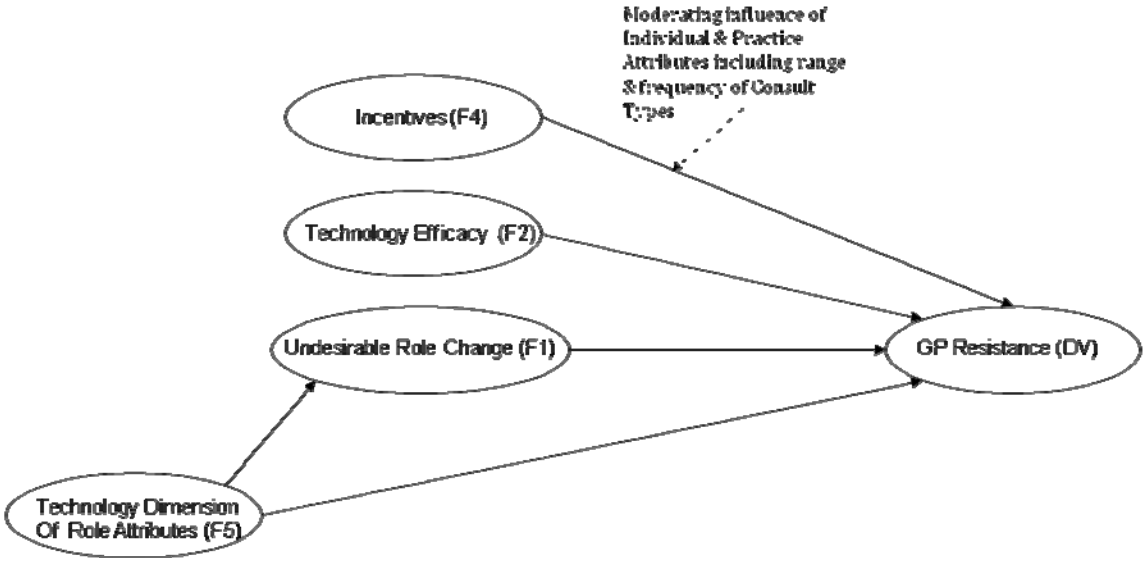
Figure **2** below).

Conclusion

Results indicate effective strategies to overcome resistance and improve HI technology diffusion in general practice medicine should emphasise benefits to the GPs' patient rather than change to their role. Anticipated change to role or valued contextual antecedents suggested these were potentially powerful inputs to emergent resistance. A situation would then be created where the forces for adoption were clearly stronger than the forces for resistance. Thus a strong motivation to move away from adoption would likely underpin an imbalance of forces favouring resistance.

By highlighting that factors pushing rejection are equally worthy of focus as factors pushing for adoption, this research provides an alternative perspective concerning adoption.

Figure 2: Most parsimonious hypothesised Model



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Changes Through Five Crises: The Perspective of Core Values (Case of Baltika)

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Abstract

Crises is an unstable time for an organization, with distinct possibility for an undesirable outcome (Devlin 2007). This situation creates threat to important goals of an organization and thus implies changes because the old system can no longer be maintained. Estonian company Baltika what comes from command economy has coped with five crisis resulted from problems of external and internal environment. This paper aims to analyze how Baltika has handled four critical periods (within time horizon 1990-2009) and to draw main lessons learned form the perspective of organizational core values.

The Baltika Group is a rapidly growing fashion retailer in the Baltic States, Central and Eastern Europe. It can be characterized with facts that last twenty years the sales have grown more than 100 times and the company is functioning in seven countries now. On the path of development Baltika has passed three crisis and is in the mid of the fourth to date. The first (1990-92) crisis was originated by the collapse of command economy and it led to change of typical production orientation towards market oriented company. The second crisis (1997-99) was related to various finance problems in direct and general environment and pushed company to develop vertical business model. The third crisis came from decisions made in company. The planned radical change was not provided with sufficient financial and knowledge support, while the outcome was international vertically integrated fashion company. The fourth crisis arose from the combination of inside and outside factors and the fifth crisis was related to the external environment. Reasons, solutions and outcomes of these crises are discussed from the perspective of core values and lessons.

Introduction and background of approach to crisis

If we accept the view that an organization is in constant interaction with its environment, it follows that organizations have also to pursue radical changes when the surroundings alter fast. Organizations receive form their environments four types of resources ─ human resources, information, technology, and legitimacy (Trice & Beyer 1993). By definition, the environment provides the context in which the organization operates. Organizations meet various types of challenges because the both external and internal environments trigger the need for changes. These pressures can be predicted or unexpected and here the term of crisis is widely applied for indicating that the status of organization is vulnerable. Crises is an unstable time for an organization, with distinct possibility for an undesirable outcome (Devlin 2007). This situation creates threat to important goals of an organization and thus implies changes because the old system can no longer be maintained.

The Baltika Group is a rapidly growing fashion retailer in the Baltic States, Central and Eastern Europe. It can be characterized with facts that last twenty years the sales have grown more than 100 times and the company is functioning in seven countries now. On the path of development Baltika has passed three crisis and is in the mid of the fifth to date. This paper

aims to analyze how Baltika has handled four critical periods (within time horizon 1990-2009) and to draw main lessons learned form the perspective of organizational core values. The paper is organized as follows. The next section is a brief overview of background for understanding sources of crisis, the second section outlines the Baltika's different crisis, and finally the last section compares these periods in respect with external pressures, internal circumstances, company's reaction, main values and lessons learned form the processes.

Hannan and Freeman (1997, 1988) suggest that organisational efficiency results from the excess of some kind of capacity. They say: "In a rapidly changing environment, the definition of excess of capacity is likely to change frequently. What is used today may become excessive tomorrow, and what is excessive today may be crucial tomorrow." In the task environment of organisations it forms the basis on dynamism (i.e. stability-instability and turbulence) ((Dess, Beard 1982, 1984). Extreme conditions and status are seen differently in the organizational theory, while there are approaches that underline the usefulness of that kind of situations. For example, seminal study by Greiner (1972) introduces the Evolution-Revolution Model of organizational development where sequential periods are presented: each evolutionary period is concluded by a revolution, while the potential crisis is inbetweening these stages (see also Tushman & Romanelli 1985). Thus, the crisis is considered to be as a natural part of organizational life.

The model by Greiner (1972) evolves five types of crisis and five phases of growth. It is proposed that growth comes through creativity (driven by creative energies and informal procedures), direction (focus on formalization, structure), delegation (delegating powers, senior manager concentrate on long range planning), coordination (improve communication, coordination, links between different departments), and collaboration (attempts at simplifying formal structures, greater impact on social relationships) what form the main issues of changes in the organization. This approach looks on organization mostly form internal perspective and therefore opens only one aspect of organizational life. Nowadays usually external and internal issues form complex situations. Nevertheless, this approach gives specified framework.

Method

Our study focuses on the Estonian company what has been functioning since 1928 (http://www.baltikagroup.com/index.php?page=113&), whereby it was totally reorganized in parallel with transformational changes in Estonia and Central and East Europe. The Baltika Group is a rapidly growing fashion retailer in the Baltic States, Central and Eastern Europe. It can be characterized with facts that last twenty years the sales have grown more than 100 times and the company is functioning in seven countries now. We argue that this is a proper company to investigate because it's task environment has been very turbulent due to the nature of businesses and societal changes.

It has been always challenging to collect information about organizational changes because *outside* researches are usually able to map the specific (narrow) part of organizational life. Therefore, the study of large scale events and activities requires that *inside* information in order to understand problems, statuses, and outcomes. The ethnographic approach allows open various aspects of organizational issues. Ethnographic approach implies some kind of close involvement in an organization (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Lowe (1991). This can be carried out by participant observation and here two sources are exploited. First, Meelis Milder has shared information what he has stored up since 1987. His current positions are Chairman of the Management Board and Group Chief Executive Officer. He started to work with the company

in 1984 and became Chairman of the Board in 1991. Second, Maaja Vadi was working with Baltika has the consultant of personnel selection and training from 1991 until 1998 (the detailed overview of the process and problems see form Vadi, Suuroja 2006). Later she has had accession of information because Baltika gave possibility to analyze company's activities within of several academic courses at Tartu University (doctorial, master, and bachelor level). Besides these sources various documents and results of questionnaires are analysed.

Results

As mentioned above, between 1990 and 2009, Baltika faced five separate crises, which all differ in both their characteristics and causes. In the following analysis these crisis will be shortly described .

The first crisis (1990-1992)

The first crisis hit Baltika when the big market (Soviet Union) collapsed. It proved to be a great challenge and ordeal for the company because there was not that much experience in dealing with the foreign markets, the known economic system had broken down, and the local market was overtaken by a cash crisis. Due to the economic inefficiency and planned economy there was lack of everything and firms for example used to focus on East-directed barter deals that consisted in sending a container full of suits to the East to receive some cars in exchange for them. At the same time, the economy was wrecked by a hyperinflation and a chronic lack of money. After the Estonian kroon (http://www.eestipank.info/pub/en/yldine/pank/rahasysteem/yldalused/yldpohimotted.html?ok=1) was put into circulation, it became practically impossible to deal with the former market (Soviet Union) and Baltika lost its whole ruble-based market share.

The company was saved by a relatively rapid change of direction towards the Scandinavian and Western-European subcontracting markets. While in the early 90s, the west-directed subcontracting market held ca 10% of Baltika's market share, then by 1992, it had grown to 70-80%.

The first time when Baltika has expressed clearly its values was in 1988 when celebrated 60th anniversary. It was declared that company has always stated challenging goals, to adopt advanced technologies and manage operations in innovatively. Baltika was the first Estonian light industrial company what introduced the position of Vice Director for Personnel and Social Affairs. All these facts show that regardless of socialist system the company has followed certain values besides the ideological pressure that system created.

Yet, the management of Baltika realized that it was necessary to start creating their own brands if they wanted to market their products. Thus, the Baltman brand was created during the first crisis, and in 1991, they also opened the first Baltman store. Milder recognizes that the company overcame the crisis by a relatively fast settling of ownership relations; Baltika was one of the first enterprises to be privatized and employees participated in the process actively (employee-buy-out). It was the first time when the company experienced rapid changes and has learned that going through a crisis can be directed, while three stages can be distinguished in a crisis: entering, directing, and exiting. Here we can see some characteristics of creativity phase (creative energies, reestablishing, refounding, many informal relationships). Thus, it can be called as the growth through creativity.

The second crisis (1997-1999)

In 1997, the events took a turn for the worse for Baltika after the collapse of the Tallinn stock exchange. Later, it was revealed that the whole turmoil was considerably bigger, and the local events were in fact connected with the crisis in Asia. Estonian businesses and banks were in hazard. By the summer in 1998, the situation in Estonia started to normalize, but another recession followed shortly after: in August of the same year, Russia devalued the ruble – considerably. It was especially hard for those companies that had had close business relations with the Russian market. Baltika, however, had just been expanding its market share in that direction.

In the context of these events, Baltika decided that the former business model was not supporting their future growth. The primary output of the company had been subcontracting, which had however become increasingly less profitable. Baltika greatly depended on distributors and suppliers. As the company had also entered the stock exchange in 1997, the management understood that the current business model was not enabling them to promise growth to the stockholders. By that time, the Baltika Group also had its own small trade chain, but it operated separately, not being integrated to the group itself. Thus, Baltika decided to undertake a change in its business model, employing the means of "vertical business model". Therefore, while before Baltika had practiced three relatively independent lines of business (production, design and retail) that did not share much common interest, then a new structure was created due to the crisis, which gave a common goal to the activities of the whole group. At the final stage of this crisis (in 1999) Baltika started to work on strategic plan for 2000-2002 and formulated its mission where were mentioned the leading role in Baltic region and good reputation in Baltoskandia what can be gained by integrating design, production, and retailing and offering the service to customers. It was learned that following the crisis that in the direction stage of a crisis, one may have to in addition to the strategic changes, also make structural and management-related changes and one must be able to succeed in expansion.

The third crisis (2002-2004)

The third crisis was provoked by Baltika itself. After the vertical business model had enjoyed its first success (2000-2001), the enterprise decided to undergo a complete change of direction. The aim was to create a conception of an international retail company. At the same time, Baltika was still a production and wholesale concern that lacked experience in the retail sector. By that time, Baltika had developed brands (Baltman, CHR, Evermen, PlusB) for the Estonian buyer, but there was no single, concrete, and strong brand.

The main idea was to make the whole human and financial resources of the business support a single venture. Company took quite considerable risks, but the management believed that they would justify themselves at some point. Baltika employed a number of foreign consultants at the time of the crisis. For example, the brand and the later décor for Monton were developed with the help of an American consultation firm. Also, two well-experienced Englishmen were employed to give instructions on the supply management system. The most visible sign that the company was starting to overcome the crisis, was namely the Monton brand. So, while in 2001, the retail trade share of Baltika was 37%, then in 2005 it reached 80%. Therefore, Baltika proved in 2005 that the new approach enabled it to be more profitable. The market value of the enterprise grew eight times over three years (2002 versus 2005). This was a period when on production oriented company was turned into sales enterprise. It seems quite an elementary process but there was one crucial change too- the role of employees who

worked for the production was totally shifted and their operations were placed under needs of retailers. Additionally, the profitability and efficiency were very strongly stressed. Baltika learned that crisis is an opportunity for the business to adjust and enhance its business model, processes and aims of existence, and then exit the crisis being renewed and stronger.

The fourth crisis (2006-2008)

As 2005 ended in a great success for Baltika, they decided to take on another challenge. The aim was to create rapid growth. Since over the period of 2004-2006, the turnover of the company had increased from 400m kroons to 600m kroons, the management saw that the growth in turnover could be even faster- they wanted the company's turnover over three years. Thus it can be said that the management provoked another economic crisis for themselves. Looking back at the events, the crisis was already programmed in this direction of activity – they went further abroad and increased everything: expanded the new markets, opened new and bigger stores on the existing markets and developed two new brands (Ivo Nikkolo, Mosaic).

By the end of 2006, management realized that they had started a big apparatus, but it was not being very effective. The solution for overcoming the crisis was for Baltika to change direction. Several of the investments made in 2007 and 2008 were cut, and they concentrated on increasing the effectiveness of the quickly built system. Baltika learned that Crises are rather frequent than infrequent, natural and often inspiring part of development.

The fifth crisis (end of 2008 - …)

There was a non-crisis period for only half a year and the radical change of economic environment. The manager of the enterprise still confesses that in the current crisis there are more impediments independent from Baltika than in the previous ones. At the same time Baltika has us a relative advantage in this crisis because they have invested in advance in 2008. CEO has said "as we did have neither the need nor the possibility to invest that much in 2008." Baltika has closed eight stores this year and Milder affirms that this is a natural step to be taken at hard times. As Baltika enjoyed success during the mid-quarters of former year, the plans for this year were also made to produce growth. From the end of 2008, however, the situation is exactly the opposite. Therefore, the enterprise now consumes its oversupply and is forced to be in close communication with its creditors and suppliers. The CEO refers to the three main goals exposed on his office wall, the first of which is survival. Next to all this, one must also keep in mind the third goal – preparing for the new rise. That means that in the context of cutting costs, one cannot abandon all the experience and possibilities that are practical after the crisis ends and a rise follows. Baltika has learned that when company enters a crisis, there is a need to understand the main characteristics of the crisis, assess his business model by these characteristics, plan the necessary adjustments and set the goals for the rise after the crisis.

Discussion and conclusions

Baltika has learned that crisis are the natural part of development and these inspire to craft novel solutions when meet demands of unexpected problems that can lead to disaster if these are not solved quickly and appropriately. The transitional society created several issues and there were crucial pressures form external environment for Estonian companies. Here can be

referred on the notion made by Alas (2004): "The companies established after the crisis in 1997 have learnt that they need to live in a constant process of change. Most of them have made more changes in their culture, leadership styles, and organizational structure and task requirements than older companies" encourages exploring the dynamics in the organizational culture." Baltika has gained experiences what may open important issues for companies in the turbulent task environment. Therefore, it is useful to compare various aspects (including values) (table 1). There are also indicated the phases of development (Greiner 1972) as the result of company's reaction.

Table 1. Baltika's crisis: roots and effects

Period	External pressure	Internal circumstances	Company's reaction	The main values	Lessons learned
1990-1992	From planned economy to market economy	Redesign of an organization: new type of goals and structure	The development of first brand, establishment of own distribution system *Creativity* (1)	Concern about employees; Customer orientation; Learning	Three stages in a crisis: entering, directing, and exiting
1997-1999	Financial crisis in Russia, reactions on Tallinn Stock Exchange	Relatively independent lines of business, the role of subcontractor	Change of business model: "vertical business model" *Direction* (1)	Customers; Renewal of business model	Direction stage: the new cycle can be initiated changes
2002-2004	No special pressure	Ambition to create a conception of an international retail company	Company took quite considerable risks. The shift between production and sales *Creativity* (2)	Customers; Profitability; new approach to the product (branding)	Crisis: to adjust/ enhance business model, become renewed and stronger
2006-2008	No special pressure, very favorable economic environment	Create rapid growth and internationalization, introduction of new brands and entrance to new markets	Management provoked another economic crisis for themselves, Confusion. Change of team members *Direction* (2)	Profitability; Growth, Diversity of customers. Newcomers' New values	Crises are rather frequent than infrequent, natural and often inspiring part of development
From 2008 to date	Radical decline of economic environment	The second phase of the previous crisis, overinvestment	Following three paths: survival, retention, and preparation for the new rise. Restriction of investments, closure of some shops *Delegation* (?)	Declared values: openness, creativeness, efficiency, trust, and consideration	Need to understand characteristics of crisis and compare with business model, plan adjustments. The goals after the crisis

In any case, the manager of Baltika believes that the enterprise will overcome the current crisis being stronger than ever before. One perspective of analysis comes from the Greiner's approach to phases what form /or not ground for crisis. Baltika has experienced two types of crisis yet because after the second crisis what was initiated by the external environment and successfully passed, the management started a new path for the development and it started a new cycle of growth. The issue may be here that the first and second crisis were initiated by external environment and the third and fourth by internal agents. This is somewhat specific for the transitional countries where all the organizations had an obligation to start from the beginning after changes in their task environment. These changes were more towards adjustment with the market economy than for responding to the global trends. It was impossible to consider both in light industry where divisions of work and traditions have high importance. If the organization would like to meet the global trends, it must to start from the beginning once gain. This is kind of path dependency (Nelson & Winter, 1982). The concept of path dependency argues that activities and decisions made in the past influence subsequent choices.

The analysis reveals that values have been always talking point in Baltika. Company differed from other Soviet-type organizations because they had formulated value statements on organizational level. This was uncommon because the communist ideology implied that state owned companied follow values stated by officials. Throughout 20 years values have modified but some ideals have remained – efficiency, innovativeness, and the customer orientation. Organizational members as the asset were mentioned on some periods. Some general conclusions form Baltika's experiences can be outlined.

First, the actions in the crisis show that company returned to the creativity phase of development in order to meet global trends in the light industry.

Second, company has worked out *three-stage* approach to the crisis and they differentiate between entering, directing, and exiting. Usually these have been three years periods. In the direction stage of a crisis, one may have to in addition to the strategic changes, also make structural and management-related changes.

Third, Baltika has learned that three domains survival, retention, and preparation for the new rise are the main targets of actions. On different stages of crisis these have unlike importance in the everyday operations and the relevance alters from stage to stage.

Fourth, the main values can be quite a stable, while some values may change because of external or internal circumstances. The certain flexibility is needed for adaptation with various interests and contexts.

Fifth, it is important to understand the characteristics of the crisis and compare these with the actual business model.

Sixth, some crisis might be initiated by external environment, while some by internal factors. Following the crisis, one must be able to succeed in expansion. Crises are rather frequent than infrequent.

This case illustrates what kind of decisions and actions were made when a light industrial company shifted from production orientation towards fashion oriented company. Organizational values were always considered, while some of those have been quite a stable, others meet more situational demands.

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Exploring the Construct of Value Congruence and its Proposed Effect on Work Engagement and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Positive Organizational Behavior Perspective[1]

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Abstract

Within the broader concept of P-O fit theory, employee-organization work value congruence has been debated for almost 20 years. Value congruence has been proven to have positive effects on job related attitudes like job satisfaction, or organizational commitment within the realm of the OB field as well as selection, socialization, and leadership in the context of HRM or I/O psychology. Nonetheless, value congruence research has been plagued with conceptual as well as methodological problems such as (a) the ambiguity of the construct of value and value congruence, (b) the difficulty of measurement and its respective operationalization, and (c) the lack of consensus on the content dimensions of work values. These problems have muddled research on value congruence and yield some contradicting empirical findings. In this paper, a synthesis and evaluation of the state of the art on value congruence is explored and some linkages to other widely used constructs such as engagement and OCB is proposed. Among others, it is argued that value congruence measurement should be focused on its dimensions rather than profile or average score and on performance related dimensions rather than universal dimensions. In addition, there is a call for studying value congruence (as opposed to the traditional value incongruence) as a positive organizational behavior construct, linking it to engagement, and organizational citizenship behavior.

Introduction

Employee-organization fit (hereafter E-O fit) means among others, the compatibility of employees, skills, attitudes and work values with an organizational entity (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). The latter may include supervisor, interviewer, coworker, work team and group, or the entire organization. Of the multiple assets of E-O fit, this paper concentrates on the values component of it. Empirical research on value congruence, for example, suggests that when employee holds work values that match other organizational entity's, he/she tends to be satisfied with the job, committed and indentify with the organization, and have significantly higher retention rates (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Kristof, 1996; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). The positive effects like interpersonal attraction, trust, reduced conflict, and levered cooperation also boosts task performance and extra-role behavior that are beneficial to the organizational outcomes (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). Because of these positive effects both on employee and organizational attributes, value congruence has attracted substantial research attention during the last two decades, especially as the crux of P-O fit literature. Despite the growing interest, the research of value congruence is muddled (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005;

[1] This paper is based on the master thesis of the first author under the supervision of the second author.

Kristof, 1996) by the use of different conceptualizations, operationalizations, content and dimensions of work values, methodological treatment, and levels of analysis. Those problems are accompanied by other problems of conceptualizing and measuring values.

It is argued, that the muddled research on value congruence can be improved by clarifying the construct and proposing clearer angles to it. This is the objective of this review.

Value and value congruence

Rokeach's (1973) definition of values is considered the classical. He proposed that values are people's enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence. Others extended the definition to suggest that values are predisposition of human behavior (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Several researchers believe that a strong culture exist under the condition that when values are shared between employees of an organization, its member will implicitly understand what is the fundamental rule or norm within the organization (Schein, 1985; Schein, 1990). Because values function as a fundamental mechanism of cognitive process, people who share same values will prioritize same behavior and situation; have similar information process mechanism, and even share same language and ways of doing things. Thus, people who share values will be able to communicate and cooperate well; will be able to predict each other's next move and thus experience a low level of uncertainty; and trust each other based on high level of communication and predictability (Edwards & Cable, 2009).

Value congruence has been defined as the compatibility of work values between focal individual and other organizational entity. Previous definition of value congruence mainly focused on P-O value congruence, yet neglecting the congruence of value between individual and group, individual and other individuals like supervisor or interviewer. Muchinsky & Monahan's (1987) differentiate between supplementary fit and complementary fit and assert that value congruence belongs to supplementary fit. Others point out the difference between perceived, objective, and subjective congruence (Edwards, 1994b); between difference score, profile similarity, polynomial regression, and other types of operationalization; between different perspectives of congruence (for example Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki (2005))

Two common problems in value congruence research

As can be deduced from the extant review on value congruence (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Kristof, 1996; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Verquer et al., 2003), job related attitudes are the most important and intensively studied area of value congruence. It is posited that different types of value congruence lead to positive employee attitudes. But as will be noted later, the literature did not pay attention to two main problems which can lead to the muddled condition of research.

P-O value congruence was found to be positively related to job satisfaction (Ostroff et al., 2005), organizational commitment (Finegan, 2000; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991), satisfaction to the organization, organizational identification (Cable & Edwards, 2004), and negatively related to turnover intention (O'Reilly et al., 1991), job stress, and burnout (Siegall & McDonald, 2004). P-S and P-G value congruence also displayed similar results (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; Verplanken, 2004). But some authors also reported a "lack of effect"

(Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Strube, 1999), and some did not find effect on attitudes (Knoppen, Dolan, Diez-Pinol, & Bell, 2006). Some studies reported systematic moderators for the effects of value congruence on attitudes and we should pay attention to these moderators (Adkins, Ravlin, & Meglino, 1996). Tenure was found to moderate value congruence's effect on social satisfaction, satisfaction with job-related dimensions, tardiness, and days absent. Time appear to enhance the impact of value congruence on commitment (Meglino et al., 1989).

As for the effect of value congruence via attitudes on employee performance, results are more complex. Some reported negative results of value congruence on performance (Meglino et al., 1989; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1992) and others highlighted the effect of moderating variables on this linkage like the number of coworkers (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999), tenure, and job-interdependence (Adkins et al., 1996).

One of the explanations for this lack of effect on performance might be the weak effect of attitudes on performance (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001), but we would like to point out that researchers choose the value content dimensions without much theoretical and practical considerations. For example, the seven celebrated values of Peters & Waterman (1982) comes from successful American companies. The question arises if the use of those values in a normative way to measure value congruence in any given organization without examining whether those values are appropriate to measure the culture of the organization and the personal values of its members. Any value measurement should be both comprehensive and specific. Comprehensive means that it should contain most of the typical personal and organizational values that when individuals are answering a questionnaire, he/she can choose those values that really matter to him/her. In addition, within the management sphere, these values should be performance related. It is meaningless for employee and organization to agree on the "world peace" as a value, unless if it is linked to job related attitudes of the employee; otherwise this kind of value congruence does not mean a lot to the performance of neither the employee nor the organization.

The moderator effect is another evidence for this problem. For example, value congruence is performance related in the situation of high job-interdependence. This means we should analyze the effect of value congruence when value congruence is really important to performance, like when the value dimensions are performance related. Edwards (1994a) pointed out the variation of effect on the value congruence line, this may also mean that when values are related to performance, they may be important to attitudes and performance; but when values are not important as they are not related to performance, they are not very effective to attitudes and performance even if the values are congruent. This may explain why some of the value congruence research lacks or have weak relationship with outcomes. Kraimer (1997) pointed out the "belief strength" of values. This may also mean different values means different things to individuals and if the values that are congruent are not important to individuals, they are not very effective to form attitudes and behaviors. All these points to the content dimensions of values in value congruence research and we call the scholarly community to really pay attention to what kinds of values we choose to investigate. We assert that we should only study the values that seem to be important to the individual and are also linked to performance related to the organization.

Another problem emerging from the value congruence research is that researchers try to have a "total" value congruence score of all the dimensions they measure. This problem is similar to the first problem in that it gives all the values the same weight, thus ignoring the difference between values. This problem is most obvious in the perceived value congruence which directly ask employee about the congruence of value and the profile similarity of value congruence operationalization which use a profile of values to represent individual. For example, Amos &

Weathington (2008) reported that total value congruence has impact on job satisfaction, satisfaction with the organization as a whole, affective and normative commitment, and turnover intension, but do not have impact on continuance commitment. But when seeing value congruence from the dimensional perspective, only a few values of the 7 values had significant impact on the outcome variables, among them, importance of people is the most important one. This means that we should pay more attention to the dimensional impact of value congruence on outcomes, which is not paid sufficient attention in extant research.

The aforementioned two problems may have lead to the muddled condition in value congruence research. We should measure those values that are performance related to organization, look at organizational specific values, and look at values dimensionally. Mainly focused on job related attitudes, typical value congruence research neglects these two problems and have yield contradicting results.

Next, an attempt is made to extend the research on value congruence to two variables that used extensively in the past several years in the positive E-O context, and examine the linkages within the methodological context described above.

Propositions

Work engagement and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) are two variables that may be affected by value congruence. Before discussing the rationale to link them, we need to select our value dimensions that can sufficiently meet the requirement of the two problems discussed above. Because any value that is performance related and organizational specific should be investigated within the organization before deciding the content dimensions of values under investigation, which is impossible in this limited study, a concession was made to concentrate on a recent popular triaxial model of values developed by Dolan, Garcia, & Richley (2006). The rationale behind this choice is that this triaxial model has Economic-Pragmatic dimension which can be a proxy of our performance related values. The other two dimensions are Ethical-Social, and Emotional-Developmental which are also import because value congruence has influence on job related attitudes.

Work engagement is a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Work engagement scholars tend to believe that work engagement is a positive notion. Their findings suggest that engaged workers have high energy, self-efficacy, and positive attitude over work and life. No existing literature examined the relationship between value congruence and work engagement. One research examined the relationship between value incongruence and burnout (Siegall & McDonald, 2004) and discovered that value incongruence has a significant impact on burnout and burnout can mediate the relationship between value congruence and attitudes. If we examine burnout and engagement as “crossover” concepts (Bakker, van Emmerik, & Euwema, 2006; Schaufeli, Taris, & van Rhenen, 2008), it is reasonable to link value congruence and work engagement. As mentioned above, value congruence can boost communication, and performance feedback, supervisory coaching, and social support have been proven to be the antecedents of work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), so it is reasonable to link value congruence and work engagement. Also, value congruence has a positive impact on social identity (Edwards and Cable 2009), and socially identified people are more likely to be engaged in work. Thus we propose that value congruence has a positive impact on work engagement, and to treat values dimensionally, we propose congruence on every value dimensions will positively affect work engagement.

Proposition 1: Employee whose value is congruent with the organization in the three dimensions (triaxial model) is likely to show a high level of work engagement.

OCB is the voluntary behavior that is not required in the job description of an employee and has positive impact on the organization's overall performance and function (Organ, 1997). Based on anomic feeling and social exchange theory de Lara (2008) found significant relationship between value congruence and OCBO. Because value congruence have positive impact on job attitudes and these attitudes are proven to have positive impact on OCB (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), value congruence should have a positive impact on OCB, and job attitudes may mediate this relationship. Several unpublished researches also reported a positive relationship between them, see Hoffman & Woehr's (2006) meta analysis for reference. Thus we propose that value congruence has a positive impact on OCB dimensionally.

Proposition 2: Employee whose value is congruent with the organization in the three dimensions (triaxial model) is likely to show a high level of OCB.

Discussion

By identifying two major problems that influenced the research of value congruence, this paper attempted to look at the effect of value congruence on work engagement and OCB. Two respective propositions are advanced. One interesting feature of this paper is its focus on the positive organizational behavior (POB) phenomenon. Positive organizational behavior is the "micro-level, stake-like study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace" (Luthans, 2002). As all concepts referred to here such as value congruence, work engagement, and OCB are focusing on positive side of the impact, they can all be considered as POB constructs. Some already considered these constructs as POB constructs (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Beare, Severson, & Brandt, 2004) from their own perspectives, yet there should be a research than link them together and emphasize their positive impact together. Such future studies can broadens the scope of value congruence research by including two concepts that goes beyond job attitudes. Future research should perhaps further explore the construct validity of the triaxial model and empirically test the propositions advanced in this paper.

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Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: Just How Important is 'Context'?

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Abstract

This research investigated the nature of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) among Singapore hospital employees who are expected to show unselfish behaviors in difficult situations. Two qualitative studies and a quantitative study were conducted to generate and assess a range of OCB items. Survey respondents (n=315) rated each OCB item on the extent to which it was voluntary, unlikely to be rewarded, and beneficial to the organization (i.e., "true OCBs"). Over 30% of the OCB items used in previous research were *not* rated as true OCBs. In contrast, nearly all items developed in the local context *were* rated as true OCBs. This implies that OCB research should use employee assessments of their own citizenship actions, because these depend greatly on the context.

Introduction

In his seminal discussion of OCBs, Organ (1988) defined them as voluntary behaviors that employees show, without expectation of formal rewards, which benefit their organization in some way. Employees who show OCBs tend to be highly committed and satisfied with their jobs. Also, there are many individual and organizational consequences of OCBs that make them desirable for organizations (LePine, Erez & Johnston, 2002). Yet, despite their importance of OCB, there are still controversies around the very nature of these behaviors (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac & Woehr, 1997).

Organ (1988) postulates that there are five dimensions or distinguishable types of behavior which all meet the definition of OCB. A scale developed by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) to measure this 'five factor model' is widely used (Hoffman et al., 2007). Although this model is generally accepted, there is still much debate over the OCB construct. There are those who argue for fewer OCB dimensions. For instance, Le Pine and colleagues (2002: 61) concluded that OCB is simply a "general tendency to be helpful and cooperative". Similarly, Hoffman and colleagues' (2007) meta-analysis found OCB to be a single factor. However, Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff and Blume (2009) support an earlier conceptualization of two main forms of OCB: 'OCB-Is', which are citizenship behaviors directed toward individuals and 'OCB-Os', which are behaviors directed towards the organization.

While there is some support for fewer OCB dimensions, there are also a number of studies that focus on additional OCB dimensions. Examples of these dimensions include 'self-development' (George & Brief, 1992), 'organizational loyalty' (Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994), 'voice' (speaking out constructively), and 'functional participation' (volunteering for extra duties) (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Furthermore, Farh, Hackett and Chen (2007) advocate that there are OCB dimensions specific to a country or national culture. For example, 'interpersonal harmony' and 'protecting company resources' are important voluntary behaviors in Taiwanese society, because of the Chinese cultural emphasis on familistic collectivism (Farh, Earley & Lin, 1997). Similarly, 'keeping the workplace clean'

and ‘social welfare participation’ are employee actions that are appreciated more in mainland China than western countries (Farh, Zhong & Organ, 2004). Thus, in any workplace, the national context may contribute to what is perceived as OCB.

In addition, the workplace itself may influence the nature of OCB. Vey and Campbell (2004) found that many supermarket cashiers considered many traditional OCBs to be part of their job. In relation to Organ’s (1988) dimensions, the OCBs that were seen as ‘in-role’ included being punctual, following rules, not taking undeserved breaks (conscientiousness), respecting other’s rights, being courteous in interactions with others (courtesy) and not spending a lot of time complaining (sportsmanship). Vigoda-Gadot (2007) refers to non-task activities, which none-the-less are expected of an employee, as ‘compulsory citizenship behavior’. Similarly, Bolino, Turnley and Niehoff (2004) use the term ‘escalating citizenship’ to describe the increasing expectation that employees help others and do other work beyond their core job.

Nevertheless, many authors still use Organ’s (1988) original concept to differentiate OCBs from other extra-role or task behavior. Consequently, the current paper refers to Organ’s (1988) concept of discretionary, constructive behavior that is not explicitly rewarded as “true OCB(s)”.

Morrison (1994) suggests that in-role and extra-role behaviors are best defined by the employee, rather than imposed by the researcher. She found there to be a great variance in job breadth - what people consider to be in-role behaviors - across employees and their supervisors. Therefore, it is the employee perceptions of their own behaviors that are significant. In order to account for contextual variations, Farh and colleagues (2007) suggest that OCBs should be defined in the organizational setting for each study. Moreover, Johns (2006) calls for us to consider the possible impact of context on research results. Thus, the broad research question posed here is “What is the nature of true OCBs in a particular national and organizational context?”

General Context

Singapore is a small country, but is ideal for examining cultural considerations of OCB, as it is a blend of Chinese and western influences (Chang, Wong & Koh, 2003). According to Javidan and colleagues (2006), the large cross-cultural research program known as Project GLOBE puts Singapore in a cluster of countries labeled as ‘Confucian Asia’. However, on many values, Singapore fits more closely to the ‘Anglo culture’ – which includes North America and England, and it also aligns with some European countries. Furthermore, as Farh et al., (2007) posit, there are many etic cultural values that are shared across different countries. The challenge for international research is to identify the emic values that have more impact in some countries than others. At the same time, the influence of industry/organizational context needs to be considered.

The healthcare industry was chosen as the organizational context for examining OCBs for several reasons. These include the general expectation that healthcare professionals act altruistically even when they are working under conditions of risk to their own health and wellbeing (Emanuel, 2003). Interestingly, OCB is considered to be a special form of altruism in which the voluntary actions of employees lead to benefits to the organization (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin & Schroeder, 2005). Therefore, it is appropriate to examine OCBs in healthcare settings, because the context will influence employee perceptions of “true OCBs”. Three studies are reported, before concluding remarks are made about the importance of context.

STUDY 1

Context

The global healthcare industry faced a major challenge in early 2003 from the spread of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS). Hospital employees were exposed to a high risk of illness, and even death, by virtue of their work (Emanuel, 2003). Consequently, the SARS outbreak presented an opportunity to investigate the nature of OCBs in a crisis context.

In Singapore, hospitals differed noticeably in how they contained the spread of SARS. One of the hospitals that was considered successful in how it managed SARS will be referred to as 'AH' – a public hospital with about 1,000 staff. These staff were called upon to go above and beyond their normal working practices. Thus, AH was an ideal workplace to examine OCBs in the crisis.

Method

In order to investigate the research question, a qualitative research approach was used because it encourages participants to discuss context in depth (Flick, 2002). Semi-structured interviews were used, because they allow the researcher to build rapport with the research participants. Each participant was interviewed twice, in a variation of the 'structure laying technique' for interviews (Flick, 2002: 82). In this technique, content from the first interview is analyzed, summarized and fed back at the second interview. This validates both the interviewees' initial descriptions and explanations, and the researchers' content analysis of the key points from the interviews.

Managers and supervisors from all 16 departments of the hospital promoted the research to their staff. Employees were invited to ring an administrative person within the hospital anonymously if they wished to participate and simply give a pseudonym in order to be scheduled for an interview. It was made very clear to the potential participants that their attendance or non-attendance at the interview would only be known to the university interviewer; no records of who actually attended were to be shown to anyone in the hospital.

In order to ensure a consistent approach, the author conducted all the interviews. He adopted the role of an uninformed outsider who seeks explanation from the organizational informants about a particular event or phenomenon (Flick, 2002). Thirty-one participants came for the first round of interviews. They were asked questions about their experience working at the hospital during the SARS period. They were also asked about the actions they voluntarily took at that time.

At the end of the first round of interviews, the individual actions identified across all tape-recorded interviews were listed. The researcher and a psychologist in a Singaporean hospital (not AH) worked on the lists independently at first. They combined actions that appeared to be the same, where possible using the words and phrases that had been used by the interviewees. They then compared their lists of individual actions. They had generated 27 and 23 actions, respectively, and 21 of these were similar. On further discussion, they agreed on a final list of 24 distinct actions. Each action was typed on a separate 10 x 6 cm catalogue card. At the second interview, participants were shown the collection of 24 individual action cards and given time to react to them. The descriptions of some actions were clarified. No new actions were generated.

In a process similar to one used by Farh and colleagues (2004), a panel of four judges was recruited to help assess each of the actions that interviewees had reportedly taken during the SARS period. The panel comprised a nurse manager, a physiotherapist, and two Human Resource people from AH. The researcher was present to facilitate the discussions, but not influence their outcome. The panel was introduced to Organ's (1988) definition of OCB, and then asked to discuss each action in relation to the three elements of an OCB: was the action voluntary, was it expected to lead to rewards, and was it of benefit to the organization (AH)?

Results and Discussion

Table 1 presents the final list of 17 "true OCBs" that were generated from the card sort activity, the interviews, and the panel of judges' assessment of the nature of each behavior, at AH. Each action is categorized under a typical western and Chinese dimension, as discussed below.

TABLE 1

Categorization of Employee Actions According to Typical Dimensions of OCBs

Actions taken by the employees	**a) Western dimension**	**b) Chinese dimension**
Worked longer hours	conscientiousness	taking initiative
Talked to patients and treated them as 'human'		
Learned about SARS as much as possible (by reading and talking)	self-development	self-training
Made a choice to not take leave or resign during SARS	sportsmanship	N/C*
Change masks *more often* than every 72 hours (i.e., ignored protocol)	courtesy	keeping the workplace clean
Showered and changed into own clothes before leaving the hospital		
Brought spare shoes to work to wear only in the hospital		
Reduced contact with others outside work		
Volunteered to do patient screening (including overnight shifts)	conscientiousness functional participation	taking initiative
Volunteered to work in isolation wards at AH		
Volunteered to help out at XH - a neighboring hospital that had many infected patients		
Volunteered to help set up the accommodation wing at AH		
Volunteered to help with infection control training for the community		social welfare participation
Arranged gifts for own staff	altruism	helping co-workers
Met regularly with colleagues at AH to pray and share concerns		
Argued for different use of resources at AH	voice	group activity participation
Planned alternative (private) accommodation in case needed to be quarantined	N/C*	protecting and saving company resources

***** N/C = 'no comparable' dimension

Several behaviors seem to fit into Organ's (1988) dimension 'conscientiousness', which is going beyond the requirements of one's job in ways that benefit the organization, without benefitting specific individuals. Working longer hours, taking extra time to talk to patients, and volunteering for many organizational tasks can all be considered examples of conscientiousness. However, behaviors such as volunteering to do patient screening and work in the isolation wards are also described by Van Dyne and colleagues' (1994) dimension 'functional participation', which is specifically volunteering for special assignments and taking on extra work. Most of these actions are categorized under the Chinese OCB dimension 'taking initiative' as referred to by Farh and colleagues (1997). However, volunteering to help with infection control training for the community looks to be a specific example of 'social welfare participation' (Farh et al., 2004).

Behaviors such as changing masks more often than recommended and bringing spare shoes to work are considered as examples of Organ's (1988) dimension 'courtesy', which is showing respect to others so that work-related problems do not occur. Farh and colleagues (1997) suggest that this dimension is not applicable in Chinese contexts because it is expected. However, the behaviors seem to match the more specific dimension 'keeping the workplace clean', which is important in Chinese cultures (Farh et al., 2004) and vital in the current context.

Only two behaviors seem to relate directly to 'altruism', which Organ (1988) defined as helping specific individuals in a way that benefits the organization: "Arranged gifts for own staff" and "met regularly with colleagues at AH to pray and share concerns". These behaviors also match the Chinese dimension 'helping coworkers' (Farh et al., 1997).

The behavior "learned about SARS as much as possible" is a clear example of George and Brief's (1992) dimension of 'self-development' and Farh and colleague's (2004) dimension 'self-training'. The dimension includes voluntarily taking steps to learn new knowledge and skills (e.g., seeking out training, education or other developmental opportunities).

Two behaviors in Table 1 are only classified by one cultural dimension. The action "Planned alternative (private) accommodation in case needed to be quarantined" is best described by the Chinese OCB dimension of 'protecting and saving company resources' (Farh et al., 1997). Farh and colleagues (1997) argue that this dimension is more important in Chinese societies than western cultures. On the other hand, the action of choosing not to resign during SARS is a clear example of Organ's (1988) sportsmanship (tolerating annoyances without complaining) and does not have a comparable Chinese dimension (Farh et al., 1997). In fact, Farh and colleagues (1997) contend that putting up with annoyances and irritations is expected in Chinese society. However, in the present context, the action was an important OCB.

Overall, the OCBs identified in the current study can be described in terms of both western and Chinese dimensions of OCB, perhaps reflecting Singapore's cultural influences. However, it should be noted that the OCBs were quite specific to the context of the AH

hospital during the SARS outbreak. This supports Farh and colleagues' (2007) suggestion that OCB items should be developed for every organizational context that is studied, because context influences whether a set of behaviors is truly discretionary or not.

STUDY 2

Context

This qualitative study was conducted in a different Singaporean public hospital, some years after SARS. Two clinical departments in this hospital were targeted. The two departments had 27 and 14 staff, respectively. All were invited to take part in the study and twenty four of these staff (58%) took part in a 90 minute group exercise, facilitated by the researcher.

Method

Participants were asked to examine the 17 actions which had been assessed as OCBs in Study 1. They were told to remove specific references to the SARS context and add extra-role activities that would be beneficial in Singaporean hospitals in difficult times, such as organizational change. At first, participants went through the list individually and made their own notes. Next, participants were grouped into six groups of four people in order to compare and contrast their individual ideas. Then, groups shared their ideas and voted on a final list of extra-role actions. For example, the action "volunteered to help with infection control training for the community" was re-worded as "I volunteer to help with hospital talks and presentations to the community." An additional idea that sometimes employees choose to finish a task at hand, even if they wanted a break, was captured in a new behavior: "Even if I want to go to the toilet, I will wait until I have finished a job that needs finishing". Although it was not a focus of this study, the concept of "professionalism" came up repeatedly as a reason for doing these behaviors.

Results and Discussion

The participant group generated 21 specific behaviors. On later inspection of these 21 OCBs, the researcher and a colleague identified 14 of the items as being more contextual than items from the published western and Chinese dimensions. These items are grouped *a priori* into five categories according to the apparent focus of the OCB (see Table 2).

The first category refers to overtime and extra duties. These items are more specific and contextual than items such as Farh et al.'s (2004) "I volunteer for overtime work" and Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) "I am a conscientious employee". The items include "I volunteer for extra duties that an unusual situation will require" and "I will stay back late to make sure the records are all written properly". The second category is 'Cleanliness'. This includes two items that were generated from the SARS discussions, but are also applicable to day-to-day hospital work, such as "I make sure I do all seven steps when washing my hands". These items are more contextual than Farh et al.'s (2004) "I keep the workplace clean and neat". The third category is a hospital-specific 'Patient focus'. For example, "If patients ask me to do things for them, I will go out of my way to do them even if I am busy". Fourthly, 'Colleague focus' has items that are more specific than Farh et al.'s (2004) "I help colleagues in non work matters" and Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) "I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me". The new items include "I bring food in to work to share with my colleagues". The final category is 'Community focus'. This is more contextual than Farh et al.'s (2004) "I serve the community". It includes an item relevant to an organizational crisis context: "I try not to alarm anyone in the family about what is happening in the hospital".

TABLE 2

Categorization of contextual OCB items generated for Study 2

OCB category	OCB item
Overtime and extra duties	I volunteer for extra duties that an unusual situation will require
	I will stay back late to make sure the records are all written properly
	I work longer hours to finish jobs that need finishing
	Even if I want to go to the toilet, I wait until I have finished a job that needs finishing
Cleanliness	If I see something in my workplace that was not put away properly, I will put it away
	I make sure I do all seven steps when washing my hands
Patient focus	If patients ask me to do things I will go out of my way to do them even if I am busy
	I try to help patients and visitors understand that the hospital is doing the best possible for them
Colleague focus	I bring food in to work to share with my colleagues
	I help colleagues to understand what is going on in the workplace at the moment
	I meet with my colleagues socially to 'vent' by sharing our workplace concerns
	I give gifts to staff as personal rewards
Community focus	I volunteer to help with hospital talks and presentations to the community
	I try not to alarm anyone in my family about what is happening in the hospital

The categories are not intended to suggest OCB dimensions but are simply of interest with respect to the type of contextual behaviors generated. They reflect a range of behaviors specific to healthcare in Singapore (particularly the Colleague focus items such as "I bring food in to share…" and "I meet with colleagues socially to vent…")

STUDY 3

Context

Two hospitals were chosen as research sites for a survey study because they are representative of the Singapore hospital system. Several departments and clinics were targeted because they faced various organizational challenges that demanded more of their staff than normal day-to-day work (therefore, an ideal context for examining true OCBs).

Sample and procedures

The stratified sampling procedure, the sample and survey design are described in Arnold (2010). As OCBs were mainly measured on survey 2, the usable data for this particular study were n=315 (response rate = 67%).

To measure subjective assessments of OCBs, a self-report instrument was used. This presented two potential problems, which were addressed through survey design and administration procedures. Firstly, in the Asian context the concept of saving face is important. Consequently, survey respondents would be expected to show strong social desirability in self-report ratings. This tendency was countered as much as possible through the survey administration process – offering two choices for survey completion and return, as explained in Arnold (2010).

Secondly, one of the hazards of using self-report measures is common method variance. Several steps were taken to reduce this. Different response scales were used for survey 1 and survey 2. Furthermore, a subset of OCB items was included on both surveys so that test-retest reliability (over a 2-3 week period) could be calculated. Despite the different response scales on the two surveys, the test-retest reliability was high ($r = .75$, $p<.01$). This indicates that survey responses were stable across both surveys. As a final manipulation check, the convergent and discriminant validities of the OCB measures were assessed. Survey 2 contained a variable (job satisfaction) known to be positively related to OCBs and a variable (intent-to-resign) known to be negatively related to OCBs. Correlations with these variables were moderate and in the expected directions.

Measures of OCB

Items were developed and adapted from several sources as discussed below. Twenty one items were traditional measures of OCB taken from Podsakoff amd colleagues' (1990) well-accepted scale for Organ's (1988) model. Items were included from all five of Organ's (1988) dimensions. For example, "obeys company rules and regulations, even when no one is watching" was re-worded as "obeys hospital rules and regulations…"

In addition, 18 items were adapted from OCB dimensions used in Farh et al.'s (2004) study in mainland China. Some of these items were taken from dimensions said to be similar to those reported in western studies. For example, the item "I participate in hospital-organized group activities" was adapted from the dimension 'group activity participation' which Farh and colleagues (2004) say is similar to Organ's (1988) 'civic virtue', but with more emphasis on groups. Other items were adapted from Farh et al.'s (2004) dimensions that are not typically found in western studies. For example, the OCB "I use personal resources to help the hospital" was adapted from the emic dimension 'protecting and saving company resources'.

Moreover, the 14 contextual items developed in Study 2 were used. For example, one item was "If patients ask me to do things for them, I will go out of my way to do them even if I am busy".

In survey 2, respondents were asked to rate all 53 OCB items according to "how often you take these actions at work" (from 1 = never to 5 = very often). In keeping with Morrison's (1994) argument that an OCB should be defined from the employees' point of view, respondents also had to rate each of the OCBs on 5-point scales (from 1= strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree) for each of the three statements:

1. "This action is **voluntary** – I choose to do it. I am not expected to do it."

2. "This action is **formally rewarded** – If I do it, I will get rewarded."

3. "This action **benefits** the hospital in some way."

(The bold type was included in the survey)

Results and Discussion

The ratings on statement 2 above were reverse scored and an average 'true OCB' score out of 5 was calculated for each OCB item. Using the criterion that an OCB had to score greater than 3.0 out of 5 (the midpoint on the Likert scale) to be considered a true OCB from the respondents' point of view, 17 OCB items failed this test. Most of these behaviors failed because they were rated 1 or 2 on the statement that the action is voluntary. For example, "I keep abreast of changes in the hospital" and "I do things to save the hospital's resources" were seen to be *expected*, not *voluntary* actions. Of the original 53 items, thirty six OCB items were considered as 'true OCB' based on these scores (available from the author). This included 11 of the 14 contextual items developed for this study and 25 of the 39 items from established scales. Therefore, over 30% of the items from established scales were *not* rated as true OCBs in this study. This finding highlights the value of identifying OCBs for the specific context of a study (Farh et al., 2007).

As described in Arnold (2010), exploratory factor analyses were conducted on the 36 "true OCB" items. Only two factors resulted: OCB-O (α = .82) and OCB-I (α = .85). Full details of the factor structure are available from the author. Interestingly, Pepper (2000) distinguishes between 'other –only' altruism (where individuals benefit from the altruism) and 'whole–group' altruism (where there are benefits for the whole group to which the altruist belongs). This is similar to Podsakoff and colleagues' (2009) distinction between citizenship behaviors directed towards individuals and those directed toward the organization as a whole.

Concluding Remarks

The results of this research highlight the need to understand the context in which employees work (Farh et al., 2007). In keeping with Farh and colleagues' (2007) advice, behavioral items were developed for the particular organizational and cultural contexts of the research. Items were also adapted from previous studies in western cultures and Chinese cultures. However, I found only two OCB factors. This accords with Podsakoff and colleagues' (2009) contention that all so-called dimensions of OCB are covered by OCB-Is, which are directed towards other individuals at work and OCB-Os, which are actions aimed at the organization. Podsakoff et al. (2009) point out that many studies of OCB do not differentiate between the two dimensions. Hence their correlates remain relatively unexamined. This is an area for future study.

In the current research, true OCBs were generated and assessed by the participants as advocated by Morrison (1994) and Vigoda-Gadot (2007). This approach assumes that employees are in the best position to assess the extent to which their actions are voluntary and unrewarded. Employees would acknowledge that many typical OCB items are not "true OCBs". Consequently, many behavioral items that were generated in Studies 1 and 2 did not feature in the final two OCB factors in Study 3. This suggests that self-report measures of OCBs still have a place in future research, because the relationships between OCBs and other self-report variables might depend on the employees' perspective of their behavior.

Overall, the current research suggests that context has a very important influence on true OCBs. Future research could adopt a methodological approach similar to the one used here for different cultures and different workplaces.

References

Available on request

Work and Values Debate in Times of Change: the Paradoxes Related to Public Service Notion

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Abstract

The passenger land transport sector in Portugal has been characterized by changes that have given the activity, namely drivers' activity, other goals, values and meanings. The companies' privatization policy in the 90's, that favoured the definition of public service contracts with private companies, gave rise to a debate on the necessary "compromise" between what has its origin on public intervention and what's determined by market logics. The research was carried within a private company, to whom was imposed the fulfilment of public service obligations. The aim is to know how public service value is preserved in a competitive market. This reflection integrates the contribution of the *ergological approach*, as a permanent learning of the debate between different values.

Introduction

The Portuguese collective road passenger transportation sector has been through changes, in the sequence of a privatization policy, showing different values at stake, of which commitment becomes, sometimes, difficult to manage. The debate between preserving public interest and the liberalization of economy (Leitão Marques & Moreira, 2003; Orban, 2004) is particularly visible if we take as reference the notion of "public service", widely discussed in different sectors of activity and geographic contexts. Examples of this are, among others, the privatization cases of Great Britain's railroads; of France's telecommunications; and of Peru's and Equator's electricity and water (Cours-Salies, Gerfaut & Lefebvre, 2002).

The public service notion, concerning collective road passenger transportation sector, has the implicit guarantee of a service that replies to citizen's fundamental need of moving, and therefore isn't susceptible to market volatility. From there derives its important role in producing integration and social and territorial cohesion.

In Portugal, the policy of nationalization in this sector, decreed in 1975, contributed to the maintenance of an exclusive public "protégée". The dominant conception of public service was that certain activities should escape to the application of a mercantile logic, of profitability search, assuming that the market couldn't satisfactory render some services in all situations. Therefore, it was the public authorities' task to satisfy essential collective needs.

Entering the 90th decade announces the implementation of new transportation policies. The privatization and liberalization of the sector, in coherence with the Common Transportation Policy (article 70 of European Economic Treaty), as well with general economy policy (Regulation EEC no. 1017/68), have redefined the framing of transportation as rendering a public service. Yet another logic starts sustaining this notion, now without excluding the presence of the market. The public authorities' responsibility of guarantee the fulfilment of public service principles is maintained, in spite of changing the way how they carry out their

obligations towards citizens. Even if it's a private company who's responsible for designing the services, it "may continue to be public and public administration is the first and main responsible for it" (Freitas do Amaral, 1999, p. 628, author's translation), i.e. without any commitment to the principles that identify public services (Chevallier, 1987).

Nevertheless, this notion of public service, while being enriched with new contents, has also become emblematic of another society model (Chevallier, 1987). European construction made common the use of "services of general interest", instead of public service, designating "both market and non-market services which the public authorities class as being of general interest and subject to specific public service obligations" (Green Paper, 2003, p. 7). The European model of society advocates a balanced coexistence of solidarity and social cohesion objectives, interacting with objectives of market economical dynamism.

Effectively, if on one hand, the collective need subjacent to this kind of services, acknowledged as so by the Administration, justifies the fact of having been historically rendered by public power (State and Municipalities), on the other hand, one recognizes that it mustn't be the State to always assume service rendering, which can be trusted "to public or private undertakings or to public-private partnerships and limit themselves to defining public objectives, monitoring, regulating and, where necessary, financing those services" (Green Paper, 2003, p. 8).

As it is reinforced by the report of public consultation to the Green Paper on services of general interest, "there is a broad consensus on the essential importance of services of general interest for European societies. It is also generally accepted that these services should be provided in a way that puts users first. However, no agreement exists concerning the relationship between services of general interest and market principles" (White Paper, 2004, p. 24).

Legitimately the question imposed is then to know how are these questions portrayed in concrete working activities, i.e., by those that render public interest services. Then, how can one build a balance between distinct values?

Is it possible to understand public services without experiencing the activity?

Despite this initial framework, the issue addressed in this article emerged as so in the course of drivers activity analysis in real working context. A certain ergonomics tradition – activity ergonomics - in which we're inscribed, made activity analysis an unavoidable reference, aiming to propose the transformation of work or workplace design (Wisner, 1998). Even though the researchers work has an important methodological anchoring point in work activity, its analysis is developed in parallel with the economic, technical and social factors study that crosses it.

It was in the course of this analysis that we could note the confrontation of workers in their activity with a conflict of values and rules, defined at different levels, which lead them to question what it means to render a public transportation service. The debate is not regarding the values that showed support rendering public service, privileging one or other orientation, but instead working over these values, allowing to build a balance between them. Our goal is to understand how drivers' activity may contribute and be recognized as a public interest space of regulation facing mobility.

The ergological approach

What we currently know as ergological approach has a scientific and institutional tradition that goes back to the 80's. It was developed in the University of Aix-en-Provence (France), when Yves Schwartz, Daniel Faïta and Bernard Vuillon began the project "Working Situations Multidisciplinary Analysis"[1].This project goals gathered three concerns: "to think about work changes, through concepts and experiences trading; to assume as project partners the leading figures of the analysed working situations themselves; and at the same time have as object the eminently problematic act of conceptualizing others' activities" (Schwartz, 1997, p.7, author's translation).

The ergological contribute in this research is associated to the perspective of activity as being eminently arbitrary, and so, immersed in a world of knowledge, options, rules and values (Schwartz & Durrive, 2003). On the other hand, this approach also highlights the interaction between work activity and what's happening in society, considering that "a work situation always contains society challenges and, each one, because of the way how he/she works, participates in those society debates and recomposes them to his scale" (Schwartz & Durrive, 2003, p.14, author's translation).

We can distinguish, according to this approach, the so called "mercantile" values – measurable, tangible, quantifiable – of the ones "without dimension" – non quantifiable, that are associated with social law, working law, democratic deliberation, i.e., to common welfare (Schwartz, 1997). The options that each one integrates in activity management frequently have to conciliate distinct values, not always easily negotiable.

The history of a bus line, its exploration and its leading figures

Framed in a period of concession, the exploration of an urban bus line by the company in analysis allowed it to recently acquire some rights over the earned income.

Not being possible to present, in this context, an analysis reporting to all the questions raised here, we highlight two, which purposes send us directly to real work context. The first one tries to understand the coherence between "public service obligations" defined in the exploration of this bus line and the working organization options defined by the company, in the sequence of the referred change. The second one reports to its impact in drivers' activity and in the service rendered to customers.

Aiming to understand the singularity of this new type of service "production", framed by other rules, a methodology was developed, in coherence with activity ergonomics principles, mainly based in the observation of drivers' activity in real context, and enriched by interviews with the drivers and service planning responsibles. These interviews aimed, on one hand, to identify changes in work organization options and, on the other hand, to explore how drivers manage their activity, by harmonizing different goals.

The bus line under analysis is common to three companies, two being private and one being public, even though the public one has only a part of the path in common. The company in which we conducted our study is private, and maintains an exploration agreement with the public company concerning that bus line. Now, knowing that the bus line is common to both,

[1] Originally in French: Analyse Pluridisciplinaire des Situations de Travail (APST) – Schwartz, Y. & Faita, D. (1985). *L'Homme Producteur*. Paris: Messidor.

that the schedules are very similar and that the two private companies have profitability goals for the service rendered, even if the course exploration had been assigned to one of them, under the compliance of certain public service obligations, how do drivers manage their activity?

The observation held showed that, sequentially to the attribution to the analysed private company of the rights over the obtained income of the tickets sold, changes have been introduced on schedules; it was set a group of drivers exclusively inherent to this course; and were valued some activity managing strategies.

The service schedules were redesigned and, apparently, they allow drivers to afford now more time to render the same course. But, this assumption is not but misleading. The period that mediates the end of a service and the beginning of the other was enhanced, what would theoretically allow them to recover from eventual delays and to render a higher quality service to customers. However, if we distinguish driving time from "support time", dedicated to breaks from service, we find that this enhancement is not placed in driving time level (always considered scarce face to path's characteristics), which maintains unchanged, but more to "support time" level. This situation confronts drivers with a paradoxical situation: to fulfil schedule and render a quality service, only becomes compatible if they use the time considered as theirs (the "support time") in order to make the necessary adjustments facing what the schedule dictates.

Not now… it seems that things are different… it's according to the number of client entrances. It's clear that surely, in those points, those schedules in which you know you'll have a certain amount of people, the driver tries to go slower, to try to get those passengers. But, in the end, one cannot even fulfil the schedule. We're very late, aren't we? And the funniest is that we finish at 5:00 h, at 17:00, but if we exceed that time, the company doesn't pay us, right? (A., bus driver)

These drivers were specifically selected to render this bus line and, on contrary to what happened before, when there was a driver's rotation for the different courses of the company, there is now a group that is exclusively maintained in this one.

Yes, there are fixed drivers to that bus line, obviously. It suits best to have certain drivers because of this: it's preferable that they're there rightly and then they start to realize the problems and situations and then they'll already know that the factory closes at 6 o'clock, the referred situation, 2, 3, 4, min… it's really very important. It has nothing to do with it. Nothing to do at all. In what comes to the number of passengers, we increased a lot (…). (F., service planning responsible).

This option aims, mainly, to create conditions for the drivers to develop a course driving experience, that seems to be particularly beneficial facing actual goals. The daily driving in that bus line allowed them, for example, to know all the schedules, including the other company's ones, which facilitates the achievement of another of their current priorities: to delimit themselves of other drivers and, so, to transport more customers.

Our management is to try, i.e. not to drive close to the partner ahead. We reach a point where we start to know the schedules, if he gets out at 35… Now, if my schedule is to get out at 30 and theirs is 35, I really have to get out at 30. Because if I get late, we'll get out at the same time, and we're doing nothing there. We stroll around this and, that's the only management we try to bear in mind. (P., bus driver)

However, the management of the activity isn't done without debating values – mercantile and non dimensioned values: between fulfilling the company's defined goal, oriented to transport

a bigger number of passengers, and to render a service that responds to the customer expectations and needs.

And there what counts is income, isn't it? And we have to try, at the least me, by being there, I have to do the best I can. I always do everything I can to go ahead and to be able to profit. (P., bus driver)

I have to drive in my place, if I don't profit, it's not my fault. Now, I'm not going to stand behind, to drive in others schedule to profit plenty and the other just go empty. I also think that would be… rendering a bad service. (A., bus driver)

If one complies with their games, we're subjected to having accidents, to have 5€ less in the drawer at the end of the day, knowing sometimes we earn the same by carrying out our schedule, that's not what may lead the company to bankrupt… (L., bus driver)

The activity is not a shear execution of the defined rules, but a permanent management of different goals, that require the *use of himself* (Schwartz & Durrive, 2003). The commitment that drivers seek to build in their activity between different goals includes, nevertheless, non negligible costs to their health: the lack of rotation in driving lines, which contributes to the expression of a higher weathering than other drivers; the use of their break time to compensate path delays; and the work intensity caused by an activity management with reference always to others activities, are a good example of it.

Yes, yes, it is a stressful, dangerous bus line. It's a bus line that is complicated due to the competition that exists there, you know? And it tires us immensely due to the competition stress, because there are lots of buses, and one takes two customers, the other takes another two, then comes the last… gets nothing… (A., bus driver)

And this also does away with our head a little. Now not so much, but in the beginning, the schedules, and all that concern of having to speed up here and slow down there… If you're there the whole day it's complicated… (P., bus driver)

Conclusions

The evolution of public service notion accompanies the evolution of society. Its content is not, therefore, univocal: it all depends on how the principle is assumed and re-worked in the frame of political, economical and social conjunctures that are always particular (Lacomblez, Stroobants, & Vanheerswynghels, 1989). The public service design has evolved in the course of liberal deregulation, being enriched by other principles and meanings: public service no longer has clearly defined shapes, and it no longer makes sense define it by the opposition of categories considered as asymmetrical: State-market; public-private; user-costumer; collective-individual (Reis, 2007). The perimeter of public service has become, therefore, "more ambiguous, more labile, and more instable" (Chevallier, 1987, p.78, author's translation).

Besides the social debate on conciliating distinct values while rendering a public service, the reference, in this context, to a specific case of transport service rendering, show us how to build, in real context, a commitment of "sharing" (Jeannot, 1999) between what comes from public domain and what comes from private domain, preserving the public interest.

This case also shows how it would be a paradox to consider public service notion only by its goals. Real work activity analysis allows the discovery of what is at stake in its performance: the prosecution of different levels of objectives and commitments in continuous regulation –

towards the *company* (by associating the obligation of public service to results); towards the *client* (taking into account schedules, services frequency, safety); towards *himself* (arbitrating the use of himself that they will make in building a balance between these objectives). It's by the way how you work that each one intervenes and contributes, even if to an "infinitesimal" level, to the evolution of value debates that go through society and what we assume as "common welfare".

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The Implementation of the Fixed-Term Work Directive in the Portuguese Labour Law: A River That Never Found the Sea

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to describe the regulation of fixed-term work in the European Union Law and its most recent developments within Portuguese Labour Law.

Due to a long process, we have the European Council's Directive 1999/70/EC, concerning the Framework Agreement on Fixed-term Work concluded by ETUC, UNICE and CEEP. It aims to improve the quality of fixed-term work through the application of the principle of equal treatment or non-discrimination and also set up a framework to prevent abuse arising from the use of successive fixed-term employment contracts or relationships. The main point of this reflection is to present the European Directive and analyse the national implementation on fixed-term work in Portugal. So, a twofold point of view of the fixed term work: European and domestic.

Introduction

The objective of this study will be to carry out an assessment of the various aspects of the officially recognized regime of fixed-term employment contract with the aim of assessing the degree of adequacy of legal-Portuguese labour to European Union law in this area. Or, in other words, we will confront the Directive 1999/70/EC with the labour code, identifying convergent and divergent points between those legal instruments. We enquire whether national law does not distress the effectiveness of the directive and if it is in accordance with the objectives set out in the framework agreement, which aims to improve the quality of the work under the fixed-term contract and ensure the application of the principle of non-discrimination and that, furthermore, aims to prevent abuse arising from the use of successive fixed-term employment contracts.

Directive 1999/70/EC of 28 June 1999

Following the usual technique of directives designed to implement agreements reached through the European social dialogue, Directive 1999/70/EC of 28 June 1999 concerning the framework agreement on fixed-term work concluded by ETUC, UNICE and CEEP, adopted on 28 June 1999, after twenty-one deliberations, it is restrained to incorporating four articles of very restricted content, as follows, attached, the framework agreement (PAU, 2000). This, in turn, is formed by a preamble, followed by twelve General Considerations and, as to the content itself, is composed of eight articles. The wording of the agreement framework focuses to delimitate its objectives (art. 1.), to determine its scope (art. 2.), to provide some relevant definitions (art. 3), preserve the principle of non-discrimination (art. 4), to establish the requirements intended to prevent abuse evolving from the conclusion of successive fixed-term employment contracts (art. 5), to fixate regulations on the scope of information and

consultation and the possibility of employment of the fixed-term workers (art. 6), the rules of information and consultation (art. 7), and to recognise policies of implementation of various content (art. 8).

The transposition of Directive 1999/70/EC to Portuguese Legal System

Today, under the terms of art. 2, al. h), of Law No. 7/2009, February 12, which approved the Portuguese Code of Labour (LC), the legislator states that the labour code transposes into the internal legal order, in whole or in part, the Directive 1999/70/EC of 28 June. In face of a normative precept vulnerable to criticisms as to its formulation and in the absence of any reference to the standard community in national legislation doubts are raised as to whether the national legal system has actually implemented entirely or in part the Directive 1999/70 (LEITE, 2006). In this study, we intend to question if national law does not affect the effectiveness of the directive and if it is in accordance with the objectives set out in the framework agreement, which aims to improve the quality of fixed-term work and ensure the application of the principle of non-discrimination (art. 1 al. a) of the framework agreement) and to prevent abuse arising from the use of successive fixed-term employment contracts (art. 1 al. b) of the framework agreement). In order to achieve this task, it is relevant to refer to the main aspects involved in transposing Directive 1999/70, calling attention to the points that follow.

Prevent abuse arising from fixed-term employment contracts

The framework agreement is intended to prevent abuse arising from the use of successive fixed-term employment contracts or relationships thus prompting, a number of minimum standards of protection aimed to avoid the insecurity of the situation of these workers (NUMHAUSER-HENNING, 2002).

However, the framework agreement leaves Member States the choice of such measures to prevent abuse arising from the conclusion of successive fixed-term employment contracts and the conditions under which fixed-term employment contracts are considered successive (ROCCELLA and TREU, 2002). However, despite this delegation to national authorities, the extent of such cannot be unlimited, since circumstances may undermine the purpose or effect of the framework agreement. In particular, such power of deliberation must not be exercised by the national authorities so that it may lead to a situation which can give rise to abuses and thus preventing the achievement of that objective (Machado, 2009).

Against this background, and taking into account the Portuguese labour code, we believe that, in our domestic law, *the prevention of abusive use of successive fixed-term employment contract celebration is not securely safeguarded.* And why?

- Because the forecast of art. 143 of CT, which seeks to prohibit the succession of fixed-term contracts, only covers the prohibition of successive contracts for the same job (or contract for the provision of services to the same object). Therefore, we believe that it will be easy to evade the lawful dispositions if we consider extending the subject of the contract of employment by functional versatility (JÚLIO GOMES, 2003). Therefore, we cannot figure out any apparent difficulties in successive fixed-term employment contracts concluded to the satisfaction of those needs and thus failing to

implement the objectives and to ensure the effectiveness of the directive. It appears to us that, the spirit of the European law would be better addressed if the Portuguese legislator had adopted the expression: the same functions or the satisfaction of the same needs;

- Because the application of art. 143 of LC is removed when the contract has expired for reasons attributable to the employee by the employer that it will be easy to press the worker to operate the expiry of the contract with the promise of new (and successive) fixed-term employment contract;
- Because the situations in which the parties have agreed in the contract that this very contract will not renew, may escape the estimate of the standard when limiting the prohibition on the conclusion of successive fixed-term contracts in cases of termination of the contract for reasons not attributable to the employee;
- Because the exceptions to the rule laid down in paragraph 2 of art. 143. LC (new absence of worker being substituted, exceptional increases the activity of the enterprise after the termination of the contract, seasonal activities and workers previously contracted under the scheme applicable to recruitment of workers seeking first employment) are *too broad*.

Moreover, the fact that it does not exist in the Labour Code any standard that will considers null the fixed term contract concluded after the worker's acquisition of a permanent status may allow for the celebration of successive fixed-term employment contracts (JÚLIO GOMES, 2003). As we see it, the dice are thrown: the possibility of putting an end to an employment relationship already established for an indefinite period becomes imminent. In this case, much of the substance of the objective pursued by the framework agreement will be cast aside. This is clearly an unjustified set back in several decades of work in the protection of employment stability.

Parallel to this, it is still important to stress that we believe that currently the workers' consent, particularly in the automatic expire clause (art. 149, paragraph 1 of the LC) will eventually bring themselves to irretrievably renounce a right, which may lead to the slowly and silently death of the whole of elementary workers ' rights. Summed up to all of this is the fact that we are observing a certain individualization of labour law with the consequent neutrality of legislators in face to their regulatory role. We are therefore faced with a sign of the increasing trend of individual liberty of worker leading to situations in which consent is not free and, or, clarified.

We believe therefore that this possible favouritism in the repeated celebration of term contracts constitutes a clear retreat of positive law. All this is, after all, the dismantling of the protection of workers against instability in employment and can generate the real risk of abuse arising from the use of fixed-term contracts, which I believe is not compatible with the purpose and with the full effect of the framework agreement.

Contract of employment in public functions

Inadmissibility: scope

The scope of Directive 1999/70/EC of 28 June, is defined by art. 2, paragraph 1, of the framework agreement. This standard provides that the framework agreement "shall apply to fixed-term workers or members of an employment relationship as defined by law, by

collective agreements or practice in force in each Member State". Excluded from the scope of Directive 1999/70/EC may only be, for the determination of Member States after consultation of the social partners, or by the social partners themselves, contracts of vocational training and apprenticeship schemes and contracts concluded under a specific programme, public or benefiting from public assistance, training, integration or retraining (art. 2, paragraph 2 of the framework agreement).

Unlike the European directive, normative block on hiring term which is present in the national transposing instrument may not apply to all sectors of activity – both public and private – covered by the directive, for the reasons that we will analyse (art. 9 of LC).

The confrontation between the regime enshrined in the Labour Code and the provisions of the Contract of Employment in Public Office (RCTFP), adopted by Law No. 59/2008 of 11 September, shows that not all standards are coincident. However, to emphasise that the Directive 1999/70/EC does not excludes from its scope the fixed-term work in public functions (art. 2 framework agreement). However, the Court of Justice has already had the opportunity to comment on the scope of Directive 1999/70/EC and the case law reveals that the provisions of the framework agreement also apply to contracts and fixed-term employment relationships concluded with administrations and other public sector entities (Case *Adeneler*, 4 July 2006, case No. c 212/04; Case *Marrosu and Sardino*, 7 September 2006, case No. c 53/04; and Case *Vassallo*, 7 September 2006, case No. c 180/04). Indeed, the concept of "fixed term employee" within the meaning of the framework agreement, covers all workers, without distinction as to *public or private employers* that are by it bounded.

The main weaknesses of the contracts of employment in public functions

We believe that national legislation is not in a position to *prevent effective misuse of fixed-term contracts in public functions* and thus does not guarantee the effectiveness of the community standard. This is because the contract concluded by public employers does not translate, in any case, in an indefinite period contract. In the national legal system, despite the prohibition of successive contracts being applicable to fixed-term employment contracts with public employer, the possibility of converting this contract for an indefinite period is not allowed. It should be noted, however, that the European law states that the framework agreement does not impose as a sanction for the conclusion of fixed-term contracts into indefinite-term contracts but opposes the absence of other measures to make the restrictions set forth in the framework agreement effective. However, although the Portuguese law, apart from disciplinary responsibility and financial liability provision enshrined on the duty to compensate a worker for the losses suffered and caused by the unlawful conduct of the holder of the organization that has celebrated with the aforementioned worker successive fixed-term employment contracts with the breaching of the conditions of the contract of employment in public functions and therefore acquiesce to the requirements laid down by law, we believe that the same does not guarantee the results imposed by this Directive.

This is because we believe that the Court of Justice has not supervised if, indeed, national measures were taken to prevent the misuse of fixed-term contracts and corroborate the full effect of the Directive (VIGNEAU, 2007). We assume that it does not make sense to consider in abstract whether there are alternative measures to prevent the conclusion of successive fixed-term employment contracts, but that it would be best rather to assess whether such measures are effective and sufficient to achieve the objective in question.

Recently, in Portugal, this question came to assume new contours with a decision of the Court of Appeal of Porto (Judgment of 09.11.2009, proc. 734/08.1TTVNG. P1). This new case,

faced with the same need to interpret the term in public functions in the face of Directive 1999/70/EC, decided on the "*principle of interpretation in conformity with European Union*", settled a peaceful jurisprudence of the TJUE, discordant, by personally solutions from national legislation versus objectives imposed by the Directive.

The conclusive argument arose from the distinction, not provided in Directive 1999/70/EC, between the public and private functions, which the national legislator provided in conversion of private law contracts, but not for those celebrated between entities of public law. If the ordinary legislator meant to have proceeded to the transposition of the directive on the legal-private labour relations, in the preamble of the labour code, he omitted this reference in terms of public law with the employer. In particular, the purpose of the directive would be at stake: precisely that of preventing abuses in fixed-term work. Even the fact that the invalidity shall not affect the recognition of the consequences of eventually produced, the truth is that it would be at this point, according to the Court that the "monetization" (Machado, 2009), which seems to make progress in national legislative options to the detriment of effective prevention of outsourcing the term that would appear clearly insufficient should be refused. This Court deviates from constitutional jurisprudence (judgment of TC No. 361/00, dated 11 July 2000, Judgment No. 683/99, 9.11.2009, proc. 734/08.1TTVNG. P1), which is arguing in the opposite direction and consequent banning conversion of successive fixed-term employment contracts based on equal opportunities in access to legal relationship public employment, ensured via legal scrutiny, under the Constitution. It was thus assumed by jurisprudence, in a totally innovative fashion, the coming close of the labour employment law of the private sector leading to loss of timeliness of the decision of the Constitutional Court.

Therefore, despite the perceptible guarantees granted by the national legislature, we cannot say that was transposed Directive 1999/70 to the national legal order, because we believe that the Portuguese labour's legal system *does not guarantee the prevention of misuse of successive fixed-term employment contracts*, regardless of public or private nature of the employer, so that the national provisions are not in a position to guarantee the objectives and effectiveness of the directive.

Nature of standards

Turning to another stratum of our concerns, we would stress that, art. 3, paragraph 1 of the LC, claims that collective labour agreements may depart from the rules of the code, except when these results otherwise overshadows the whole legal labour-system. It should be noted that currently in Portugal, as to the labour code, and there are doubts as to the nature of the standards, it should be understood that the legal source has an *additional nature* and therefore can be excluded or modified by conventional source. In this area, we have serious doubts that the principle expressed in art. 3, paragraph 1, of the CT, is consistent with the Law of the European Union, that is because, on one hand, the European Union law holds hierarchical supremacy on national law and, on the other hand, the directives bring into force the principle of minimum social standard (Amado, 2005). In fact, we believe that the Portuguese State, transposing Directive 1999/70/EC, ignored, two fundamental limits: the first is that the community standard establish a *minimum level of protection*, national legislation may not align itself below this threshold; the second is specific provision of the directive which recognizes to the Member States the authority to maintain or introduce provisions which are *more favourable to workers* than those laid down therein (LEITE, 2006). However, pursuant to art. 3, paragraph 1 of the LC, none of these limits is guaranteed.

It should be taken into account that the directive lays down minimum conditions for the protection of fixed-term workers and its transposition should ensure that domestic law does not remain below this minimum level of protection (LEITE, 2006), regardless of whether or not to accept that the internal legal order enshrines a constitutional principle of minimum standard. Well, in our view, the Portuguese State has contravened the inhibition to adopt requirements more favourable to workers than those established by the European Union law. That said, it is clear that art. 3, paragraph 1, of the LC, does not proceed to the full compliance of EU law and hardly dovetails with the obligation of the transposition of Community directives.

Allied to the crisis of the principle of more favourable treatment, national legislation has still implemented a supplementarity system of standards of the labour code on fixed-term contracts, which may be separated by collective work instrument rules *in melius or in pejus*, except in the al. b) of paragraph 4 of art. 140. paragraph and to paragraphs 1, 4 and 5 of art. 148 of LC (art. 128 of LC).

Faced with this standard, we believe that there are two possibilities open: to follow the doctrine cautious that seeks to mitigate the effects of combining art. 139 with art. 3 of CT or then consider that art. 139 of CT allows the consecration of conventional standards stained as unconstitutional and contrary to European Union law. However, in our opinion, the legislator wanted to say exactly what can be literally inferred from the disposition i.e. establish *the supplementary nature of the regime of employing in term*.

So, joining the interpretation according to which the legislator only purged block rules for auxiliary hiring fixed-term work made under al. b) of paragraph 4 of art. 140. paragraph and to paragraphs 1, 4 and 5 of art. 148 of CT (IRENE GOMES, 2004, BAPTISTA, 2004 RAMALHO, 2006), will be saying that the result of collective bargaining symbolizes the consecration of conventional standards of *doubtful constitutional compliance and contrary to community provisions*. Indeed, in our view, the supplementary policy consecrated today – or at least the results that arise from it – *is irreconcilable with the constitutional guarantees and the implementation of European Union Law*.

It should be noted that the framework agreement only allows Member States and/or social partners *exceptions* to the community standard *in a more favourable sense* to workers, which is not, of course, guaranteed in the Portuguese legal system due to supplementary national standards on fixed-term contract (art. 139 of LC).

Moreover, taking into account the results achieved by the *collective agreements* in the field of fixed-term work, so that the combination of art. 3. with the art. 139 of CT, allows results absolutely contrary to the Constitution and to guarantee the effectiveness of the directive.

Accordingly, we believe that, given the extent of the powers of the derogation granted to the collective convention by art. 139 of CT, it cannot be considered as being correctly transposed to the directive. In fact, we believe that the Portuguese State does not guarantee the minimum *standard* imposed by Community legislation. One can also consider that the system set out in the Labour Code is not in line with the idea of the rule of the European Union law, because the national legislator does not ensure the rights conferred to individuals by Community law and, moreover, adopted measures incompatible with that very same Community law. Therefore, we believe that the opportunity offered by the legislator to collective bargaining can (almost) freely depart the scheme of the contract term in the labour code is an empoisoned gift, since, in practice, such freedom violates constitutional and community standards.

Conclusion

By what has been said, we believe that the Directive 1999/70/EC of 28 June 1999 concerning the agreement framework ETUC, UNICE and CEEP term contract *has not been transposed*, or rather, has been transposed in an incorrect or inappropriate way since, in the Portuguese legal measures *to ensure the content and purpose of the Directive* in question, to achieve the results by this pursued in order to achieve a solution compatible with the provisions of that Directive were not implemented.

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Intra and Interpersonal Development Group – (Re)thinking Retirement – Intervention Possibilities in Social Area on Applied Psychology Service IP / UERJ

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Abstract

The proposal to promote retirement study trying to connect Social Psychology and Organizational and Work Psychology, whose main subjects are social relationships and work. Besides that, working with Intra and Interpersonal Development groups in an Applied Psychology Service aims to join intervention and research fields, enabling to increase the satisfaction of our society demands. The theoretical-methodological emphasis is based on Group Dynamics Theory, specifically to Intra and Interpersonal Development. This group results in a space of self-knowledge and social and cultural resources expansion. Therefore, it is our purpose to think about contemporary work and organizational forms, providing the group with conditions to deal with this reality and to find ways to change it.

Introduction

Working is a very important activity for men, as it is considered human identity integration element and their main regulator, since, because of work, humans set their schedules, their social and family relationships (Rodrigues, Ayabe, Lunardelli & Canêo, 2005). So, it is through work, which is considered the human activity that changes the world and the person who performs it, that humans find the possibility to produce their existence, to act as a person, completely engaged, which means, with their biological body commitment, their affections, their life history, their sociability. So, work has a large influence on humans' life. And, this way, the proposal presented herein is a look at retirement, work disconnection process, and related matters, which compose a dense field of complexities.

Ageing process, human development stage, is related to retirement and it is the subject of several points of view, according to different societies. While for some societies being old means being wise and experienced, which ensures respect, admiration and an active role in social relationships, in other societies being old means abandonment and neglect, when the individual ceases to act actively in labor market (Rodrigues *et al,* 2005).

Another key issue is population longevity which, as a consequence, determines the increase in elderly population number, which is a global reality. In accordance with the new age pyramid configuration, we observe elderly population life expectancy increase as a result of health technological advances, social and economic development in our society. Given this worldwide phenomenon, we observe that science has shown greater interest in human ageing process for the last four decades. (Veras *et al,* 2001).

In Brazil, researches about retirement started, mostly, in the 1980s. Researchers' interest is directly connected to elderly population increase in the country and to new social roles that

part of this population has assumed. Despite being a global phenomenon, population ageing acceleration has increased in countries and regions with more recent economic and social development, such as Latin America and the Caribbean. These areas currently present a growth rate of this population contingent around 3%, with a tendency to grow to 4% still in the first decades of this century (Coutrim, 2006).

With such a change in population profile, we then observe consequences in social and economic areas, based on the importance of society reorganization in order to combine the new age-group, the old age, since specific demands arise. The increase in the number of retirees moves an increasing slice of consumer market, and these new characters have pursued a larger participation in society by entering generating groups. More and more services are being offered in several sectors: universities, courses, centers, travel programs, among others.

On the other hand, we realize that while elderly population assumes consumer roles, it stops producing in economic field, since ageing guides individuals to retirement. França (1999) declares that retirement means

> "leaving regular work and, generally, the term is related to ageing. However, being young or old for a job is not only related to a physical, mental or psychological capability evaluation for the work, but also it is going to depend on demographic, historical, socio-cultural, economic and politician context in which the worker is inserted."(p. 2)

Losing this 'social producer' role also demands several implications in the individual life.

Retirement is a social fact consolidated in the 20th century, when wage-earners in the whole world can count on Social Security (França, 1999). This movement in defense of a salary for retirees in order to ensure their financial security starts from working class claims. Retirement is proposed as a State intervention measure to ensure individuals and their families' quality of life, providing the return of a monthly salary for those who have boosted the production market for years.

However, when we evaluate the current situation of retirement in Brazilian poorer classes, it is clear that retirement does not ensure quality of life needed by the worker who has devoted years for the labor market. Actually, retirement represents a reduction in household income, because the salary received by retirees is smaller than the one received during their active life, which may cause, then, a decline in retirees' life style. On the other side, other elements justify the seeking the maintenance of the link with working world.

Carlos, S. A., Jacques, M. G. C., Larratéa S. V. and Heredia, (1999) reinforce this idea, asserting that:

> "Despite recognizing, in a generalized way, retirement low pecuniary values, subjective factors are the main reasons to keep the link, aiming acknowledgment and to continue feeling useful in a social group based on production values. These ideas are organized around work category and do not offer identification parameters that enable to express daily life and give it some value except through work."(p. 81)

So, retirement becomes a unique issue, which demands attention due to the subjective consequences that it has, and also because it is the destiny of every worker, in Brazil or anywhere in the world.

As it is inevitable in worker's life, retirement provides the workers with different ways to deal with themselves, representing, for each individual, a single meaning. França (1999) indicates

three ways to face retirement: - the first group is represented by those workers who don't intend to retire for several reasons, either because they like social relationships or the status the work gives to them; - the second group consists of those who want to retire, but they would like to keep doing a professional activity, in order not to move definitely away from labor activities; and the third group is composed by those who really want to retire and stop a labor activity, but they do not have plans for what to do after.

Hence retirement represents a subjective dimension in individuals' lives, which can only be understood if we analyze the meaning of work for them. França (2002) exemplifies, from different employees' representation, asserting that the higher the status and power the worker assign to work, the more difficult to resign from it and choose retirement. Rodrigues *et al* (2005) declares that, in this way, retirement experience will be influenced by the relationship between the free time and the professional role the worker established during working years.

Retirement represents a change stage in humans' life and, like any situation of change; it may result in psychological instability. "Stop working due to retirement may be the most important loss in people's social life, because it may result in other future losses, which tend to affect individual's psychological structure" (França, 1999, p. 8). Together with the material loss resulting from the reduction of mensal finance, as previously mentioned, there are social relationship and status losses by losing daily contact with co-workers. Besides that, the loss of the function performed for years is verified, and it compromises psyche by self-esteem and motivation reduction. Idleness sensation and lack of expectation in retirement, added to an emptiness feeling caused by the lack of work, can lead the individual to an anxiety crisis, depression, and alcoholism or even to suicide (Rodrigues *et al*, 2005).

Retirement imminence represents a stage of tension and conflicts, in which desires are mixed, as the real possibility of stop working faces the fear of financial instability, loneliness and lack of work boredom. So, in accordance with Rodrigues *et al (2005)*

> "[...] as a result of all these aspects that individuals have to face in this transition phase, some may healthily deal with this rupture with work; however, many, as a result of not knowing how to deal with the changes in this new stage of life, may fall ill." (p. 59)

In this sense, thinking about retirement is to analyze one more stage of human development in the context in which it is inserted. Retirement as a establishment of a change in the worker's life indicates the need of a reorganization. It implies a life change to compensate material or psychological losses that retirement provides to individuals. The adoption of actions, such as previous financial organization to solve salary reduction, or the discovery of new areas of interest to which the individual may engage in or even try to realize old dreams hitherto dormant due to the daily grind, may help to take a new life course. (França, 2002).

So, to allow a space to think about retirement may be a practical alternative to help workers in their journey towards retirement. Zanelli and Silva (as cited in Rodrigues *et al,* 2005, p. 59,) indicate that "the transition that occurs in retirement can be facilitated, when group situations or experiences are promoted within organizational context, whilst workers still have their professional role and perform work activities".

This proposition is confirmed by Elderly National Politics, according to Law nº 8.842 from January 4, 1994, which "proposes the creation and maintenance retirement preparation programs in public and private sectors at least two years before retirement". In conjunction with Elderly Statute, through Law nº 10.741 from October 1, 2003, which also stimulates retirement preparation programs at least two years in advance, workers may redefine their lives and establish post retirement plans (Rodrigues *et al,* 2005). Besides that, workers can

have a space that favors discussion and helps their identity reconstruction, internalizing new roles and new purposes for life that emerge with retirement.

Retirement studies are helpful for society in general, and particularly for workers, as they help them to establish new life goals. They are also good for companies, because they signal an organizational culture that invests in quality of life; valorize people, their professional satisfaction and achievement.

Thus, this project indicates the need to put people who are getting prepared for retirement together in a Personal/Professional Development Group that allows them to share this experience. A space where they can experience their feelings facing this new situation, explore the meaning of work for each one, to be aware of the current moment, expectations and perspectives related to retirement. And, this way, create conditions for each participant, in the group or together with the group, to (re) think about retirement reconsider the life project.

Through this reflection on retirement, the proposal to promote retirement study trying to approximate Social Psychology and Organizational and Work Psychology is justified, whose main subjects are social relationships and work. Besides that, working with Intra and Interpersonal Development groups in an Applied Psychology Service aims to join intervention and research fields, enabling to increase the satisfaction of our society demands, as studies and works related to retirement have been performed, at most, in companies motivated by the mentioned Laws. The purpose is provide a space where participants can share experience, feelings related to this stage of life, allowing reflections about retirement, where they can rethink their professional choices and future perspectives. And so the proposal during the development of the group will be: - provide a psychological agreement establishment that meets participants' different expectations in relation to the purpose of this work; - favor group development, facilitating the knowledge of the participants between themselves, in order to create conditions to share experiences and feelings towards retirement; - provide self-evaluation and hetero-evaluation reflecting about professional life and current moment, providing a quest and awareness attitude, in order to facilitate decisions and change, in beliefs and values "re-signification" process and create conditions to make an individual action plan facing retirement life project.

Theoretical Grounding and Methodology

Human beings are understood as social beings, which are in constant relationship with one another, living in groups and participating in them. They are beings who develop seeking fulfillment and happiness through living with each other, where their individual potentials are updated through interaction. According to Ayres, 2003 (p.53) "[...] living in groups is a social learning, it is part of human socialization, survival, which seems to us to be unnatural, involved by a mesh of contradictions and conflicts."

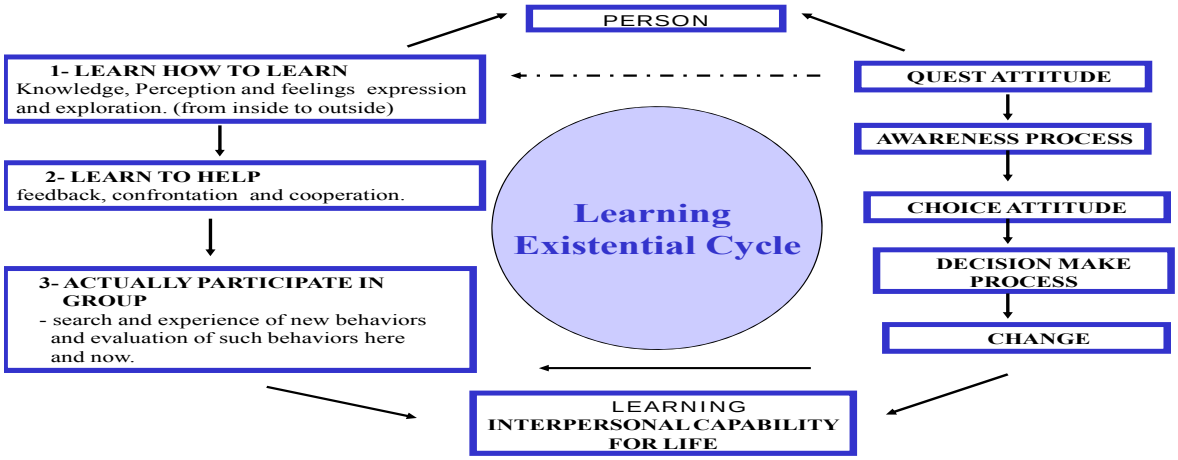
This way, the importance of knowing and comprehending what is going on to the group and in the group is observed, in order to create favorable conditions so the group, and each one in the group, can "learn by doing", accepting his own responsibility in the learning process, in order to feel capable, competent, and exploring all his human potential.

This project is inserted in Organizational and Work Psychology Field, emphasizing group processes, especially related to Intra and Interpersonal Development. Theoretical-Methodological guidance emphasizes Group Dynamics Theory and Research-Action methodology. Group Dynamics provides theoretical grounding, as it constitutes a research

field dedicated to progressive knowledge of small groups' nature, their development laws and their inter-relationship. The proposed methodology is based on Group Dynamics presupposition, inside Research-Action model by Kurt Lewin, considered a methodology of research performance with proper means to conceive and organize psychosocial research, which emphasizes researcher and all involved in the situation participation, in order to allow understanding basis and ensure experience continuity. (Ayres, 2003)

Group development theoretical model is based on Learning Existential Cycle (MOSCOVICI, 1991), whose main focus is the group process, group and each participant development reading. The issue is "learn how to learn", in which the individual themselves are responsible for their learning. Emotions and feelings are explored, emphasizing their importance as something to be experienced and understood. The process of giving and receiving feedback becomes essential to improve the relationships between the individuals and for each one personally. Participants are motivated to search and experiment new behaviors and evaluate them. While participating in the group, individuals may think about their attitudes and behaviors through a quest attitude, a consciousness process, searching solutions that demand a choice and a decision towards the change. (Ayres, 2003)

Group Dynamics - Learning Existential Cycle



Moscovici, F, Interpersonal Development – 1991

The study of the groups and the relationship between individuals and groups should take into consideration the group dynamic, social context and its development.

Research-Action, according to Barbier (1985, p. 38), "can be defined as a Field psychological research, aiming a psychosocial change" or, according to Thiollent (2000), who explains in a more clear way:

> "it is a kind of social research with empiric basis which is designed and carried out with close association with an action or a collective problem solution and in which researchers

and participants representing situation or problem are involved in a participative or cooperative way."(p.14)

Accordingly, the participation of everybody is important in the process, whose characteristic is people's implication: commitment and engagement are essential and determine the research results. All group development process stages assumes active participation of group members, providing information, analyzing, interpreting and acting, in a co-operative process, sharing, among researchers and participants, where respect, reliance and open communication are basic elements. (Ayres, 2003)

Such theoretical conception aims to promote conditions to facilitate groups and processes capable to achieve group authentic purposes, intensify the Best values from society and enrich individuals' personal resources. (Cartwright & Zander, 1967).

INTRA AND INTERPERSONAL DEVELOPMENT GROUP PROCESS

Intra and Interpersonal Development group - (Re)thinking retirement aims to, throughout the meetings, enable participants to reflect on retirement, to rethink their professional choices and future perspectives. So, according to the methodology mentioned, planning should meet group demands, in an analysis of the proposal purpose, individual objectives, group individual characteristics and context. Intra e Interpersonal Development Group - (Re) thinking retirement implementation considers the goals defined by Lewin (as cited in Mailhiot, 1985), presented below:

- Offer the participants an experience in a restricted group, the only context within which human relationships of all members can be established on an interpersonal basis;
- Offer the participants a group experience centered on human communication, its authenticity demands;
- Offer, ultimately, the participants a group experience during which their relationships with authority figures could develop and become autonomous." (p. 94)

It is characterized, this way, by certain conditions (Mailhiot, 1985, p. 95-97):

- In relation to duration – pre-established (60 hours maximum) = 18 hours;
- In relation to the number of participants (ideal, from 12 to 15) = 15 participants;
- Established the time for each meeting = 1h and 30 min;
- Settlement of implementation place - Psychology Institute -UERJ Psychology Service

The structure, based on research-action methodology, presents the following stages:

STAGES/ Activities/ Purpose
1st STAGE – PSYCHOLOGICAL AGREEMENT
• Project disclosure. • Elaboration of the instruments to survey participants' needs and expectations. • Define procedures. • Individual interviews and group initial meeting. • Group formation with at most 15 participants.
Objectives: - survey individual and group expectations and demands; - present Intra e Interpersonal Development Group - (Re) thinking retirement proposal; provide the engage of all participants, through an open dialogue about the group implementation and the role of each group member.
2nd STAGE - INTRA E INTERPESSOAL DEVELOPMENT GROUP - (RE) THINKING RETIREMENT IMPLEMENTATION
• Initial self-evaluation. • Weekly meetings development - duration: 01h30min – 12 meetings total. • Self and hetero-evaluation / Moment to elaborate Individual Action Plan • Individual final result –Evaluation Form completion.
- Objectives: - meet demands, group specifications and goals (proposal that was discussed during initial discussion).
3ª STAGEE – EVALUATION AND MONITORING
• Elaborate evaluation instrument and meetings Final Reports.
• Final Result Elaboration and Evaluation form completion.
• Individual meetings – feedback and individual action plan analysis.
- Objectives: - enable each group member self-evaluation by analyzing individual action plan and results achieved.

Final Considerations

Faced with what has been stated throughout this article, the transformation process experienced by individuals upon retirement is clear. Such changes occur in several life areas; biological changes related to the ageing process; family conjuncture that changes when sons and daughters leave home; couple reunion at home and, oftentimes, grandchildren arrival; and, also, the entrance of this individual into an environment from whose routine he used to be exclude due to work activities; a new social role construction: retiree role, with all consequent changes in family income, resulting from retirement monetary losses.

All these changes demand a great psychic investment so the individual can adapt, and this process has a "price". Deal with such issues may promote large internal conflicts, generate anguish**,** ambiguities, unhappiness, mainly for those who developed a strong link with work. Some studies indicate several psychological and social problems resulting from the retirement process.

Under this scenario, it is proposed to create a space that allows retirement process reflection. But it is not only about thinking about it, but also sharing experience in intra and interpersonal

dimensions; rethinking professional choice, how it happened, the benefits and personal gratification it brought. Finally, reflect, experience and share these experiences with their partners, from retirement experience awareness they can, thus, elaborate strategies to deal with this moment.

It is important to emphasize that this is not a group psychotherapy proposal, but a personal development based on Group Dynamics perspective, which is a theory that offers group development in a dynamic psychological process, whose evolution is through movement; such evolution occurs from changes and re-education, from learning new behaviors and roles. (Kurt Lewin, as cited in Mailhiot, 1985). It is expected that re-education and learning are reached as the group develops throughout the meetings, enabling a quest attitude and awareness of the experienced moment, creating conditions for a re-signification process of beliefs and values that facilitate decisions make and changes. From this point forward, conditions are created to elaborate a life project in retirement. Group development results in a self-knowledge space and the expansion of cultural and social resources, important requirements in the new work world reorganization. Accordingly, we aim to reflect on work and organizational means nowadays, offering the group conditions to deal with this reality and find ways to change it.

Considering that this proposal is a project that is in its beginning, we cannot expose any data conclusively. On the other side, Work and Organizational Psychology Field is still poorly explored in UERJ Applied Psychology Service, and has a unique role of clinical Psychology. So, the proposal of working with Intra and Interpersonal Development groups based on Group Dynamics Theory perspective offers a new procedure, study and research for college students from UERJ Psychology Institute, as well as allows an extension to meet our society demands.

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Chapter 5: Attitudes and Performance

Past Employment Experiences, Current Employment Conditions, and Psychological Contract Expectations

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Abstract

Changes in psychological contract expectations are expected as a result of societal changes in values and trends in the labor market, which reduce the permanency of employment relationships. The current study examines the impact of various employees' experiences and conditions associated with uncertainty in the labor market on expected psychological contracts with future employers. Using a sample of employed Israeli college students (N=1150) during a period of shrinkage in the labor market, we found that adverse employment experiences in one situation generalized to expectations from other employment situations in two ways: First, adverse employment experiences in previous jobs increased job insecurity in the current job. Second, both adverse experiences in previous jobs and job insecurity in the current job were associated with more transactional expectations from a future employer.

Introduction

Employers in virtually every industrialized nation of the world have been moving, in varying degrees, toward increased flexibility in how they staff their organization (Fullerton & Wallace, 2007; Gowing, Kraft, & Campbell-Quick, 1998). As a result, many workers have been displaced while others have become involuntarily part-time employed, or hired on temporary employment contracts. Many observers (e.g. Cooper, 1999; Guest, 2004) suggest that as a consequence of these changes in the world of work and in light of more tenuous employment relationships, workers have experienced changes in their sets of beliefs about employing organizations and their place in them, and they approach their careers and employers differently.

These changes in employees' beliefs and expectations are often discussed by the academic and practitioner literature in the U.S and Europe in terms of changes in the psychological contract between employers and employees. According to this literature, under the old psychological contract, employees who were good performers were virtually guaranteed a job by their employer until retirement, and the employer was seen as a caretaker who helped employees plan their careers and provided promotions to ensure career development. The employees in turn were loyal and committed to the job and the organization. Under the new psychological contract, both employees and employers have lower expectations for long-term employment and are more narrowly committed to each other (Cavanaugh & Noe, 1999).

The purpose of this study was to contribute to understanding the effects of less stable employment relationships on employees' sense of job insecurity and expectations about future employment relationships. In this study, we try to extend prior research in three ways: First, prior research tended to focus more on the consequences of job insecurity than on its antecedents (e.g. De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002), and studies of the

antecedents of job insecurity have focused mainly on background variables and current employment conditions. We extend this research by suggesting that job insecurity is related not only to current employment conditions but also to past employment experiences of the sort that characterizes an unstable labor market. Second, several studies (e.g. Cavanaugh & Noe, 1999) demonstrated a relationship between job insecurity and intentions to leave the organization. We suggest that these intentions will be affected not only by current employment conditions and current job insecurity but also by previous employment experiences. Third, most studies of the consequences of job insecurity (e.g. De Witte, 1999) have focused on attitudes to the *current* employer and expectations from the *current* employer. We suggest that past employment experiences and current job insecurity will also affect expectations about the employment relationship with a *future* employer. In other words, we suggest unstable employment conditions and employees' experiences that result from these conditions may have cumulative effects from the past into the present and from the past and present into the future.

Sample and Data Collection

We investigated these propositions in a large sample of relatively mature and employed Israeli students during a period of instability in the labor market (2003). The sample initially included 1150 students in an Israeli college offering degrees in Law and Business Administration. Data was collected by questionnaires distributed in classes. Participation was voluntary. Forty three percent of the participants were first-degree Law students, thirty eight percent first-degree Business students, and nineteen percent were studying for an MBA. Fifty seven percent were male and forty three percent women. Their mean age was 27. All were employed at the time of the study.

Variables and Measures

Current Employment Conditions. Respondents were asked whether they are employed part time or full time. They were also asked about the nature of their employment contract. For the purposes of the analysis we contrasted those had permanent jobs or a long-term contracts with all forms of temporary employment. We also asked respondents to indicate the length of time in their current job.

Past Employment Experiences. Respondents were asked whether they had been laid off during the last three years (40 % had), whether they had witnessed a workforce reduction of at least 10% in their organization during the last three years (44% had), and whether their pay was reduced in the last three years (43% experienced such a reduction).

Job Insecurity. We employed a global measure that focused on the perceived probability of job loss. We used a five-item scale based on the work of Eilam (1999) and Fried et al. (2003).

Intention to Change Jobs. Participants were asked if they intend to look for a new job after finishing their studies. Sixty nine percent answered "yes".

Expectations from a Future Employer. We used part of the Psychological Contract Inventory (PCI. Rousseau, 2000). The PCI includes eight items that capture the employee's expectations from the employing organization on the transactional dimension, which reflects expectations of an employment arrangement with a limited duration, primarily focused upon economic exchange, specific, narrow duties and limited worker involvement in the organization. In the original PCI' respondents are asked to respond in regard to their relationship with their

current employer. Consistent with the aims of this study, we asked participants to respond in regard to their expected relationship with a future employer. In order to provide an anchor for their responses we asked them to refer to the employer they expect to have after graduation from the college.

Control Variables. We controlled for the following variables: age, sex, family status, having children, field of studies, and degree.

Results

Table 1 presents the results of hierarchical regression on job insecurity. In this regression the control variables were entered in the first step, and current employment conditions in the second, because we were interested primarily in the additional impact of previous work experiences, which were entered in the third step. All the variables included in the regression accounted for 22% of the variance in job insecurity. The table shows that after entering the control variables, and the respondents' current employment conditions, past employment experiences accounted for an additional 9% of the variance in job insecurity, providing strong support for our hypothesis Furthermore, in the final step of the regression, all past employment experiences were significantly related to job insecurity in the expected direction. Job insecurity was higher among participants who had been laid off, had witnessed layoffs in their workplace, and had experienced a pay reduction.

Table 1: Regression on job insecurity

Variable name	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control Variables			
Age	-.20**	-.02	-.08
Sex	.00	.00	.00
Family status	-.08	-.04	-.03
Children	.03	.06	.07
Degree	.02	.06	.07*
Field	.00	.00	-.01
Employment Conditions			
Temporary		.08*	.06
Part-time		.15**	.11**
Tenure		-.24**	-.14**
Employment Experiences			
Laid-off			.16**
Pay reduction			.14**
Reductions at workplace			.18**
ΔR2	.05	.09	.09
F Change	8.44**	31.26**	36.60**
Adjusted R2	.04	.13	.22

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 2 present the results of a hierarchical regression analysis on transactional expectations from a future employer. In this analysis, we entered the control variables in the first step, current employment conditions in the second step, past employment experiences in the third, and job insecurity in the fourth step. The variables included in this study accounted for 12% of the variance in transactional expectations from a future employer. After entering the control variables and current employment conditions, past employment experiences contributed additional 3% to the variance in transactional expectations from a future employer and this addition was statistically significant, providing support for our hypothesis. Two of the prior employment experiences, experiencing a pay reduction and witnessing layoffs in the workplace were significantly and positively related to transactional expectations from a future employer in the third step. Job insecurity in the current job was entered in the fourth step added 6% to the variance in transactional expectations from the employer.

Table 2: Regression on transactional expectations from future employer

	Transactional Expectations			
Variable name	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Control Variables				
Age	-.06	.03	.00	.02
Sex	-.05	-.05	-.05	-.05
Family status	-.06	-.03	-.02	-.01
Children	.03	.03	.03	.01
Degree	-.01	.02	.02	.00
Field	-.02	-.03	.03-	-.03
Employment Conditions				
Temporary		.02	.01	.02
Part-time		.15**	.13**	.10**
Tenure		.08-	-.04	.01-
Employment Experiences			.05	.01
Laid off			.11**	.07*
Pay reduction Layoffs at workplace			.10**	.05
Job Insecurity				.27**
ΔR2	.01	.04	.03	.06
F Change	1.05	8.48**	7.79*	52.43**
Adjusted R2	.00	.03	.05	.12

* p < .05; ** p < .01

Discussion

This study contributes to our understanding of the impact of past employment experiences on employees' sense of job insecurity, intention to change jobs, and expectations regarding future employment relationships. Such an understanding is particularly important in view of changes in the labor market, which change the employment experiences of workers and allegedly change their views about the world of work (Kissler, 1994; Parks & Kidder, 1990). Although both the popular press and academic literature suggest the occurrence of a shift

from more relational to more transactional psychological contracts, only a few studies have attempted to document these changes. Even fewer studies have attempted to investigate the relationships between relevant work experiences such as layoffs, pay reduction or job insecurity and the adoption of beliefs, perceptions and behavioral tendencies that are congruent with a newer and more transactional psychological contract.

We proposed that employment experiences carry over from one employment situation to another. More specifically, we selected three major experiences that may be prevalent among employees in an unstable labor market: being laid off, watching layoffs in the workplace, and experiencing pay reduction and hypothesized that such experiences in the past will increase job insecurity at the current job. We further hypothesized that both prior experiences and current job insecurity will increase the intention to change jobs and the expectation that a future employers will treat employees in a transactional manner, offering only limited and short-term employment opportunities. We have found support for all hypotheses.

After controlling for the six control variables (some of which were significantly related to job insecurity) and for current employment conditions, prior employment experiences added significantly and substantially to the accounted for variance in job insecurity. Job insecurity was higher for people who had been laid off, had experienced layoffs in their workplace, and had experienced a pay reduction. As a block, previous employment experiences accounted for the same amount of the variance in job insecurity as current employment conditions such as temporary work, part-time work, and short tenure. An important finding, therefore, is that the sense of job insecurity was not related only or even primarily to the employee's current employment conditions. Adverse past experiences in the labor market left their traces and were reflected in a greater sense of insecurity, even after controlling for the effects of current employment conditions.

This is an important finding not only because it adds to our understanding of the antecedents of job insecurity but also because job insecurity emerged from this study as a major predictor of individuals' intentions to change jobs and expectations about future employment relationships. These results extend prior research on the consequences of job insecurity, which has focused on its adverse effects on employees' attitudes to their current jobs and organizations and various indicators of health and well-being. Apparently, in addition to the adverse effects identified by previous research, job insecurity may also have an impact on expectations regarding future employment relationship. Employees who feel a high sense of insecurity in their current situation expect their future employers to offer them only limited and narrow employment opportunities.

The findings that indicate that expectations from a future employer were related to past employment experiences as well as to felt insecurity in the current job are of particular interest. Our sample consisted mostly of relatively mature but still young students who could have viewed their past and current experiences as reflecting only a transition period. The finding that even in the case of relatively young people who make their first steps in the labor market negative employment experiences may determine, at least to some extent, their expectations from future employment relationships may be seen as worrisome because psychological contracts are reciprocal (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004) and employees who have transactional expectations from future employers may reciprocate by decreasing their commitment to and involvement in future employment relationships. However, it also may be interpreted as a sign of healthy adaptation and adjustment of expectations to changing realities in the labor market.

Like all cross-sectional studies, this study does not provide evidence of causality. It is more likely, however, that employment experiences and conditions affect job insecurity, intention

to change jobs and expectations from a future employer than vice versa. It is also more likely that current job insecurity affects expectations regarding future employment relationships than the opposite. A second potential limitation of the present study is that all variables were measured by means of a single questionnaire, and relationship among variables may therefore be inflated by common source and common method variance. While this represents a limitation, it may be only a partial limitation in this case because some of the relationships we examined were not among perceptions or attitudes but between employment conditions and experiences and participants' perceptions and expectations. Another possible limitation of the study concerns the fact that our sample consisted of employed and relatively mature students with some experience in the labor market, but the majority of participants were employed in temporary and/or part-time jobs and intended to change jobs following graduation. The findings of this study may not generalize to other populations. Future studies should therefore extend the range of employment conditions and experiences examined, and examine whether the findings of this study can be replicated in other populations and labor market conditions.

Overall, despite its limitations, the present study provides support for the claim that changes in the labor market that result in less secure employment opportunities and unsettling employment experiences not only affect employees' perceptions, behavioral tendencies and expectations with regard to a specific employer but may also generalize to other employers and employment relationships. To the extent that current labor market conditions subject workers to experiences such as being laid off by a prior employer, watching other people being laid off in one's workplace and pay reduction, and increase their sense of job insecurity, such experiences may leave cognitive and emotional traces that may extend beyond the employment situation in which these experiences have occurred.

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Predicting Individual - Team Success in Team Projects

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to examine the antecedents of the individual performance as a combination of the team project performance with the individual contribution to that performance. We proposed a conceptual model with individual, team, and situational characteristics that affect the individual – team performance. An empirical examination was conducted with 267 participants that were involved in a computerized business simulation course which required forming teams and appointing a team leader. The findings showed that the following variables significantly predict the individual – team performance: Appointment as the team leader, individual skills of the field, specific knowledge on the team project, satisfaction with the project, and two team characteristics: Decision making style, and teams with a single leader.

Introduction

Nowadays, creating an effective teamwork environment is one fundamental element of high performing businesses (Kets De Vries, 1999; Johnson, Heimann, and O'Neill, 2000). Organizations, particularly in western culture, are rapidly changing their management styles from autocratic to a more participative style (Cook and Goff, 2002). Managements are looking for positive synergy between employees that will allow the organizations to be more creative, innovative and therefore increase performance and achieve long-term competitive advantage (Wageman, 1997). Due to this, teams and especially self-managed work teams are increasingly becoming a more popular practice (Cook and Goff, 2002; Elloy, 2008) as a primary means for organizing work (Robbins and Judge, 2009). Team work is considered a better way to use employees' talent and an effective way for management to democratize their organizations and increase employees' motivation (Robbins and Judge, 2009). Studies have proved that implementation of self managed work teams can produce an increased employee satisfaction (Elloy, 2008) and increase performance and motivation (Cohen and Ledford, 1994).

Harris and Harris (1996, p.23) define teamwork as, "A work group or unit with a common purpose through which members develop mutual relationships for the achievement of goals". Team members are expected to make decisions, take more responsibility and use their skills and knowledge to promote team success (Wageman, 1997; Johnson et al., 2000; Scarnati, 2001).

Most studies deal with team performance and productivity (Sagoe, 1994) and with the right atmosphere and management needed in order to create productive self-management, leadership and team success (Pearce and Manz, 2005; Elloy, 2008). Though the motivated member is the core factor in teamwork only a few studies have dealt with individual achievements and success in this cooperative environment. Accordingly, this study attends to explore factors affecting individual performance and success in a cooperative team environment.

Theoretical and empirical framework

Various organizational researchers suggest a relationship between successful teamwork and the social interdependence theory (Scarnati, 2001; Tarricone and Luca, 2002). Kurt Lewin

(1935) stated that the essence of a group lies in the interdependence of its members (created by common goals); groups are "dynamic wholes" in which a change in the state of any member or subgroup changes the state of the other members or subgroups and an intrinsic state of tension within group members motivates movement toward accomplishment of a desired common goals (Johnson, Johnson, and Smith, 1998; Smith, Sheppard, Johnson, and Johnson, 2005). According to Johnson and Johnson (1999, p. 206), "social interdependence exists when individuals share common goals, each individual's outcome are affected by the actions of the others". The basic premise of social interdependence theory is that the way interdependence is structured determines how individual interact, which in turn determines the outcomes (Johnson et al., 1998). Team cooperation and interaction is a result of positive interdependence among individuals' goals. The idea of cooperation, of working together, is to maximize the individual and the other team members' performance and success.

Applied to the teamwork environment, social interdependence theory suggests that the member's cooperative working environment and not an individualistic competitive effort leads to team success. A positive interdependence is an essential element in a successful team. In other words, one cannot succeed unless the other members of the team succeed (Johnson et al., 2000). Scarnati (2001) claims that the success of a team requires all members to embrace the concept of interdependence. Though interdependency is important, the team performance and success depend individually on team members themselves. Hence, team member's performance is critical to the success of self managed work teams.

Individual Motivation, leadership and self leadership

Theory and research in work motivation have focused mainly on the individual workers and the conditions encouraging them to invest efforts in order to accomplish personal achievement at work (Ellemers, De Gilder and Haslam, 2004). However, members in a team are not necessarily driven by personal considerations only; individuals are motivated also by needs, goals and expectations of the team he or she is part of. Moreover, members of self managed teams are expected and required to support each other in order to achieve the common goals (Ellemers, De Gilder and Haslam, 2004). The need to sacrifice personal needs and achievements in order to achieve collective performance seems problematic. The traditional approach to this problem pointing to interdependence between personal and collective needs and outcomes, and implies that the motivation to achieve a collective performance is regarded as derived from individual concern and motives (Ilgen and Sheppard, 2001; Ellemers, De Gilder and Haslam, 2004). Thus, in teamwork situations common needs and collective goals are likely to motivate the behavior of the individual worker.

Members working in teams are less dependent on traditional leader authority. Leadership is more than just a role; it is a social process that requires team leadership from team members, as well as from the leader (Pearrce et al., 2009). Team members are experiencing a self leadership and shared leadership (Pearce and Manz, 2005) and actually should demonstrate that leadership (Johnson et al., 2000) implicitly or explicitly. Moreover, in the internal dynamics within the team, sometimes there is an informal leader or leaders supported by members that have more weight in decision making. Self leadership incorporates intrinsic work motivation. Self and shared leadership might be leverage for greater effectiveness (Pearce and Manz, 2005). An employee that exhibits leadership is more motivated to achieve high collective performance and team success. Depending upon the demand of a mission, occasionally a leader who has not been formally appointed, can exhibit leadership for a defined time. This responsibility might motivate them to higher performance. Accordingly, we suggest that there is a positive correlation between individual motivation and personal

performance in teamwork. Clearly, leadership involves responsibility and duty. Management and subordinates have high expectations from their leaders and thus formally appointed leaders are more motivated to achieve a higher performance level.

Individual Skills and knowledge

Interdependence means that the success of the team depends on effective communication and on sharing knowledge among members (Townsend and DeMarie, 1998). However, team member's visible skills and competence in performing a project task are treated as advantageous elements for personal and team success and each member would like to be recognized and rewarded for his or her competence and work. Therefore, though in teamwork there are team cooperate considerations and interdependence environment, the individual skill and advantages are well appreciated (Wageman, 1997; Johnson et al., 2000). Pearce et al. (2009) in their approach of shared duties, suggest that at any time the person in charge should be the one with the key knowledge, skills and abilities for the current task.

According to Tjosvold and Yu (2004) teamwork capability is determined by the abilities of all its members. The synergy of using all members' abilities maximizes the effectiveness beyond what is individually expected. In their study they found that applying abilities for mutual benefit can predict team and personal performance. Stashevsky and Koslowsky (2006) found that the specific knowledge of the project is a significant predictor of team performance. Accordingly, we propose that there is a positive correlation between the individual skills and knowledge needed for the team project and the personal performance in teamwork.

Management styleand decision making process

Successful self management teamwork involves a share of responsibility and leadership. Responsibility leads to the suggestion of new, innovative and generally competing ideas; it opens productive debates between members and a challenge towards consensus. On the other hand, ineffectiveness occurs as a result of disregard between members and when decisions are made without challenge and/ or confrontation (Richardson, 1995; Johnson et al., 2000). Harris and Harris (1996) explain that teams are effective and successful when they overcome difficulties, achieved through interdependence. Some researchers believe that there is a positive correlation between the ability to resolve conflicts and success as a team member (Thoms et al., 1996). Accordingly, we propose that both management style and decision making process are positively correlated with personal performance.

Project contentment and commitment

Good peer relationships are essential to team success. Cooperation and a good relationship among the team members might result in a more caring and committed relationship between the members. Commitment to the team increases members' satisfaction with teammates and their willingness to help team members and improve team results (Bishop and Scott, 1997). Commitment and satisfaction creates a work environment where members are more involved in their project, have more interest in its success (Elmuti, 1996), and satisfied with their work (Wageman, 1997). Accordingly, we propose that a satisfied member will exhibit higher performance and achievement.

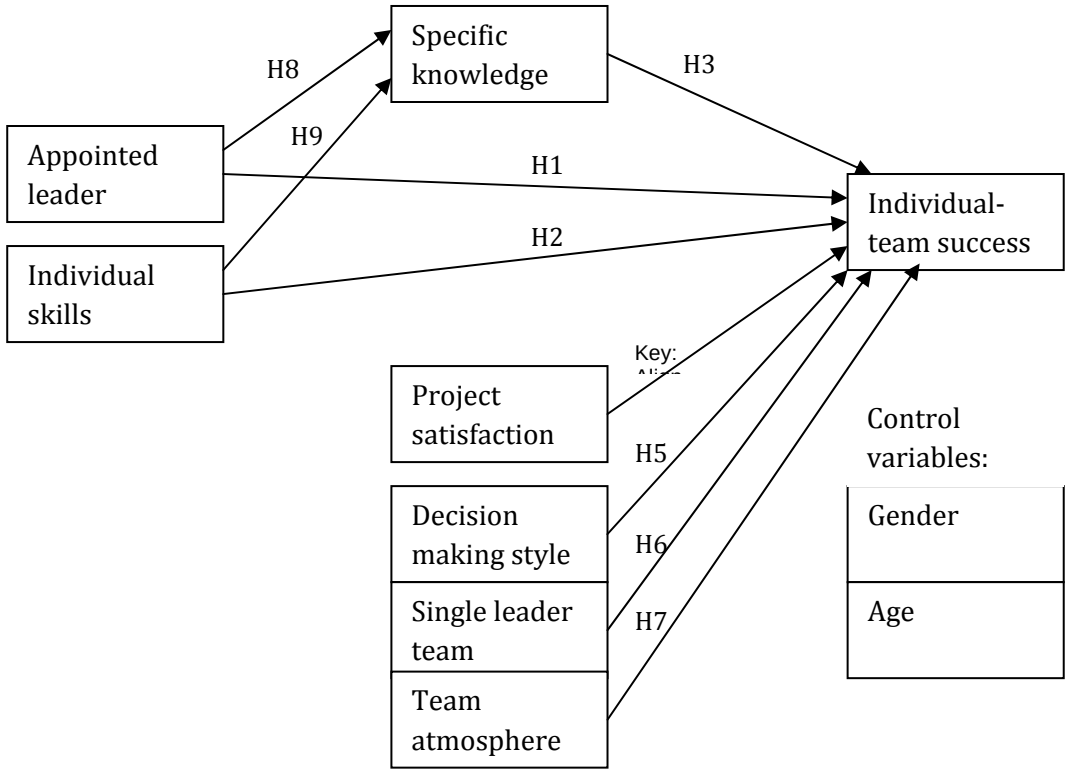
Research hypotheses

Based on the foregoing research observation the following hypotheses were formulated:

H1: Appointed leaders will have higher levels of individual-team success compared to their other teammates.
H2: Individual skills related to the team project will be positively correlated to individual-team success.
H3: Individual specific knowledge acquired in performing the team project will be positively correlated to individual-team success.
H4: Individual satisfaction with the team project will be positively correlated to individual-team success.
H5: Decision making process of the team that includes debates will be positively correlated to individual-team success.
H6: Teams with a single leader will have higher levels of individual-team success compared to teams with no leader or teams with several leaders.
H7: A good atmosphere within the team will be positively correlated to individual-team success.
H8: Appointed leaders will have improved specific knowledge acquired in performing the team project compared to their other teammates.
H9: Individual skills related to the team project will be correlated to the individual specific knowledge acquired in performing the team project.

The model that incorporates the research hypotheses is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Model describing the antecedents of individual – team success in team projects



Method

Sample Characteristics

The sample consisted of 267 graduate students of which 66% were males with a mean age of 29 (ranging from 23 to 39). All participants were in their last year of an MBA program and 95% were working. Their specialization track in the MBA program was: finance (45%), marketing (22%), information systems (20%), and management and organizational behavior (13%). The family status of the participants was: 45% single, 54% married, and 1% divorced.

Research Procedure

The research was performed using the Intopia B2B business simulation (Thorelli, Graves, & Lopez, 2005) with updated business scenarios. The business simulation ran during a full academic year. The main objectives were to develop the managerial and strategic skills, by practicing the abilities to manage a virtual global firm, operating in several international markets. The students were divided into teams of 5-6 students each. Each team represented the management of one firm that competed with other firms who operate in the dynamic hi-tech PC and chips industry. The business position is influenced by the industry (other firms in the simulation), by the macro environmental conditions in the different areas, and by global economy conditions. Each management team is responsible for improving the firm's short-term and long-term performance, to create a competitive advantage in the fiercely cut-throat and dynamic arena in which it operates.

The team performance score was based on the firm performance rating, on the team assignments grades and on the team work grade. The individual-team success was based on the team performance score multiplied by the average peer evaluations assessed by the teammates.

Measures

The study included five sources of data. In the beginning of the simulation, each team was told to select a manager. This nomination was the first data source. The second was a written questionnaire that the team members were asked to fill in at the middle of the simulation, which included also demographic data. The third consisted of exam results of each respondent. The fourth was the peer evaluation assessments of the teammates. The fifth was the team performance score composed of three components: the firm performance rating, the team assignments grades, and the team work grade.

The dependent study variable – the *individual-team success* was the multiplication of the team performance score with the average peer evaluations of each team member divided by 80.

Data Analysis

The statistical package used in this study was SPSS. First, descriptive statistics and correlation analysis were applied in order to get initial insights. Then, a linear regression was performed in order to find the relative impacts of the study variables on the dependent variable: the individual-team success.

Results

First, we examined the correlations between the research variables. Table 1 presents the means, standard deviation and correlation coefficients of the study variables.

It can be seen that the relationships between the individual-team success and all the other variables except for the two control variables (gender and age) and the team atmosphere (which is close to being significant with r=.11 and P=.07) are significant. Specific knowledge was significantly related to two variables: appointed leader and individual skills.

Second step, we performed a linear regression analysis with individual-team success as the dependent variable. Table 2 summarizes the results.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and correlation coefficients of the study variables (N=267)

			Correlations Coefficients								
	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	1.34	.48	1								
2. Age	29.24	3.04	-.28**	1							
3. Appointed leader	.18	.39	.09	-.01	1						
4. Individual skills	.45	.50	-.16*	-.07	.04	1					
5. Specific knowledge	81.91	11.85	-.01	-.01	.14*	.14*	1				
6.Project satisfaction	3.76	1.13	-.11	.03	.07	.10	.01	1			
7. Decision making style	2.88	1.14	.09	-.06	.08	.10	.04	-.04	1		
8. Single leader team	.25	.43	.06	-.03	.08	.07	-.02	-.05	-.10	1	
9. Team atmosphere	4.20	.84	.00	.02	.02	.08	.00	.34**	-.24**	-.09	1
10. Individual-team success	85.37	7.23	-.04	.01	.26**	.24**	.26**	.23**	.18**	.14*	.11

* = Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** = Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 2: Results of the linear regression analysis with the individual-team success as the dependent variable (N=267)

	Beta	t	Sig.
1. Appointed leader	.19	3.40	.001
2. Individual skills	.17	2.93	.004
3. Specific knowledge	.23	4.03	.000
4.Project satisfaction	.21	3.82	.000
5. Decision making style	.15	2.62	.009
6. Single leader team	.11	1.97	.050

Total R^2= 0.24. Note: the team atmosphere and the two control variables: gender and age were excluded from the stepwise linear regression (with Beta in .07, -.03 and .03 and t values: 1.21, -.55 and .56 respectively).

The regression results show that the effects of the two control variables: gender and age on the individual-team success were found to be non-significant, while the effect of all the other variables on the individual-team success were found to be significant with the exception of team atmosphere. Therefore we accept hypotheses H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6 and H8 and reject hypothesis H7.

Discussion

The aim of this study was to examine variables affecting individual – team performance in cooperative teamwork environment. Applying to the social interdependence theory, we proposed a conceptual model and empirically tested it. The empirical findings reveal that there is a significant positive effect of the variables specific knowledge acquired during project accomplishment, project satisfaction with team project, decision making style and teams with single leader on individual-team performance ($\beta = .23$, $p < .01$; $\beta = .21$, $p < .01$; $\beta = .15$, $p < .01$; $\beta = .11$, $p = .05$, respectively). The two variables, appointed leader and individual skills related to the team project, have significant direct positive affect on individual-team performance ($\beta = .19$, $p < .01$; $\beta = .17$, $p < .01$, respectively) and indirect affect though specific knowledge variable ($r = .14$, $p < .05$; $r = .14$, $p < .05$, respectively). Team good atmosphere, though it correlates positively with project satisfaction and negatively with decision making process that includes debates ($r = .34$, $p < .01$; $r = -.24$, $p < .01$, respectively), it has no significant affect on individual-team performance.

The main conclusions of the study are twofold. First, from individual point of view, leadership is a motivating force. As expected, appointed leaders are more motivated and thus demonstrate higher individual-team success, especially those who have cumulative specific knowledge acquired during project performance (Wageman, 1997). Basic skills and especially those possessed by the leader are important for individual-team success (Pearrce et al., 2009). Our finding here suggests that while organizing a team, management should appoint leaders with basic skills related to the project and those who have the ability to acquire and cumulate specific knowledge during performance.

Second, from the team point of view, good work environment with effective communication, where decision making was made with productive debates and cooperation, in addition to the satisfaction of the team members with the team mates and the project, lead eventually to individual-team success (Thoms et al., 1996; Bishop and Scott, 1997; Wageman, 1997). However, teams with only one leader have higher success levels. Teams need a stable function with the ability to resolve conflicts in order to succeed (Thoms et al., 1996). Management and team leaders who were able to create a good productive environment resulting from a cooperative and not competitive atmosphere and from good relationships between members created overall satisfaction. Though self and shared leadership are encouraged there is a need of a leader to elevate the abilities of all team's members (Tjosvold and Yu, 2004) and make the team's free debates efficient and productive.

In this study we have examined variables affecting individual-team success and integrated them in a conceptual model. First, the model was empirically tasted in a homogeneous interdependence team environment. Future studies should examine the model in a heterogeneous interdependence team environment. Second, this study was conducted in a type of laboratory experiment with students as participants. A field study will enhance and generalize these study findings.

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Occupational Stress and Burnout among Police Officers

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Abstract

The study has been undertaken to examine the relationship between occupational stress and burnout among police officers. The investigation was conducted on a sample of 150 non-gazetted police officers (Inspectors, Sub Inspectors, and Assistant Sub Inspectors) from Punjab Police in India. The measures used were: The Occupational Stress Inventory (Srivastava & Singh, 1981) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Two groups of police officers high on burnout (n=50) and low on burnout (n=50) were identified on the basis of 33% upper and lower percentile of the frequency distribution on burnout scores. A comparison of means of the two groups reveals that the high burnout officers have significantly scored higher on role conflict, unrealistic group and political pressures, under participation, strenuous working conditions and overall occupational stress. The correlational analysis also suggests that emotional exhaustion and overall burnout have significant positive relationship with role overload, role conflict, group and political pressures, under participation, intrinsic impoverishment, strenuous working conditions and overall work stress. Using the principal component method of factor analysis two important factors on occupational stress and burnout have been obtained, which explain 34.39% of the variance and reveal that work overload, lack of role clarity, conflicting job demands, unreasonable group and political pressures, inner responsibility, under participation and strenuous working conditions are important correlates of emotional exhaustion and burnout among the police officers.

Introduction

One of the crucial issues before the organizations today is occupational stress. It has been observed by researchers that certain occupations especially those involving contact with people in need such as medical, nursing, teaching, police services and social work are more stressful. The effects of stress have a negative impact not only on the employees but also on the economic costs of the organization. The role of police services in maintaining law and order in the society is well established. Both the society as a whole and the individual citizens set very high standards and expectations for the job of the police officers, as they are expected to ensure security to the citizens and protect their legal rights. The mission of the police officers is mainly to prevent and fight against violation of laws. Bhaskar (1986) in her investigation reveals that the majority of the police officials are hardworking and conscientious; however their job frequently leads to mental stagnation and psychological stress. Dehumanizing working conditions, task pressures, lack of proper training and professional as well as personal obligations produce anxiety and mild to severe stress among these officials. The rapidly changing environment of professional and social life and increased specialization of police work has increased the level of stress among police officers. Anion (2006) reveals two major categories of potential stressors in police work, those that are inherent in the police work and have the potential to be psychologically and physically harmful such as physical threat, violence, exposure to danger, crime, and facing the unknown and secondly organisational stressors such as management styles, poor equipment, excessive work,

poor training and inadequate salary. Sarason et al. (1979) proposed that there are two types of stressors that police officials experience: those that engender anxiety and those that arouse anger and hostility. Anger related stress is particularly important and its negative effects are heightened because officers are prohibited by the decorum of their job from publically expressing anger and hostility. Abernathy (1995) is of the view that these unusually stringent demands for self control represent an additional stressor for police. In view of the specific nature of their job these police officers also possess overly high expectations themselves, sometimes even unrealistic expectations from their job and job related success. When these expectations are not fulfilled, they are demotivated in their work and may even experience burnout. Burnout is a psychological syndrome in response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job. It mainly refers to an extreme state of psychological strain and depletion of energy resources arising from prolonged exposure to stressful situations that exceed the person's resources to cope, particularly stressors associated with human resource professions. Caring for others and care giving environments are generally considered to be the primary source of burnout syndrome. Human service workers and professionals especially who are highly conscientious are vulnerable to burnout because of the nature of their work which is characterized by emotional contacts which play a significant role in determining the extent of burnout (Van Dierendonck, Schaufeli, & Buunk, 2001). Maslach (1982) conceptualized burnout as having three core components: Emotional Exhaustion is characterized by lack of energy and a feeling that one's emotional resources are used up. Depersonalization or dehumanization or cynicism refers to a negative, callous, or excessively detached indifferent response to various aspects of the job. Lack of Personal Accomplishment refers to feeling of incompetence and a lack of achievement and productivity at work. The literature available from researches reveal that exposure to events generally occurring in police work have the potential to be psychologically and physically harmful such as physical threat, violence, exposure to danger, crime and facing the unknown and public criticism (Alexander 1999). The research on job stress and burnout among police officials in India has not been very extensive. The present investigation is therefore an attempt to understand the nature and extent of burnout among police officers and its relationship with occupational stress.

The main objectives of the study are:

1. To investigate the extent of burnout in terms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment among police officers.
2. To study the relationship between occupational stress and burnout
3. To identify the main job stressors in the police work environment

Method

Participants: 150 Non-Gazetted Police Officers from Punjab Police services participated in this study. These police officers were contacted at the Punjab Police Academy, Phillaur, with the prior permission of the Director of the academy. These officers had a minimum work experience of 10 years with an average experience of 24.6 years and standard deviation of 6.90 years. Further the age of the participants ranged from 25 to 56 years with a mean and standard deviation of 48 years and 6.08 respectively.

Measures Used: The measures used for this study are:

1. The Occupational Stress Inventory (Srivastava & Singh, 1981)
2. Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986)

Results and Discussion

Comparison of Means

The scores on all the three dimensions of burnout, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment were calculated separately. These scores were then added to obtain the total burnout score. The raw scores of the total sample (N=150) on burnout ranged from 19 to 109. Subjects above 67% and below 33% of the frequency distribution comprised the two groups of police officers, Group 1 high on burnout and Group 2 low on burnout. Each group comprised of 50 police officers and were almost equivalent in terms of age; education and experience (see Table 1). These two groups were then compared on all the indices of burnout and occupational stress with the help of the t-test. The means, standard deviations and t-ratios on all the variables for the two groups are presented in Table-1. It may be observed that the high burnout group of police officers have scored significantly higher on all the three dimensions of burnout, emotional exhaustion ($t=11.77$ $p<.01$); depersonalization ($t=8.13$ $p<.01$); lack of personal accomplishment ($t=5.37$ $p<.01$) and overall burnout ($t=19.29$ $p<.01$)

Table 1: Statistical Significance of difference between means on all the measured variables for the two groups of Police Officers High Burnout (n=50) and Low Burnout (n=50)

S.No	VARIABLES	HIGH BURNOUT n = 50		LOW BURNOUT n = 50		t- ratio
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
1	Emotional Exhaustion	40.22	6.8	25.12	6.01	11.77**
2	Depersonalization	20.0	4.71	12.0	5.11	8.13**
3	Lack of Personal Accomplishment	13.66	7.41	7.06	4.51	5.37**
4	Burnout	73.90	8.25	43.72	7.35	19.29**
5	Role Overload	23.10	5.30	21.30	5.63	1.64
6	Role Ambiguity	13.74	2.63	14.16	4.03	0.61
7	Role Conflict	17.32	3.71	15.04	3.41	3.19**
8	Unreasonable Group	15.64	4.16	12.80	3.97	3.48**
9	Responsibility for persons	11.12	3.35	10.00	3.29	1.68
10	Under participation	13.44	3.45	12.06	3.15	2.08*
11	Powerlessness	10.38	2.48	10.68	2.66	0.58
12	Poor Peer Relations	11.44	2.71	12.22	2.85	1.40
13	Intrinsic Impoverishment	11.98	3.50	11.60	3.07	0.57
14	Low Status	9.00	2.47	9.20	3.22	0.34
15	Strenuous Working conditions	12.64	4.53	10.84	3.99	2.10*
16	Unprofitability	7.36	2.15	6.78	2.55	1.22
17	Occupational Stress	157.24	24.89	146.68	21.13	2.28*
18	Designation	2.18	0.80	2.30	0.70	0.79
19	Age	48.04	6.15	47.32	6.19	0.58
20	Education	11.82	1.95	11.92	2.27	0.23

Level of Significance at .05 Level= 1.98

On comparing the means of the two groups on all the indices of occupational stress, it is found that group 1 (High burnout) has significantly scored high on role conflict ($t=3.19$ $p<.01$); unreasonable group and political pressure ($t=3.48$ $p<.01$); under participation ($t=2.08$ $p<.01$); strenuous working conditions ($t=2.10$ $p<.01$) and overall occupational stress ($t=2.28$ $p<.01$). These significant differences indicate that conflicting and incompatible demands on the job, unreasonable group and political pressures, lack of participation in decision making and hazardous working conditions lead to stress and burnout among these police officers. Detrimental effects of work overload, role ambiguity and role conflict on the psychological and physical well being of the employees has also been reported in earlier studies. (Narayana et al, 1999; O'Driscoll and Beehr, 1994).

Correlational Analysis

The Pearson's product moment correlations were computed between all the indices of occupational stress, the three dimensions of burnout (Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Lack of Personal Accomplishment) and the overall burnout scores. For a sample of 150 subjects correlation coefficients of .21 and .16 are significant at .01 and .05 levels respectively. The correlation coefficients among all the variables are presented in Table-2. A glance at the table reveal that emotional exhaustion has significant positive relationship with role overload (.22), role conflict (.34), unreasonable group and political pressures (.20), responsibility for persons (.20), under participation (.19), intrinsic impoverishment (.26), strenuous working conditions and overall stress (.38). Further lack of personal accomplishment has a significant positive relationship with under participation (.16). Finally overall burnout scores also have significant positive relationship with role overload (.16), role conflict (.31), unrealistic group and political pressures (.33), responsibility for persons, under participation (.23), strenuous working conditions (.23) and overall stress (.29). The above significant correlations reveal that occupational stress has a significant positive relationship with burnout among police officers especially emotional exhaustion and lack of personal accomplishment. The positive relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and the various indices of officers at the job are the result of work overload. This is further aggravated due to the conflicting demands on the job by their superiors. Unreasonable group and political pressures and high conscientiousness among police officers further add to the strain and stress. A feeling of under participation in decision making processes develops a lack of personal accomplishment and intrinsic impoverishment among the police personnel. Continuously working under strenuous working conditions with high risk in terms of physical danger and threat makes them more vulnerable to high levels of anxiety, stress and burnout. Depersonalization does not have any significant relationship with any of the indices of job occupational stress which means that these police officers are not cynical. Cynicism decreases with the increase in age and years of service in the police forces. (Anion, 2006).

Table 2: Correlation Coefficients between the indices of Occupational Stress and Burnout (N=150)

	Role overload	Role ambiguity	Role Conflict	Pol. Pressure	Responsibility for persons	Under Participations	Powerlessness	Poor Peer Relations	Intrinsic Impoverishment	Low status	Strenuous working conditions	Unprofitability	Occupational Stress	Designation	AGE	education
EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION	.22	.00	.34	.40	.20	.19	.00	00	.26	.06	.34	.14	.38	00	.09	-.12
DEPERSONALIZATION	.05	-.02	.13	.08	.06	.06	0	-.07	00	.07	.04	.07	.07	.08	-.05	.-09
LACK OF PERSONAL ACCOMPLISHMENT	00	.02	.06	.12	.04	.16	.01	-.09	-.03	-.08	-.02	-.02	.03	-.03	-.07	-.01
TOTAL BURNOUT	.16	.01	.31	.33	.18	.23	.01	-.07	.15	.03	.23	.13	.29	.03	.01	-.12

Level of significance at .01 level = .21
Level of significance at .05 level = .16

Factor Analysis

In order to identify the correlates of burnout in a more parsimonious manner, the method of Principal Component factor analysis was used. Six factors emerged with Eigen value greater than one. These six factors explain 64.54 percent of the total variance. The obtain factors are presented in Table 3.

Factor 1: Occupational Stress and Emotional Exhaustion

This factor is identified as occupational stress and emotional exhaustion. The central theme of this factor reveals that work overload, conscientiousness, role conflict, strenuous working conditions, role ambiguity and unprofitability lead to stress and emotional exhaustion among police officers.Work overload leads to excessive demands on the police officers' individual time, as well as incompatible job demands, lack of clarity on the job, hazardous working conditions and lack of personal gains induce negative emotional reactions due to perceived inability to be effective on the job. Several studies have confirmed the detrimental effects of work overload (Narayanan et al, 1999) role ambiguity and role conflict (O'Driscoll and Beehr, 1994) on the psychological and physical well being of the employees.

Factor II: Psychological Burnout

The structure of this factor mainly determines the conceptual nature of burnout. Emotional exhaustion, lack of personal accomplishment and depersonalization are the three basic dimensions of burnout as described by Maslach(1986).

Factor III: Poor Social Relationship and Impoverishment.

The pattern of this factor structure clearly indicates that inspite of the moderate job clarity, poor interpersonal relations at the place of work, and strenuous job conditions produce negative emotional consequences such as reduced self efficacy, feelings of uncertainty and low sense of competence. Cooper et al (2001) have also reported similar findings.

Factor IV: Low Status and Powerlessness

The fourth factor is identified as low status and powerlessness. The nature of the factor structure implies that police officers of the lower ranks perceive that they do not have adequate information to perform their roles effectively, they consider themselves as powerless and suffer from feelings of worthlessness and impoverishment. These negative effects result in occupational stress and emotional disturbance in the police officials. Anion (2006) is of the view that police officials are generally more conservative with regard to the introduction of new ideas, development of better work methods and taking initiative. The ambiguity of police objectives at the unit level is linked to stress and burnout.

Factor V: Under participation

The fifth factor extracted is identified as under participation. The significant loadings on age and under participation reveal that young police officers develop a feeling of under participation or lack of participation in the decision making process and communication. Increased opportunity to participate, on the other hand, has been associated with greater overall job satisfaction and higher levels of affective commitment to the organization and an increased sense of well being. Evidence for the effects of participation on job performance is presented by Wagner, (1994) and Wagner et al (1997).

Factor VI: Lack of Personal Accomplishment v/s Career Progress

This factor comprises of three variables. The theme of this factor focuses on lack of personal accomplishment and career progress which suggests that the highly educated police officers at the lower ranks develop a poor sense of achievement and accomplishment and consequently their career progress due to lack of promotion opportunities. Rabinowitz et al, 1983 provide evidence that perceived lack of promotion opportunities and lack of progress in one's career is a primary source of job dissatisfaction.

In addition to the above statistical results, the self report data further reveals that these officers have several health problems. As reported 40 percent of them are suffering from hypertension, 25 percent have diabetes, 24.3 percent suffer from migraine, 7 percent from cervical pain, 28 percent have back pain and 67 percent are overweight and most of these officers belong to the high burnout group.

Table 3: Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings (N=150)

S.NO	VARIABLES	FACTORS						h^2
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	
1	Emotional exhaustion	.30	.75	-	-	-		.69
2	Depersonalization	-	.69	-	-	-		.54
3	Lack of personal accomplishment	-	.48	-	-	-	.51	.57
4	Burnout	-	.97	-	-	-		.98
5	Role overload	.83	-	-	-	-		.72
6	Role ambiguity	.40	-	-.43	.49	-		.60
7	Role conflict	.69	-	-	-	-		.58
8	Unreasonable group	-	-	-	-	-		.67
9	Responsibility for persons	.77	-	-	-	-		.63
10	Under participation	-	-	.29	-	.62		.67
11	Powerlessness	-	-	-	.62	-		.49
12	Poor peer relations	-	-	.73	-	-		.57
13	Intrinsic impoverishment	-	-	.71	.38	-		.68
14	Low status	-	-	-	.82	-		.74
15	Strenuous working conditions	.47	-	.65	-	-		.66
16	Unprofitability	.56	-	-	-	-		.42
17	Occupational stress	.84	-	.36	.35	-		.99
18	Designation	-	-	-	-	-	-.72	.60
19	Age	-	-	-	-	-.87		.78
20	Education	-	-	-	-	-	.48	.32
%age of variance		4.07%	11.37%	10.26%	7.42%	6.24%	5.24%	
Cumulative %age		24.07%	35.39%	45.65%	53.07%	59.31%	64.54%	

Conclusion

From the above findings it is evident that that occupational stress results in emotional exhaustion, lack of personal accomplishment and overall psychological burnout among the police officers. The police officers perceive that the role they perform is at times in conflict with their personal, professional and societal values. Heavy workload along with group and political pressures, incompatible demands and lack of clarity on the job induce negative emotional reactions due to perceived inability to be effective on the job. These officers have high expectations from their job and when they are unable to utilize and express their potential they develop feelings of under participation and impoverishment. Further perceived lack of progress among these officers also results in poor sense of achievement and accomplishment. Finally the strenuous working conditions of police officers have the potential to be psychologically and physically harmful such as physical threat, violence, and exposure to danger, crime and facing the unknown. The hazardous nature of the job keeps these officials in a constant state of arousal and ready to act, which is harmful for the physical

and psychological well-being of the individual. In view of the above findings it may be said that there is a need to improve to some extent quality of work life of the police officials especially in terms of safe and healthy work environment, constitutionalism, adequate and fair compensation, social integration, development of human capacities, career growth and security and provide them with total life space.

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Achievement Motivation of Older People

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Abstract

Brazil, as many other countries, has undergone changes in its demography. It is estimated that by 2050 the Brazilian population will be distributed as developed countries today. These changes impact society, especially in the social and economic fields. It is important to value transmission of experience and knowledge (social capital) of this contingent. In the personal level, many reasons determine the continuity of activities after retirement: need to raise income, sometimes due to family needs; to preserve self-esteem; to feel socially well; to participate in public policies and decisions… This research, in partnership with the most prestigious human resources association in Brazil, aims to analyze the structure of the field of achievement motivation (entrepreneurial orientation) of older people age, in order to profile this population.

Introduction

The possibility of having happiness generated by performing professional activities is a theme in evidence due to its positives results both for individuals and organizations, according to great number of studies. Several social expressions attribute positive value to work, worker, success in career and success due to goals related to work. Nowadays the imposition to absorb new technologies affected organizations causing closing activities, acquisitions, fusions and mergers and downsizing and among consequences are demissions and transference of activities to nations with lower costs of human resources, taxations and other legal impacts. This crisis combined to lack of opportunities affect young people, senior workers and even more qualified professionals. The change in economics pushes a large contingent of workers or potential workers to informal economics or instable ties with organizations. The relationship individual-society when in favorable conditions of regularity and relative stability, wages and dignity, correspond to several needs: survival, self-realization, self-esteem, attends society expectations, coping defies etc, giving origin to positive sentiments and feelings with opportunity to individual's development and actualizing potential. It is through motivation that an individual overcome difficulties and acquires persistence to achieve one's goals. So work has intrinsic and extrinsic aspects, with different meanings, according to one's involvement. The incentive to entrepreneurial orientation represents an opportunity to a new start for retired people and this moment can be amplified with social impact when a retired individual is associated or in partnership with others in any kind of activity performed, independent if formal or informal. A retired individual through out a professional career developed abilities and skills, acquired experience with insertion in social nets. These conditions may be used and altogether with other individuals create a synergy favorable to individual development both in personal as in social levels. The social capital represented by retired people it is more significant in countries with lack of efficiency in

education and defficient geographical distribution of high qualified human resources. Properly incentives must be objective of public policies or local actions, private or public or by non-governmental agencies, for multiple positive aspects can be reached in a win-win game. This is a new world that must be faced with new and defying solutions.

Defining achievement motivation

The formal definition of achievement motivation (Elizur, 1979, 1986; Sagie, 1994;) specifies the following three domains - Facets: Behavioral modality, Type of personal confrontation and Time perspective.

Facet A: Behavioral modality

Although achievement motivation is particularly related to instrumental aspects of behavior, feelings (affective aspects) and preferences (cognitive aspects) are also relevant to one's achievement tendencies.

Facet B: Type of personal confrontation

Some aspects of achievement motivation emphasize the readiness of a person to confront oneself with challenge and to cope with it, such as coping difficulties versus easy tasks, accepting personal responsibility versus shared responsibility and coping uncertainty. Other items emphasize the readiness to consider aspects of the situation and match answers to challenges, calculating risk, problem solving and fulfilling needs.

Facet C: Time perspective

The third classification of achievement items concerns to time perspective relative to task performance. Certain aspects of performance are relevant mainly before the task is performed, such as uncertainty and calculating risks. During task performance the focus on effort is in coping difficulties and problem solving, facing personal responsibility and satisfying the need are primarily related to the after performance.

Combining the Behavioral modality with elements of the two facets specific to achievement motivation, Facet B (Type of personal confrontation) and Facet C (Time perspective), seven components are distinguished: facing uncertainty, difficulties, personal responsibility, calculated risk, problem solving, competitiveness and perfectionism.

Methodology

It was used Sagie's Decision Making Questionnaire (1994) – 21 situational questions, in a Likert scale, adapted by Tchaicovsky (2002), based on Facet Theory (Tchaicovsky & Elizur, 2002). The questionnaire takes into account seven components: coping uncertainty; coping difficulties; personal responsibility; tasks with calculated risk; problem solving; competitiveness; the search for perfectionism. Data were collected from groups with retired

and non-retired persons, having 50 years or above. The groups combine three conditions: retirement, performing or not activities, activities being paid or not. The groups were: A - retired who opted for not practicing any professional activity with or without remuneration; B - retired but working in cultural or volunteer activity without remuneration; C – retired but still working in professional activity for pleasure; D – retired but working due to expenses higher than income; E – retired that decided to live a more comfortable life; and, F – retired but still working because it is important to self-realization.

Results

Table 1 shows the characteristics of the respondents according to gender, educational level, experience and people supervision(an.1).

The results are shown in tables 2 and 3 (an. 2).

Discussion

The components of achievement motivation are lower in group B (retired but working in cultural or volunteer activity without remuneration) and higher but not significantly in group C (retired but still working in professional activity for pleasure) and group E (retired that decided to live a more comfortable life). It must be appointed, however, that these is a preliminary data due to small sample, but with a larger sample it is expected more significant indications.

An.1 - Table 1- Demographic data

Gender:
Female: 52%
Male: 48%

Educational level: %
Elementary school 10
High school 52
College 19
Universitary degree 19

Professional activities performed (multiple answers) %
Autonomous 08
Public service 40
Private organizations 64
Informal economy 04

Employees supervised - %
4 - 10 employees 43
11 - 20 employees 29
21 - 50 employees 05
More than 50 employees 23

Retired - %
Yes 78
No 22

An. 2

Table 2

	Percentage of two positive response Group						
	T*	A	B	C	D	E	F
Uncertainty	31	32	14	35	34	34	27
Difficulties	49	46	48	51	40	53	45
Personal responsibility	21	17	14	27	24	20	18
Calculated risk	21	22	10	31	22	18	20
Problem solving	15	9	10	4	24	10	13
Competitiveness	37	36	31	32	29	35	36
Perfectionism	43	46	32	47	53	48	40
N	129	22	16	15	17	20	34

T* - total of respondents

Table 3

	Percentage of two negative response Group						
	T*	A	B	C	D	E	F
Uncertainty	47	35	58	48	43	48	52
Difficulties	38	38	24	35	28	38	36
Personal responsibility	51	60	43	51	47	60	46
Calculated risk	65	62	72	51	59	65	68
Problem solving	79	72	77	74	69	84	75
Competitiveness	55	54	62	00	65	50	56
Perfectionism	43	43	45	40	38	43	47
N	129	22	16	15	17	20	34

T* - total of respondents

Groups

A - retired who opted for not practicing any professional activity with or without remuneration;

B - retired but working in cultural or volunteer activity without remuneration;

C – retired still working in professional activity for pleasure;

D –retired but working due to expenses higher than income;

E – retired that decided to live a more comfortable life; and,

F – retired but still working because it is important to self-realization.

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ICB From an Evolutionary Perspective: How Gender Affects Motivation to Perform ICBs and How Motivation Influences Choice of Target

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Abstract

Interpersonal citizenship behaviors (ICB) research has focused mainly on the performer of ICB. The present paper suggests that some recipient attributes affect ICB performance such that differences in performers' motivations may be reflected in their choice of recipients. Costly signaling theory is suggested here as an explanation for helping in the organizational context, as suggested by Deutsch Salamon & Deutsch (2006). Using this framework to explain gender differences dictates that men signal their resources (namely status) and women signal their prosocial virtues (namely communality; Griskevicius, et al., 2007). We also believe this gender difference to be more substantial among individuals holding a more traditional gender role. If the motivation is to signal status, targets of help will more likely be of higher status. If, on the other hand, the motivation is to signal communality or benevolence, targets of help could be coworkers of any status rank, and their neediness may be the relevant factor for performers' decision whether or not to help. In addition to performer and target variables, situational variables are included as part of a prediction model of ICB, namely, observability of ICB and presence of mating cues, which are relevant to costly signaling theory and have been shown relevant in social psychology research of helping behavior.

Introduction

For several decades already, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has been viewed as a two-dimensional construct. Williams & Anderson (1991) suggested that OCB is comprised of OCBO (organizationally focused), behaviors targeting the organization as a whole, and OCBI (individually focused), behaviors directed at a coworker and largely involving work related topics. The latter is also referred to as interpersonal citizenship behaviors (ICB). These two components differ and previous studies have identified distinct correlates associated with each dimension (Bowler & Brass, 2006; Williams & Anderson, 1991). This paper suggests a framework that includes characteristics associated with the recipient, as well as the performer, of ICB. As only ICB (but not OCBO) has a specific target, the presentation here extends solely to ICB. ICB greatly resembles helping in the organizational context, but while helping behavior literature mainly describes one-shot events as occurs when someone helps a stranger, and is determined, to a large extent, by mood (Carlson, Charlin & Miller, 1988), ICB is patterned and involves a more ongoing relationship between coworkers. Thus, cognitions and beliefs play a much greater role in ICB than they do in the usual helping behavior as seen in social psychological research (Organ, 1988; 2008, Personal communication). Costly signaling theory, borrowed from the field of evolutionary psychology, will be applied as a possible mechanism for explaining the performer's patterned choice of target in ICB.

Many investigators have tried to distinguish between workers who are likely to perform OCB from those who are not. Findings show that both personal and situational variables are involved. For example, OCB performers are more conscientious, show greater job satisfaction, are given satisfying tasks, believe they are treated fairly, are supervised by supportive or transformational leaders, score high on organizational commitment scales, and express a responsibility/link to their jobs or organizations (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Pearce & Gregersen, 1991; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Different motivations have been proposed to explain OCB including performer's need to influence the impressions others have of the performer (Bolino, 1999) as well as promoting the welfare of others (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). However, research concerning characteristics associated with the recipients or targets of ICB is more limited. One recent study that addressed the question of the identity of ICB recipients examined reasons why coworkers help low performers (Jackson & LePine, 2003). In another study, Bowler and Brass (2006) suggested a social network perspective to explain why ICB recipients are likely to be either friends of the performer, a socially influential worker "worth" helping, or a relationally influential individual. This paper takes a somewhat different perspective by suggesting underlying needs to explain the preference of one recipient over another. In other words, among different types of ICB targets, who will the worker choose to help and what determines the choice?

Evolutionary psychology and helping behavior

In trying to explain altruistic behavior, traditional social theorists focus on the intentions of the altruist, what he/she is likely to gain and which specific situational factors increase or decrease the probability of an altruistic event. In contrast, evolutionary theorists explain altruism by focusing on the origins and ultimate function of the behavior (MacAndrew, 2002). They provide a way for understanding what motivates people to help others even if the gain to the altruist seems, on the surface, to be unclear. This is important as it tries to cope with the problem of why we help others who will probably never be able to reciprocate these favors. Costly signaling theory provides an evolutionary perspective into observed behaviors in a nonreciprocal situation (Grafen, 1990; Griskevicius et al., 2007; Zahavi, 1975). This formulation as derived from the handicap principle suggests that individuals often engage in behaviors that are costly in terms of resources, energy or risk, as a way of signaling to others useful information about themselves (Bliege Bird & Smith, 2005).

The archetypal example of a costly signal is the peacock’s tail. The size of the tail (among other tail qualities) provides an honest signal to a potential mate of the quality of the peacock’s genes. A high-quality tail is costly to have, because it takes much energy and resources to grow and maintain such an ornament, which is in fact useless and even disadvantageous in other aspects of the peacock’s life. The high-quality tail is an honest signal of good genes because only peacocks who are in good health and who have good survival traits can afford to “waste” their resources on growing and maintaining this costly signal, and so, the bigger the tail, the more potential mates will become interested (Miller, 2000, p63-64).

Although the idea that many human behaviors (e.g. squandering money on status symbols such as an expensive car, or altruistic behavior) can be explained using the handicap principle was actually suggested early in the development of costly signaling theory (Zahavi, 1975), only recently has the connection been made between the biological theory of costly signaling and the economic theory of conspicuous consumption. This connection signaled a change of

thinking in psychology (Miller, 2000). According to a costly signaling perspective, “public philanthropy might be a conspicuous display of resources and generosity that signals an individual’s ability to incur costs by sacrificing – or even wasting – money and time” (Griskevicius et al., 2007). Such philanthropic displays may serve to increase the signaler’s status and prestige, which may ultimately result in selective benefits such as an increase in the signaler’s ability to attract and retain desirable mates (Boone, 1998). For a behavior to qualify as a costly signal, it must meet four criteria (Griskevicius, et al., 2007). First, it must be costly to the signaler in terms of economic resources, time, energy, risk, or some other significant domain. If the signal is not costly enough, it is not an honest indicator. Second, it must be easily observable by others. Third, the display must ultimately increase signaler's status so that the signaler will gain increased ability to attract desirable mates. Finally, the signal must be an indicator to potential mates of some important trait or characteristic, such as access to resources, prosocial orientation, courage, health, or intelligence (Zahavi, 1975).

Public acts of philanthropy clearly meet the first three criteria: They are costly, observable (not just by the recipient of the philanthropic act), and produce an increase in prestige that attracts potentially desirable mates. However, conspicuous generosity can signal multiple traits about the philanthropist – and, just as important, which traits are displayed may be dependent, to a large extent, on whether the signaler is a man or a woman. A public act of philanthropy can signal at least two clusters of important characteristics about a person: First, it can signal that an individual has resources or is capable of procuring them (Boone, 1998); second, it can signal that an individual has a prosocial personality, meaning that a person is kind, sympathetic, and helpful (Miller, 2007). Although both resource-related and prosocial traits are generally desirable in a romantic partner, their relative desirability may be a function of gender. If so, men and women may differentially resort to displaying one or perhaps both traits when motivated to attract a mate. Griskevicius, et al. (2007) found that men and women used strategic self-presentations that were gender specific and consistent with costly signaling theory – men signaled their resources while women signaled their prosocial virtues. It goes without saying that this gender difference does not denote that men spend all the money and women provide all the help, but rather that men are more likely to signal their resources (namely status) and women to signal their prosocial virtues (namely communality).

Deutsch Salamon & Deutsch (2006) used the handicap principle to demonstrate how organizational members credibly signal their capabilities by bearing the burden associated with performing costly OCB’s. Accordingly, workers are often requested to do tasks that will not differentiate them from other workers. Those who wish to stand out engage in costly OCB’s which signal their superior qualities. In a sense, signaling one’s superior qualities is a form of impression management, which complements Bolino’s (1999) work on impression management as a motivation to perform OCB’s. In Grant and Mayer's words (2009) – impression management encourages "employees to express citizenship in ways that both “do good” and “look good".

To summarize, when explaining helping behavior using costly signaling theory, a person is willing to help if four criteria are fulfilled: helping is costly, helping is visible, helping increases one’s prestige, and helping is relevant to an important trait or characteristic that is desirable to potential mates. There are gender differences in what is considered desirable in a mate and even when the same behavior is evident (i.e., helping behavior) it is possible that men provide help in order to signal their resources while women provide help in order to signal their prosocial nature. This difference may affect the choice of target for helping.

Characteristics of helping behavior targets

Two characteristics that have been investigated extensively in the area of helping behavior and have particular relevance for the I/O situation are neediness and status of the target. *Neediness* of the target has been referred to in several studies and findings support the notion that we help needy people more. Wilke and Lanzetta (1982) found that people help more if the target is dependent on the helper. Several studies show that individuals help more if the needy person was not responsible for his plight (see review in Farwell & Weiner, 2000). The gap was smaller among liberals than among conservatives, meaning liberals helped needy persons responsible for their plight more than conservatives did (Farwell & Weiner, 2000). Contrary to these findings, Sharma and Kaur (2001) found that people choose to help productive persons rather than needy ones. Van der Vegt, Bunderson, and Oosterhof (2006) depict a similar phenomenon showing that those who need help the most (but are low in status) end up getting the least help. *Status* is defined as the achieved or ascribed rank a person holds in some rank-ordering relative to one's peers (Midlarsky & Midlarsky, 1973). It is commonly assumed that offering to help increases one's status among members of one's community (Penner et al., 2005). Status of the target was investigated in several different contexts, and a positive correlation was discovered between the status of the target and the magnitude of help they receive – higher status people received help in more occasions and the help they received was more substantial (for review see, Pandey, 1979). Several studies have found that many people help more if the target is of high social status (Panchanathan & Boyd, 2004; Seinen and Schram, 2004). Helping relations can also be considered as power relations (Nadler & Halabi, 2006) implying that the helper establishes his/her superior resources over a target who is in need of help. In this sense, helping a target of higher status contributes more to the helper's own status than helping a low status target.

Because there is a dearth of research on the ICB target in I/O psychology, the current paper suggests target characteristics that have been found to be significant in general context of helping behavior (i.e. status and neediness) to categorize ICB recipients and explain performer preference of one target over the other. It is imperative to note that status and neediness are interdependent and persons of high status are often less needy. This presents a challenge for testing in non-controlled environments.

Gender and ICB performance

According to essentialist theories men are portrayed as more competitive, independent, aggressive, and ambitious whereas women are altruistic, empathetic, sociable, cooperative, and supportive (Bem, 1993). The traits associated with men focus on the individual's drive for success whereas women are more communal (Eagly & Mladinic, 1989; Heilman, 2001). In the helping behavior literature, there is no clear answer to the question of who helps more-men or women. However, there are some distinct gender differences in the type of help that is provided. Men provide help that is "heroic" while women focus on nurturing help. This difference is reflected in the target that is helped: Heroic help is often extended toward strangers while nurturing is usually part of a close relationship (Eagly & Crowley, 1986).

In OCB research, there is some supporting evidence that women perform more ICB than men, but results are not consistent (Allen, 2006; Kidder, 2002) and further research in the area is warranted. Although performance of OCB and performance evaluation are positively correlated for both men and women, Lovell, et al. (1999) discovered that while women are

perceived as performing more OCB they do not receive higher performance appraisal. Heilman and Chen (2005) found that women are expected to perform ICB and are penalized when they fail to do so, while men are not expected to perform ICB and are highly rewarded when they do. The explanation offered by Heilman and Chen stems from the notion that serving in a helper role is central to the female gender stereotype. Moreover, it is commonly assumed that gender stereotypes not only affect the actions of women themselves, but also create expectations from others as to how women should behave (Heilman & Chen, 2005). If, indeed, this is the case, people may be driven more to act according to their perception of the proper conduct expected from their gender than by their actual gender. Such a perspective relies on gender role theory to explain behaviors. This behavioral pattern can also be explained using the handicap principle- where one signals his or her good quality (consistent with the gender role) and are considered "better" than when displaying behaviors that signal less desirable traits (traits not consistent with the gender role). Furthermore, according to Judd et al's (2005) study, signaling power would also appear to send a message of low benevolence and vice versa, hence signaling traits that are not consistent with one's gender role may imply that one is low on the essential trait.

Schwarzwald, Koslowsky and Ben Izhak-Nir (in preparation) found that when using a conservative/liberal gender role ideology, conservative couples expressed more dissatisfaction than liberal ones when behaviors differed from accepted social norms. In the same vein, we expect that conservative women, who are driven to act in accordance with their typical gender role, will prioritize benevolence and thus help any target without regard to the targets' status or productiveness. In contrast, conservative men driven to act in accordance with their typical gender role, will more likely prioritize power and thus help high status targets. Liberal men and women should not differ in their motivation to perform ICB, nor should their choice of target differ.

Below we introduce two situational moderators, observability and existence of a mating motive as part of the model.

Situational Variables and ICB

Observability of ICB. Situational variables, or circumstances that are not constant and not associated with the individual, per se, may also play a role in understanding the process leading to ICB. For example, observability of ICB is crucial to the costly signaling theory (Griskevicius, et al., 2007; McAndrew 2002). Since the work environment usually includes a continuous group of people it is reasonable to assume that performing ICB is usually observable to some extent. However, in accordance with costly signaling theory, if a signal is observable by many others, it will have a greater impact than when it is observable by only a few others. We expect that for both men and women more ICB will be performed when ICB is more observable.

Mating motive. Different social cues can activate specific goal states that can affect behavior (see Griskevicius, et al., 2007). In the same vein, mating cues can activate a mating goal, which will initiate a cascade of functional perceptions, cognitions, and behaviors associated with mating success (Griskevicius, Goldstein, Mortensen, Cialdini, et al., 2006). For both men and women, romantic motives trigger highly strategic self-presentations that are gender specific and consistent with costly signaling theory. Although the pattern obtained for helping behavior is

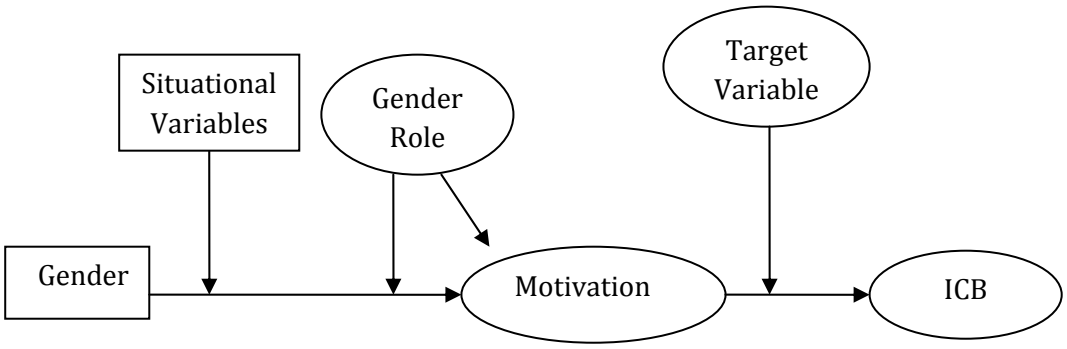
not affected by the presence or absence of romantic cues, the observed association is reduced when the pair of people involved is not in a romantic context (Griskevicius, et al., 2007).

We therefore reason that if helping behavior is a costly signal that can facilitate attracting a mate, cues that prime romantic motives should increase people's inclination to engage in helping. Hence, we can expect that, in situations where workers have a mating or romantic context, the effect of gender on ICB will be enhanced.

Concluding remarks

Figure 1 describes the proposed model of this paper. The model incorporates performer and target attributes as well as situational factors for explaining ICB. Besides the relatively new application of costly signaling theory, researchers, till now, have not considered the target as an essential element in understanding the OCB process. As is often the case with a new approach, the theory outlined here probably raises as many questions as it answers. Only by conducting a systematic program of research will it be possible to see which parts of the theory actually help in predicting helping behavior in an organizational framework.

Figure 1. An evolutionary perspective of ICB model.



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Gender Differences in Work: New Horizons?

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Abstract

In recent years the jobs of women and men have become more similar. Men are less focused on work solely, so it is to be expected that the gender differences in work attitudes will be reduced. We conducted an empirical study in Israel to analyze the impact of gender on work attitudes and work characteristics. Subjects were 2666 employees.

The findings reveal that gender has considerable influence on some work attitudes and work characteristics. Women attached higher importance to job security, flexible work hours and interrelationships with superiors. Huge differences were found in the following work characteristics: wage, number of work hours, role seniority, and number of subordinates. The study also found that some traditional stereotype of gender roles still prevails.

Introduction

Work plays an important role in the life of women and men in the modern world. The past several decades resulted in notable changes in women's labor force activities. Women's participation in the labor force significantly increased, particularly among women with children. More women work full time and year round than in past decades. Women's earnings as a proportion of men's earnings have grown over time from 62% in 1979 to 80% in 2008 among full time workers in the U.S. (Solis, & Hall, 2009).

According to the Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics, in 1960, women accounted for 25.6% of total employed and reached 46.7% in 2008, compared to a 50.6% female share of the total Israeli population. The average weekly work hours per woman in 2008 were 30.8, as compared to 41.4 per men.

Even in the 21st century, women face many challenges. Many national cultures discriminate against women in the work environment. Women are constrained by obsolete organizational cultures and norms. Women are limited by attitudes and policies within the global management subculture, so female managers remain a rarity (Harris, Moran, & Moran, 2004).

Studies examining the differences in work values between men and women show inconsistent results. With respect to work centrality (the relative importance attached to work in life), most studies show that women are less work-centered than men. Several studies found that women are less committed to the organization than men and others didn't found gender differences.

Two theories explain gender differences regarding work values: Socialization theory emphasizes the learning of culturally defined gender roles. Gender socialization refers to the learning of behavior and attitudes considered appropriate for a given sex. Women are taught to express their emotions more openly and to be more passive, whereas men are taught to approach situations in a more active, problem-focused, and instrumental manner (Folkman &

Lazarus, 1980; Macoby & Jacklin, 1983). Therefore, socialization theory states that, traditionally, women fulfill multiple roles (home, childcare, and work) while men are solely responsible for their work (Major, 1993). Thus, a woman has to divide her attention to several life dimensions and the work is less central in her life. The conclusion from this theory: women will attribute lower values to work than men.

Role Constraint theory (Rosario, Shinn, Morch, & Huckabee, 1988) claims that the differences result from situational factors and may be explained by gender differences in the likelihood of occupying particular social roles and the differential constraints that accompany role occupancy for women and men. Women generally have lower level jobs, lower salaries, as well as jobs demanding less work centrality than men. For example, a study found that men have higher organizational commitment than women, but when both men and women have similar jobs the difference disappears.

Thus, socialization theory would predict that gender differences would be found across situations and social roles, whereas role constraint theory would predict that if individuals occupy the same social role, gender differences would disappear (Sigmon, Stanton, & Snyder, 1995).

In recent years women have increased their education level and have occupied higher job levels. Therefore, the jobs of women and men are more similar and it is expected that the gender differences in work attitudes will be reduced. Men are also less focused on work solely and spend more time with their families. Therefore, some claim that nowadays, the work values of men and women are similar.

A stereotype is a commonly held public belief about specific social groups, or types of individuals. Stereotypes are standardized and simplified conceptions of groups, based on some prior assumptions. One of the purposes of this study is to examine if the gender stereotypes are still valid among both sexes.

Psychological contract theory (Rousseau, 1998) suggests that women and those with family responsibilities may negotiate new psychological contracts that include family-responsive benefits such as flexible work hours. Scandura & Lankau (1997) found that women who perceived their organizations offered flexible work hours reported higher levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction than women who did not.

Fagan (2002) analyzed work orientation and working time preferences in Britain. He found that work orientations and working-time preferences are related to labor market circumstances for both sexes. Similarity between women and men in the influences of workplace variables coexists with a gender-differentiated effect of household circumstances on the type of work schedules preferred. Women are influenced more than men by childcare and domestic responsibilities. For both sexes, the most popular reform would be increased time sovereignty in the organization of their work schedules.

Presser, Gornick, & Parashar (2008) analyzed gender and nonstandard work hours as reflected in the labor force surveys of 12 European countries. They found high levels of nonstandard work hours, varying by gender and by contract. Women typically work fewer hours than do men in all the countries examined. Men are more likely than women to usually work non-day hours, except for three Nordic countries. Employed women are more likely to work weekends than are employed men, except for two English speaking countries. Work hours for both women and men vary little by whether they have or do not have children.

Method

Sample Characteristics

A total of 2,666 female and male employees participated in the study. They were employed by 11 big business organizations in Israel from all major sectors: industry, commerce, banking, services and telecommunication. The employees represent all positions and ranks in these organizations. The external validity of the sample was confirmed by comparing it to the socio-demographic traits of the total employees in Israel. The sampling method was a stratified sampling, stratums defined by gender. Seventy-three percent of the respondents were female (1,948) and 27% (718) males.

The family status of the participants was: 17% singles, 8% leaving with spouse, 67% married, 1% one parent family, 6% divorced, and 1% widower. Forty five percent of the employees had 12 or less years of education, 15% had 13-14 equivalent years, and 40% had over 15 years of education.

Research Procedure

The respondents were approached at their places of employment.. Instructions were given to the responsible persons of the research in the organizations to select participants randomly in each rank (stratums of ranks). The respondents were asked to complete the questionnaires, to seal the questionnaire in an empty envelope, and put it in a designated box in order to ensure anonymity. All the respondents were informed that the questionnaires would be scanned optically by a computer.

Measures

The following variables were included in the questionnaire:

Working details: Seniority in the organization and in the current job, rank, working hours per week, part/full time job, number of subordinates, history of promotions, and participation in training programs.

Attitudes toward current work place: Importance and satisfaction attached to the following work attributes: job security, salary, promotion opportunities, interest, independence, flexibility in working hours, interrelationship with superiors, and relationships with other employees in the organization.

For these measures the respondents were provided alternatives along an equal-appearing scale ranging 1-5 (1= not very important or not very satisfied, and 5= very important or very satisfied).

The role of working domain in the employee life: Traditional stereotypes about occupational gender roles and family duties. For these items the respondents were provided alternatives along a Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree).

The questionnaire also included the following background data: Gender, age, marital status, children information, education, region of residence, and occupational payments like salary and various benefits.

Data Analysis

The statistical package used in this study was SPSS. First, descriptive statistics and Independent-Samples T Test procedure comparing means for the two samples (defined by gender) were applied in order to find the impact of gender on work attitudes and work characteristics. Then, linear regressions for women and men were performed in order to find the relative impacts of the study variables on the dependent variable: Current job's rank of the employee.

Results

Descriptive Analysis

Table 1 presents the frequencies of some work characteristics by gender.

Table 1: Frequencies of work characteristics for women (N=1,948), and men (N=718)

	Women	Men
Education (years):		
8 years	2%	2%
9-11 years	10%	12%
12 years	37%	21%
13-14 years	14%	19%
15+ years	37%	46%
Main breadwinner	29%	60%
Ranks at work:		
The lowest	37%	19%
The highest	6%	16%
Subordinates:		
None	74%	53%
Salary range(NIS):		
Less than 3000	11%	2%
3000-4000	23%	11%
4001-6000	25%	16%
6001-9000	21%	23%
9001-15000	14%	28%
15001+	6%	20%
Benefits:		
Company car	7%	24%
Expenses	17%	23%
Cellular phone	12%	27%
Part time job	22%	6%
Weekly working hours:		
Less than 11	5%	3%
11-20	3%	3%
21-30	9%	1%
31-43	44%	24%
44+	39%	69%

All the gender differences in this table were found significant at the 0.001 level.

It can be seen that there is a big difference between women and men regarding work related factors: Men have higher education levels, are generally the main breadwinners (60% vs. 29%), have higher ranks at work, have more supervisory roles, earn more, have more benefits, have less part time jobs (6% vs. 22%), and work more hours.

Comparing Means- Independent-Samples T Test

Table 2 presents attitudes toward work by gender.

Table 2: Means of work related attitudes for women (N=1,948), and men (N=718)

	Importance ** attached to:		Satisfaction*** Regarding;	
	women	men	women	men
Salary	4.68	4.64	3.25	3.29
Promotion opportunities	4.38	4.40	3.09	3.14
Job interest	4.70	4.67	3.86*	3.96*
Opportunity of self-development			3.45*	3.61*
Job independence	4.50	4.46	3.71	3.72
Interrelationships with superiors	4.79*	4.65*	4.16	4.11
Job security	4.62*	4.49*	2.61*	2.77*
Flexible work hours	4.06*	3.80*	3.75	3.74

*Means difference significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); ** Scale: 1=not very Important, 5= very important
*** Scale: 1= very much dissatisfied, 5= very satisfied

As table 2 indicates, women attached higher importance to job security, flexible work hours and interrelationships with superiors. No significant gender differences were found regarding the importance of other attributes, particularly importance of appropriate salary. No gender differences were found regarding overall job satisfaction. However in three components, the satisfaction levels of men were higher: The job interest, the opportunity for self development and job security.

Table 2 shows that the employees, both women and men, were relatively satisfied with interrelationships with superiors, job interest, flexible work hours, and job independence. They were relatively less satisfied regarding their salary and promotions opportunities, but their main dissatisfaction was with job security.

Table 3 presents results concerning traditional stereotypes about gender roles and lifestyle.

Table 3:Means for agreement with traditional stereotypes for women (N=1,948), and men (N=718)

Agreement with the statement:***	women	men
A woman should choose an interesting profession regardless of family circumstances	3.82	3.82
A man should choose an interesting profession regardless of family circumstances	3.79*	3.89*
If there is a conflict between the careers of man and woman, the woman should give up her career	1.92**	2.06**
The man should be the main breadwinner of the family	2.18**	2.32*
Women and men with the similar skills have a similar opportunity to be promoted	3.05**	3.39**
Promotions of women are slower due to child raising	3.06**	2.80**
Working women are worse mothers compared to non-working women	1.61**	1.87**
Women are more loyal to their workplace than men	2.37**	1.90**
Technological professions are intended for men	1.89**	2.17**

*Means difference significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **Means difference significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
***Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree)

The results in table 3 show that there is not a mutual agreement about the role of work between women and men. Men still consider themselves the main breadwinner of the family although theoretically they claim that women as well as men should choose interesting professions. However, women believe more strongly that even though they are more loyal to their workplace, they are promoted more slowly because of their traditional role of raising their children.

Linear stepwise regression with rank of job as the dependent variable

Tables 4a and 4b summarizes the linear regressions results for women and men with rank of job as the dependent variable.

Table 4a: Linear regression analysis for the job rank as the dependent variable for women (N=1948)

	Beta	t	Sig.
Working hours	.326	8.352	.000
Education	.176	4.406	.000
Organization seniority	.167	4.278	.000
Satisfaction with acceptance of her/his own ideas	.145	2.797	.005
Stereotype- women are more loyal to their workplace	.121	3.064	.002
Share in house duties	-.106	-2.705	.007
Satisfaction with "own authorities"	-10.1	1.966	.050
Stereotype – man should be the main breadwinner	-.097	-2.409	.016
Importance of job security	-.091	-2.307	.021

Total R^2= 0.262

Table 4b: Linear regression analysis for the job rank as the dependent variable for men (N=718)

	Beta	t	Sig.
Job interest	.233	4.027	.000
Education	.225	3.777	.000
Organization seniority	.209	3.726	.000
Concern of losing the job	-.195	-3.387	.001
Working hours	.159	2.802	.006
Importance of promotion	.158	2.759	.006
Interrelationships with superiors	-.144	-2.418	.016
Stereotype – Women and men with the similar skills have a similar opportunity to be promoted	-.135	-2.309	.022

Total R^2= 0.332

The regressions results show that there are some different variables explaining variations of jobs ranks of women and men. Some variables are the same but have different weights (betas). Working hours is the most significant factor for women, and much less significant for men. Job interest is the most significant factor for men, but is not a significant factor for women.

Discussion

We conducted an empirical study in Israel to analyze the impact of gender on work attitudes and work characteristics. Subjects were 2666 employees of 11 big organizations in Israel, from all major sectors.

The findings reveal that gender has considerable influence on some work attitudes and work characteristics. Women attached higher importance to job security, flexible work hours and interrelationships with superiors. No gender differences were found regarding overall job satisfaction, however in two components, the males' satisfaction was higher: The opportunity for self development and the professional interest in the job. Huge differences were found in the following work characteristics: wage, number of work hours, role seniority, and number of subordinates. The study also found that the traditional stereotype of gender roles still prevails.

Even though, the occupational status of women improved over time, we found that the occupational status of women is still substantially lower than men, as can be seen in previous research in other countries. Women have less senior jobs, less managerial roles, less earnings, and have fewer benefits compared to their male counterparts.

We found that job security and flexible work hours are more important to women than to men. This is the result of the many roles that women usually have outside the workplace: house keeping, childcare, cooking, social responsibilities, etc.

Women are generally less satisfied with the various work components, except for working hours. Men are more satisfied with the job interest, development opportunities, and job security. It is reasonable to assume that women are more ready to compromise with their job seniority, earnings and benefits in return to flexible work hours and the ability to have a part-time job. This willingness to compromise is probably due to the following reasons:

1. Women still perceive themselves as responsible for the childcare in the family.
2. Women have many household roles, thus they have less time to invest in the workplace.
3. The stereotypes that still exist, especially among men.

To summarize: Do we have new horizons for women in the workplace? The answer is: There has been significant progress over time, but there is still much to be done in order to achieve occupational equality between the sexes.

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When the Customer is Attacked: The Role of Emotional Dissonance and Perceived Organizational Support in Preventing Counterproductive Work Behavior!

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Abstract

Given the increased importance of a service-oriented economy, the literature on counterproductive work behavior (CWB) directed toward customers has emerged as a relatively new line of research. We examined the role of customer-related social stressors, emotional dissonance and perceived organizational support in predicting CWB. Data were collected from employees working in customer service roles. Our findings support previous studies in that customer-related social stressors related to emotional dissonance and various types of CWB. In addition, we found that emotional dissonance mediated the relationship between customer-related social stressors and counterproductive work behavior.

Introduction

Traditionally, counterproductive work behavior (CWB) has been referred to behaviors that harm organizations and/or organizational members (Spector & Fox, 2005). As part of this definition, researchers tended to focus on two targets: the organization itself (CWB-O) and members of the organization (CWB-P). With the shift towards a service economy, researchers have been increasingly interested in customers and therefore have begun to focus on customers as the target of CWB (CWB-CC). The customer's perspective is important because even one negative experience with an organization can change a customer's view of the organization. Additionally, customers tend to share negative experiences with others. Given modern technology, this information can spread worldwide quite quickly via the internet. Therefore, given the serious cost of even one instance of CWB-CC, it is important to understand antecedents of this behavior in order to prevent CWB targeted at customers.

In the current study, we focus primarily on antecedents of CWB-CC, but also include measures of CWB-O and CWB-P. We examined expected predictors of CWB (stressors, emotional dissonance, and perceived organizational support) and focused on the mediating role of emotional dissonance.

Customer-Related Social Stressors

In their model, Spector and Fox (2005) found that organizational stressors (e.g., events that trigger stress) lead to negative emotions, which in turn can lead to CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005). Hunter and Penney (2007) extended these findings to the customer service domain by examining customer-related social stressors, or stressors that specifically focused on customers' behavior towards employees (Dormann & Zapf, 2004). Dormann and Zapf's (2004) typology included disproportionate customer expectations, customer verbal

aggression, customers disliked by employees, and ambiguous customer expectations. Hunter and Penney (2007) found that these customer-related social stressors (CSS) related to CWB-CC, CWB-O, and CWB-P. Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses in order to replicate these findings.

H1: CSS will be positively related to CWB-CC, CWB-O, and CWB-P.

Emotional Dissonance

Hunter and Penney (2007) also found evidence that anger mediated the relationship between CSS and CWB-CC. In other words, employees often became angry when encountering customer-related social stressors and anger related to increased instances of CWB-CC. We examined emotional dissonance or the discrepancy between the emotions a person feels and the emotions that they are allowed to display (Zapf, 2002). Emotional dissonance is a common occurrence for customer service employees because as part of their job, they are often required to behave in a helpful and happy fashion even when a customer is being rude or difficult. Hunter and Penney (2007) found that CSS is related to emotional dissonance and in the second hypothesis, we propose replicating this finding.

H2: CSS will be positively related to emotional dissonance.

In order to extend Hunter and Penney's (2007) findings, we propose that emotional dissonance will mediate the relationship between CSS and CWB-CC. When employees encounter stressful interactions with customers, they must remain calm and polite even when the customer is behaving rudely or making unreasonable demands. Over time, this dissonance can build up and lead employees to react to the customers, possibly in the form of CWB-CC. Additionally, employees who experience high levels of dissonance might also take these feelings out on the organization itself, in the form of CWB-O, as well as on other co-workers, in the form of CWB-P.

H3: Emotional dissonance will mediate the relationship between CSS and all three types of CWB (CWB-CC, CWB-P, and CWB-O).

Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

Researchers have suggested the importance of perceived organizational support (POS) (Moorman, Blakely, Niehoff, 1998; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). Perceived organizational support refers to "a general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values general contributions and cares for their well-being" (Eisenberger, et al., 1990: 51). Researchers have found positive relationships between POS and organizational citizenship behavior (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Therefore, POS is often considered a positive variable that leads to performance and satisfaction. However, POS might have unintended negative effects as well. Specifically, according to the psychological contract theory, there is a reciprocal expectation between employees and organizations. When organizations care about their employees and shows high levels of POS, the organization holds its employees to high expectations in return. The organizations may expect its employees to engage in superior employee performance. In the case of customer service workers, this could translate into strong customer service support and performance. As a result, employees may experience increased emotional dissonance. We hypothesize that emotional dissonance will mediate the relationship between POS and CWB. More specifically, customer service workers who do not perceive support from their organization

will be more likely to experience conflicting/incompatible emotions over time (emotional dissonance) and may be more likely to engage in CWB as a result of the dissonance.

H4: Emotional dissonance will mediate the relationship between POS and all three types CWB (CWB-CC, CWB-O, and CWB-P).

Method

Sample and Procedure

We surveyed 128 participants (male =31, female =97). The mean age of the participants was 22.35 years (*SD* = 5.58). All participants were working in service roles and were recruited from classes in an urban university. We asked the participants for their primary job titles and 43% were servers, 23% were bartenders, 18% were cashiers, and the job title for rest of the participants ranged from busser, host/hostess, cook and shift leader. While the majority of respondents were working in the food industry, respondents held a variety of customer service roles. Twenty-four percent of the participants were in managerial positions where they were required to supervise other employees.

Measures

Counterproductive Work Behavior. Two different measures were used to assess CWB. First, CWB-O and CWB-P were measured using Spector et al.'s (2006) Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C). The scale consists of 33 items asking individuals to rate how often they engage in a variety of behaviors (we excluded one item that focused on CWB directed towards clients or customers). Participants responded along a 5-point Likert scale (1 = never, 5 = daily or almost daily). The alpha for the 15-item CWB-O scale was .88 and the alpha for the 17-item CWB-P scale was .96. Additionally, 12 items from Hunter and Penney's (2007) scale were used to measure CWB-CC. Since our sample included employees working in a variety of industries, we eliminated items that only pertained to restaurants. The alpha for the current sample was .87.

Perceived Organizational Support (POS). POS was measured using 8 of the 36 items of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986). Respondents indicated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The alpha for the current sample was.93.

Emotional Dissonance. The Frankfurt Emotion Work Scale Version 4.2 (Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999) measures the display of emotions not actually felt and the suppression of felt emotions. Response choices for four of the items ranged from 1 (very rarely/never) to 5 (very often [several times an hour]). One item used an A versus B format (e.g., "For Person A's job, it is very important to hide from clients any personal feelings which may arise. For Person B's job, it is of lesser significance to hide such feelings from clients. Which one of these two jobs is most similar to yours?"). These responses were on a scale of 1 (exactly like that of A) to 5 (exactly like that of B). The alpha for the current sample was .87.

Customer-Related Social Stressors (CSS). CSS was measured using Dormann and Zapf's (2004) measure. This scale consists of 21 items divided into four dimensions: disproportionate customer expectations, customer verbal aggression, disliked customers, and ambiguous customer expectations. Response choices on all items ranged from 1 (not at all true) to 5 (absolutely true). The alpha for the current sample was.94.

Results

Pearson correlations were used to test our first two hypotheses. As recommended by MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, and Sheets (2002), the Sobel (1982) test was used to examine our mediator hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1 was supported as CSS was positively related to CWB-O (r =.22, p <.05), CWB-P (r =.24, p <.01), and CWB-CC (r =.36, p <.01). Similarly, Hypothesis 2 was also supported as CSS was positively related to emotional dissonance (r =.45, p <.01).

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. CWB-O	-					
2. CWB-P	.75**	-				
3. CWB-CC	.57**	.64**	-			
4. POS	-.18*	-.19*	-.11	-		
5. Emotional Dissonance	.21*	.24**	.44**	-.36**	-	
6. CSS	.22*	.24**	.36**	-.23*	.45**	-
Mean	20.96	23.44	18.88	27.17	12.96	54.78
Standard Deviation	6.33	10.05	7.04	7.21	4.56	16.36

*Notes. ** p < .01; * p < .05*

CWB-P excludes one item that examines behavior towards customers/clients of the organization and instead only contains CWB directed towards members of the organization (e.g., supervisors and co-workers).

Regarding the mediator analyses, Hypothesis 3 was supported. The Sobel tests were statistically significant indicating that emotional dissonance mediated the relationship between CSS and CWB-CC (Z=3.72, p< .01), CWB-O (Z=2.16, p< .05), and CWB-P (Z=2.52, p< .05). However, no support was found for Hypothesis 4 suggesting that emotional dissonance did not mediate the relationship between POS and any type of CWB.

Discussion

Our findings support previous studies in that customer-related social stressors and emotional dissonance were related to CWB. As predicted we found support for the hypothesis that emotional dissonance mediated the relationship between CSS and counterproductive work behavior. This suggests that when employees encountered customer-related social stressors, they were likely to experience emotional dissonance because they could not display their anger or annoyance with the customer. As a result, they were more likely to commit instances of CWB. In particular, it was interesting that emotional dissonance and CSS were more strongly related to CWB-CC than to CWB-O or CWB-P. These findings complement the literature on emotional labor which suggests that front-line service employees often

experience high levels of emotional labor due to the interpersonal interaction required in the nature of the work (Kinman, 2009).

While not conclusive, our findings question the importance of POS in understanding CWB. POS was significantly related to CWB-P and CWB-O, but not to CWB-CC. These correlations, while significant, were quite low in magnitude. In addition, no support was found for the mediating role of emotional dissonance between POS and CWB. Perhaps perceived organizational support is too distal of a variable and therefore does not affect the amount of CWB an employee commits on a daily basis.

Despite this study's contributions, it is not without its limitations. First, we assessed CWB using self-reports. Future research should try to obtain data from customers' perspectives. Second, our data was cross-sectional and consequently reverse causality may be possible. Future research should try to examine the proposed relationships over the long-term in order to rule out reverse causality.

In conclusion, our study suggests that customer-related social stressors can play a central role in the occurrence of CWB. In addition, emotional dissonance might be a central mechanism in explaining the relationship between customer-related social stressors and CWB. An implication of our results is that it might be important for organizations to attempt to reduce and/or alleviate employees' emotional dissonance. Specific things organizations can do are to establish protocols for employees to handle difficult customers and even to allow employees to refuse service to verbally aggressive customers.

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Is Positive Does Positive: A Conclusion or a Question?

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Abstract

It has been proposed that some organizationally relevant positive psychology constructs would be able to explain positive outcomes for organizations. This study tested the presence and extent of relationship between individual's six positive characteristics, his/her superior's perception of these characteristics, and his/her engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Results showed small but significant positive relationship between self report of hope, resilience, SWB and overall OCB report of the superior. But the relationship between positive perception of characteristics of an individual and his or her OCB were strongly positive.

Positive psychology (PP) proposes that a positive approach be taken towards studying people (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), organizations (Cameron, Dutton, Quinn, 2003) and their combinations (Luthans, 2002; 2005). There is often an implicit assumption of a relationship between an individual's positive characteristics and positive outcomes for him or her (e.g., Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). However, there is lack of empirical evidence to support such claims. Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) and job satisfaction (JS) are two often studied positive outcome constructs in organizations having positive linkages on organizational performance (Vandyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995). Despite a lot of research on antecedents of both OCB and JS, there is no clarity about their relationships with positive dispositional characteristics (e.g., Luthans et al., 2007). It is proposed here that test of organizationally relevant positive characteristics in relation to OCB and job satisfaction would highlight the utility of studying such positive constructs and work towards building scientific credence of the claims of positive constructs.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Organ (1977) presented the argument for extra-role helping behaviors in organizations on the grounds of social reciprocity proposed by Gouldner (1960). OCB are defined as, "… individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988, p. 4)." Currently OCB is conceptualized to have seven dimensions - altruism, sportsmanship, loyalty towards organization, civic virtue, individual initiatives, compliance to organization, and self-development (Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006). As this study is exploratory in nature, only first five empirically verified dimensions were used as a strict test.

Studies on OCB antecedents have focused generally on organizational and situational factors such task characteristics, work environment, organizational characteristics and leadership (e.g., Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Such factors have been found to be influenced by individual's positive attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. As dispositions influence attitudes, a few dispositions of individuals may also have some role to play in deciding how one interprets a situation and decides to engage in

OCB (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ, 1990, 1994). Most studies on disposition have limited to using only Big-5 dispositional characteristics suggested by McCrae & Costa (1987) for studying relationship between dispositions with OCB and its dimensions. These characteristics have explained very small and often non-significant variance in OCB, especially when common method variance (CMV) was controlled for (Organ et al., 2006). Relationship for dispositional affectivity and service empathy and their influence on OCB too was weakly positive (Bettencourt, Gwiner, & Meuter, 2001).

This paper argues that the use of Big-5 model of personality itself may be inadequate as the dimensions in Big-5 model have been factorially/statistically derived. Owing to the statistical analysis' tendency to regress towards mean, some interesting psychological phenomena and thematic details could be missed out (Hogan, 1991). Trait constellations rather than complete models such as Big-5 could be a good starting point for studying the influence of dispositional characteristics on behaviors (Hogan, Hogan, & Bursch, 1984). Within Big-5, only two out of the five traits (conscientiousness and agreeableness) are defined and measured in direct positive terms and only these two have positive and significant relationship with OCB. Thus it could be argued that positive psychology traits may be more likely to predict who would engage in OCB even when the situation is held constant.

Choosing positive characteristics

Luthans (2002, 2005) has contributed immensely in culling out a set of organizationally relevant positive dispositions - subjective well-being, optimism, generalized self-efficacy, hope, emotional intelligence, and resilience. This study decided to use this set which is also close to Psycap measure (Luthans & Avolio, 2007). Psycap treats these constructs as state-like, an argument that is more amenable to executive training and measurement. The fact remains that these constructs have been found to be largely dispositional in nature (*for example*, Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998; Scheier & Carver, 1992; Snyder, 2000) that lie at the core of an individual. This paper takes the view that only empirically established constructs be used for an exploratory study. Hence conceptualization was done for their dispositional form, and emotional intelligence was dropped due to lack of empirical validity of the construct. Five dispositional characteristics were pursued with – subjective well being, hope, optimism, resilience, and GSE.

Subjective Well-Being

Subjective well-being (SWB) is an individual's emotional and cognitive interpretation and evaluation of one's own life. The SWB is comprised of satisfaction with own life events from significant others' viewpoint, satisfaction with external but relevant factors (Diener, 1984). It has been found that SWB is largely determined by dispositional characteristics of a person and is stable over time (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998). Meta-analyses of large samples have indicated that SWB is positively related to job satisfaction and influences efforts in attaining a set goal (Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2003). In addition SWB has been found to be related to helping behaviors (Schiff & Bargal, 2000). It is therefore expected that:

Hypothesis 1. There is a positive relationship between subjective well-being of an employee and his or her engagement in OCB.

Generalized Self-efficacy

Generalized self-efficacy (GSE) is understood to be "a belief about oneself in executing some courses of actions to deal with future situations" (Bandura, 1982:122). It can also be defined as "individuals' perception of their ability to perform across a variety of different situations" (Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998, p. 170). This generalized form is a more stable, trait-like form that could be viewed as a dispositional characteristic. Meta analyses have established positive and significant relationship between GSE and task performance, coping with change for self, higher commitment, and job satisfaction (e.g., Erez & Judge, 2001). Given that employees with higher self-efficacy will be confident about completing their tasks, they are less likely to be bothered by minor irritants and thus show sportsmanship, help others, and would show conscientiousness in difficult situations (Dussault, 2006; Speier & Frese, 1997). Therefore,

Hypothesis 2. There is a positive relationship between an individual's generalized self-efficacy and engaging in OCB.

Optimism

Optimism is treated as a global expectation that future holds more of good than bad (Scheier & Carver, 1992). Consequently optimists are people who expect good things to happen to them (Carver & Scheier, 2003). They also persevere more in pursuit of their goals. Optimists are found to perform better and treat personal failures as a temporary phenomenon (Carver & Scheier, 2003; Peterson, 2000). In organizational settings, dispositional optimism has been found to influence coping with change situations, better planning and focus on problems (Scheier, Weintraube, & Carver, 1986), performance and stay in the organization (Seligman, 1998). As organizations undergo continuous change employees who were more optimistic were more open to changes and reported higher job satisfaction, less irritability at work, and stayed for longer period with the same organization than their less optimistic counterparts (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). It is expected that,

Hypothesis 3. There is a positive relationship between an individual's optimism and engaging in OCB.

Hope

Hope has been conceptualized as "the sum of perceived capabilities to produce routes to desired goals, along with the perceived motivation to use those routes (Snyder, 2000: 8)." Thus, a more hopeful individual would be able to find more routes mentally towards desired goals and would also be motivated to tread those routes in order to reach the goals than a less hopeful person. Hope has been helpful in predicting positive outcomes in stressful situations

and has led to increased satisfaction, profitability, and lesser turnover (Peterson & Luthans, 2003). It also moderated the job-burnout (Rodriguez-Hanley & Snyder, 2000) and handling pressure at work (Snyder, 1994). As OCB occur in weak situations, more hopeful employees are more likely to find alternate ways to respond to such situations and be more motivated to follow chosen alternatives. Thus they are more likely show civic virtue and conscientiousness. Ozag (2006) has also reported that hopeful employees showed conscientious behaviors in times of distress. Moreover, hope has been found to be related to job satisfaction (e.g., Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Therefore, it is hypothesized,

Hypothesis 4. There is a positive relationship between hope and engaging in OCB.

Resilience

Resilience could be best understood as the tendency of bouncing back from adverse situations in long and short term (Klohnen, 1996). It is therefore, "a class of phenomena characterized by patterns of positive adaptation in the context of significant adversity or risk" (Masten & Reed, 2002, p. 75). Thus resilient people are more resourceful and adapting to different and difficult situations (Block & Kremen, 1996). In leadership development resilience has been found to be an important trait (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004). It has been related to increasing commitment to leadership, organization, and its growth (McCarthy, 2003). Resilience has been reported to be related to job satisfaction (Luthans et al., 2007). Moreover, the resourcefulness of resilient employees is likely to result in greater sportsmanship, civic virtue, helping (in times of difficulty and/or change) behaviors, showing organizational loyalty and inspiring others to engage in similar behaviors. Therefore,

Hypothesis 5.There is a positive relationship between resilience and engaging in OCB.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the sum of cognitive, affective and evaluative reactions resulting from experiences at work (Locke, 1976), job characteristics, and work environment (Judge & Watanabe, 1993; Shalley, Gilsom, & Blum, 2000). It has been found to be strongly associated with disposition of individuals and job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). However, in a cross-cultural study, US sample showed a significant and positive relation between job satisfaction and generalized self-efficacy, while the South East Asian sample's results were positive but not significant (Luthans, Zhu, & Avolio, 2006). More recently, hopefulness, optimism and resilience have been shown to be positively related to job satisfaction (Luthans et al., 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). It is hypothesized,

H6: *There is a positive relationship between positive characteristics and job satisfaction of an individual.*

Method

Data on OCB and personality characteristics was collected from independent sources to take care of common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Team leaders were primed about OCB and asked to choose individuals who engaged in OCB. They filled OCB reports of subordinates and also marked their perception of the individual's positive characteristic on a pre-coded questionnaire. The individual employees reported their positive characteristics on the other part of the code-matched questionnaire. A total of 334 usable responses belonging to 81 teams were collected from 26 different organizations representing various industries. 75.8% respondents were male, mean age 31.8 years and mean work experience of 108 months out of which average 52 months were spent in the current organization.

Previously validated positive worded scales were used in this study. OCB was measured using the scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). Satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) was used for measuring SWB (Diener, Emmons, Larson, & Griffin, 1985); LOTS-R for optimism (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994), Adult dispositional hope scale for hope (Snyder et al., 1991), new generalized self-efficacy scale for GSE (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001); resilience was measured using 14-item Ego Resiliency Scale (ER-89, Block & Kremen, 1996); and job satisfaction was measured using Job Satisfaction Index (Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). All scales had acceptable properties that were confirmed by a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). OCB were rated on a 6-point scale and the positive characteristics were rated on an 11-point scale. The data was fit for analysis using regression techniques.

Results

Characteristic, job satisfaction and independent OCB rating

The results showed that overall OCB was positively and significantly related to SWB (r = .143, p<.05), hopefulness (r = .129, p<.05), and resilience (r = .119, p<.05) of an individual. The variance explained in overall OCB by SWB, hope, and resilience was small but significant; thus supporting hypotheses 1, 4, and 5. GSE and optimism showed positive but non-significant relationship with engagement in overall OCB, i.e. hypothesis 2 and 3 were not supported.

Among different dimensions of OCB, only hopefulness and resilience of an individual were positively and significantly related to altruistic behaviors with r being .139 (p<.05) .132 (p<.05) respectively.SWB of an individual showed positive and significant relationship with sportsmanship behaviors (r = .130, p<.05). The conscientiousness and courtesy dimensions of OCB did not show noticeable or significant relationship with any of the positive characteristics. Civic virtue showed comparatively stronger positive relationships with all five positive characteristics. All relationships except for optimism were significant at p<.01, The results therefore indicated stronger relationship of positive characteristics and civic virtue.

All five positive characteristics showed positive and significant relationship with job satisfaction with correlation varying between .299 for optimism and .474 for SWB (p<.01), thus supporting hypothesis 6.

Superior's perception of positive characteristics and OCB

There was a strong positive and significant relationship between all OCB dimensions perceived positive characteristics (Table 1). From the results it was clear that there was a stronger relationship between a superior's rating of OCB and his or her perception of a subordinate's positive characteristic. This was true for both overall OCB and various dimensions. Civic Virtue seemed to have least association with positive characteristics.

Table 1. Superior perception ($p < .001$)

N=334	OCB	Altru	Consc	Crtsy	CVirt	Sport'p
SWB	.653	.543	.595	.566	.402	.629
GSE	.655	.600	.575	.522	.531	.533
Opti	.672	.599	.567	.567	.474	.614
Hope	.653	.561	.555	.546	.479	.604
Resili	.667	.593	.597	.553	.503	.558

Discussion

The findings of this study provide empirical support to speculations and propositions about positive characteristics' relationship with positive behaviors, and to implicit conceptual assumption of a positive relationship of hopefulness and resilience of an employee with engagement in OCB (Luthans et al., 2007). The relationship was positive and significant even after controlling for CMV by research design and in the range of strongest correlate in Big-5 model. A low explained variance is quite common in personality traits- organizational behaviors linkage as personality is more likely to influence the motive that would in turn influence behavior (Organ & McFall, 2004). Helping behaviors seem to be adding up to resource of an individual in both hopefulness and resilience. They also demonstrate the need to be "positive" (hopeful and adaptive) in tough (weak) situations. SWB and sportsmanship relationship makes it clear that contented people take irritants and errands in their stride. From the results of this study it can be said that generally satisfied, self-confident, forward looking, hopeful and adaptable people showed a tendency to take pride in their organization's governance. Therefore, the attitude towards organizational systems is positive in people with positive characteristics and this positivity is reflected in their behaviors in the workplace.

GSE and SWB relationship with job satisfaction in this sample was relatively higher than that reported in American and other Asian samples. It is quite likely that the Indian value emphasis on feeling content with whatever one has could have led to a general higher level satisfaction with the job. Relationship between various positive characteristics and job satisfaction established a positive linkage between positive dispositions and positive attitudes.

The findings and the strength for superiors' perception indicate that it is difficult to delineate whether a positive person does positive behaviors, or a person engaging in positive behaviors is perceived to be positive. The differences in results on controlling for CMV indicate that the behaviors of an individual lead to a halo pattern that is reflected in evaluating an individual. The implications of these findings are therefore vivid and wide-ranging for various interpersonal aspects of jobs in the organization.

Implications, Future Research and Conclusion

Appraisal processes, assigning of discretionary responsibilities, handing over important or crucial managerial tasks, and similar weak situations are likely to go in favor of those who are seen to be engaging in OCB. Such OCB has to be registered with the evaluator, and therefore there is incentive for people to exhibit OCB. There has to be clarity about whose perspective is more important to understand such relationships. Is it the superior's evaluation and therefore, by implication, a subordinate's appraisal? Or, is it all about being self-driven to attain a more positive outcome for inner self and others. There are no clear answers to such questions. The time is ripe to do process studies at two levels. One, at the individual motive or intention for positive behaviors, and two, influence and processing of the social context that results in such behaviors from individuals.

Future studies could be designed to exclusively collect data from people who are high or low on positive characteristics and study their relationships with attitudes like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, or behaviors. It also paves the way for employing holistic designs that study the link between positive dispositions, state of mind, attitudes, and behaviors in organizational context; and therefore aid mid-range theory building.

With the results of this study the arguments against the empirical validity of positive-positive linkage could take a little rest, but it surely is a long way to go. This is just the beginning of the field. Till the point responsibility about the ends or the means is fixed, it would be difficult to surmise if a person is positive and therefore does positive; or is it the other way round.

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For a list of references, you may contact the author of the paper.

Age Diversity: What do Younger and Older Workers in Singapore Think of Each Other?

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Abstract

Our study aimed to examine how younger and older workers in Singapore perceive each other. This is an important research question because older people are staying on at work rather than retiring and younger people are entering the workforce with higher education and new expectations of what they want from work. We used a mixed methods research design with employees from several different industries. This included in-depth interviews with 20 employees aged from 18 to early 60s and we surveyed 46 employees of similar age range. Our results indicate that younger and older workers are quite different in priorities, working styles, and attitudes. However, there were many positive perceptions of each other' strengths. Implications are discussed in our paper.

Introduction

Diversity is becoming increasingly important as more organizations are integrating workforce diversity into their business strategies. However, effective management of diversity is a relatively new aspect of Human Resource Development, and much of the empirical findings in assessing particular practices are conflicting (Horwitz, 2005; Webber & Donahue, 2001). While a diverse workforce may seem advantageous to any firm seeking to compete globally, such diversity entails costs as well (Gudmundson & Hartenian, 2000). Diversity, being a double-edged sword, creates both opportunities for creativity (Jane & Dipboye, 2004) as well as tension between group members when they fail to relate with one another (Milliken & Martins, 1996). Thus, diversity programs should be appropriately handled and structured for organizations to optimize each employee's unique strengths and capabilities.

As ageing populations become prevalent in developed countries, age diversity deserves more attention. According to a United Nations' (2001) report, by the year 2050, the over-60s age group will represent about 21% of the world's population, as opposed to 10% in the year 2000 and 8% in the year 1950! With rising retirement age and economic pressures to continue working, people of diverse age groups will eventually have to work alongside one another. Therefore, age diversity in the workplace will become increasingly significant.

While much research has focused on gender and ethnic diversity, little research has studied age diversity. Age diversity is viewed as a performance rather than a legal issue, unlike race and gender diversity, which may attract problems such as discrimination lawsuits (Crampton & Hodge, 2007). Furthermore, organizations tend to overlook how younger and older workers can be effectively managed to create synergy (Beaver & Hutchings, 2005).

Research on aging has indicated that chronological age has no relation to work performance, and in certain jobs, performance may be enhanced with the accumulation of experiences

(Warr, 1994). Evidence shows that older employees may exhibit more commitment, loyalty and responsibility as compared to their younger counterparts (Warr, 1994). However, we cannot deny that stereotypes do affect employment-related decisions about older workers (Finkelstein, Burke & Raju, 1995), and that perceptions of older workers may not be accurate. On top of that, perceptions ultimately affect how people behave. For example, if older workers believe that their younger co-workers are rude and arrogant, they would be less willing to work with them on assignments. However, this perception may not be true, and the older worker is purely basing his/her perception on generalization or stereotyping. From this, we see the importance of examining age diversity with an emphasis on understanding what younger and older employees think of each other.

In addition, we want to know what employees, themselves, think would enable effective management of age diversity. It is suggested that organizations should create a friendly company culture to attract and retain talents. In order to do so, maintaining good working relationships among younger and older workers is vital (Lee, 2008). By gathering information about the perceptions and opinions employees have of their younger/older co-workers in organizations, we aim to offer practical recommendations for organizations.

Therefore, our research questions are:

RQ_1: What do younger and older employees think about working with each other?

RQ_2: What do employees suggest as ways to ensure they work well together?

Methods

As a developed country, Singapore is faced with an ageing population, and in order to capitalize on this growing trend Singapore will need to manage age diversity well. Data was collected from employees working in various organizations in Singapore to investigate what they think of their younger/older colleagues The organizations contacted were engaged in different industries ranging from services to manufacturing, with the number of employees varying from 20 to 150.

A mixed methods research design – using surveys and semi-structured interviews - was adopted to collect in-depth information in order to answer our research questions. Qualitative research (interview) was conducted to gather a full range of information about what younger/older workers think of each other. A survey was employed to obtain additional information to complement the information gathered from the interviews and thus provide more conclusive statements and results.

In the first part of the study, we conducted semi-structured interviews with 20 employees from different organizations, age groups and position levels. This is an adequate sample size as it reaches theoretical saturation, where more interviews would not yield additional meaningful information (Flick, 2002). We targeted people of different ages. The ages of our interviewees varied from 18 to 60, with 14 (60%) being 40 or under, and 6 (30%) being over 40 years of age.

With regards to the gender mix, there was slightly more females, making up 60% of the 20 interviewees. The bulk of the participants belonged to the financial industry (50%), while the remainder were from electronics (20%), shipping (5%), healthcare (5%), manufacturing (5%), real estate (5%), food & beverages and computer (5%).

In the hour-long semi-structured interviews, participants were encouraged to share their thoughts, feelings, beliefs and experiences through the use of pre-determined *and* probe questions. There were two interview questions designed to address RQ1: "What do you think about working with younger/older workers?" and "What are some challenges faced?" A third interview question addressed RQ2 by asking participants for their own ideas on how to get older and younger workers working well together.

Based on their responses, we collated an aggregate list of answers and conducted a thematic analysis by using the responses we gathered to derive meaning from the experiences they encountered (Flick, 2002).

The second part of the study involved administering surveys through hard copies given to employees, while ensuring voluntary participation and confidentiality of responses. Surveys were given to 60 people and 46 responded (76.7%). The sample demographics were very similar to those of our interviewees.

The first part of the survey had questions designed to understand the extent of interaction with younger/older colleagues. Such questions include "Which is the age range of the youngest group of colleagues that you work with?" and "How often do you work with colleagues whose age differs with yours by at least 15 years?" This was aimed at getting a general sense of the age diversity among our respondents. From the results, we gathered that 85% of respondents worked with workers of age range 21-30 and 37% worked with older workers of age range 51-60. Eighteen out of 46 (39%) of our survey respondents worked frequently with colleagues of at least 15 years difference in age, thus showing that the level of age diversity is quite significant.

The next part of our survey had questions designed to address RQ1, such as "Do you think that there is a link between age and performance?" and "Do you feel that working with younger/older workers produces better results?" An open-ended question asking if the respondents had any further comments was also included to allow respondents to elaborate on their responses. These responses were included with the interview data. Thematic analysis was conducted on the combined responses from interviews and the open ended questions on surveys.

Results

On the whole, we found more negative perceptions by older workers, more positive comments by younger workers, and variations according to the supervisory relationship between employees of different age groups.

Qualitative – Older workers' perceptions of younger workers

Older workers tended to express more negative comments about their younger counterparts. Half of the older workers interviewed suggested that younger co-workers can be over-confident and persistent in their ideas. The older respondents were concerned that such confidence may either surpass their capabilities or withhold their growth. One respondent even commented,

"These younger workers can learn a lot if they were less cocky".

Three respondents were concerned that such confidence translates into being overambitious and could stir negative reactions from others.

Also, older workers perceived that younger workers love to be challenged and winning is key to them. Hence, older workers think they need to be tactful and accommodating while dealing with their younger counterparts. Generally, the older workers felt that younger employees only cooperate with the older supervisors who can prove his/her credentials. For instance, if the supervisor possesses a GCE 'O' Level certificate, while the younger staff holds a University Degree, the younger staff will be more 'rebellious', as he/she does not want to work under someone of a 'lesser calibre'. All respondents expressed that smaller groups of younger staff will be easier to manage, as they will less likely collude against their older supervisor.

Despite the negative comments, older workers interviewed and surveyed perceive their younger counterparts as being energetic, quick-learners, meticulous and willing to spend long hours at work. One respondent felt that younger workers exhibit zest and drive to perform beyond expectations. Some even exhibit persistence and perseverance in their work. In the eyes of the older workers, their passion for learning is worth commending and will likely help them achieve success. One of the older workers expressed that the younger workers exhibit street-smartness, the ability to bend the rules and come up with creative solutions to problems.

Qualitative – Younger workers' perceptions of older workers

In general, younger workers spoke highly of their older counterparts despite some negative perceptions about their colleagues. Some major strengths brought up by younger respondents are the vast technical knowledge and interpersonal skills that older worker possess, and their ability to be tactful and reasonable. A particular interviewee commented, "Very often they are able to apply their vast experiences onto issues efficiently and contribute in a different perspective. Frequently, this can save a lot of time during brain storming sessions and allows the team to arrive directly to the crux of issues". Younger workers concurred that older workers possess experience accumulated over years of work, which is helpful in mentoring younger workers who are new to the job. However, more than half of the younger workers thought otherwise and do not agree that experience is definitely gained as one ages

Despite the positive comments, about half of the younger workers interviewed felt that older co-workers are often reluctant to accept alternate viewpoints, especially those from younger workers, whom they viewed as inexperienced. They are perceived as being stubborn, which sometimes result in work being done less efficiently. Though younger workers might provide creative and workable solutions, the older supervisors tend to disregard these ideas, which is consistent with responses gathered from our survey. One interview respondent attributed this to ego problem, whereby older co-workers "lord their experience over the younger workers" (Translated from a Chinese idiom).

About half of the younger respondents also viewed their older co-workers as "domineering", some older supervisors may use their status and position to yield power over the younger staff by 'threatening' younger workers into obeying them. Thus, two of the younger respondents expressed disgust and lose their usual respect for these older workers. However, these younger respondents clarified that such older supervisors are only a minority. To the younger workers, older workers are seen as less technology-savvy. However, one quarter of the interviewed younger workers expressed that they were fairly impressed with the older colleagues' enthusiasm to upgrade their IT skills. Hence, these younger workers are more than willing to assist their older workers in technology-related problems. Older workers are also perceived to be more family oriented and less likely to engage in social interactions, influencing the degree of interaction between younger and older workers.

Qualitative – Perceptions of supervisory relationships

We have established that perspectives differ among workers of different age groups. Moreover, they are also affected by the job position one holds. Management employees tended to offer their perceptions skewed towards management issues such as difficulties in managing younger and older workers. Interestingly, even within the same job position group, there are also slight differences in their responses which are largely attributed to the age group they belong.

All respondents holding supervisory roles, regardless of age, concurred that they face difficulties communicating and working with people of different age groups. However, differences also exist between supervisors of different age groups. Older supervisors felt that they can command respect more easily than their younger counterparts. However, they do not see the younger subordinates as more difficult to handle when work is concerned. This is contrary to the responses of the younger supervisors who felt that older subordinates are more difficult to manage than the younger subordinates.

Quantitative

Our survey findings provide complementary data in relation to R1. Firstly, with regards to the relationship between age and performance, results from survey are inconclusive as to whether respondents felt that age does affect performance with 48% voting in the affirmative and 52% in the negative. Most respondents who agreed that older workers perform better, substantiated this with reasons such as experience accumulated throughout their years of work. For those respondents who felt that age had no relation to work performance, they cited personal work attitude and efficiency, character and job experience as other factors affecting work performance, rather than age. Secondly, the survey respondents had mixed views about whether there is a relationship between experience and age.

Our survey questions also asked respondents if there was a relation between age diversity and organizational performance. Slightly more respondents felt that age diversity would bring about better results for the organization with 54% saying yes and 46% saying no. Notably, most respondents (65%) felt that their organizations have done enough to promote age diversity.

Discussion

Both younger and older workers named pros and cons when asked on what they think of each other. Younger workers expressed admiration towards the loyalty, expertise and optimism of their older co-worker. This is consistent with Clare's (2009) point that younger workers think that older workers are slow with technology and more resistant to change. Meanwhile, older workers often think that younger workers have no loyalty and rather they put in more effort and to follow the rules (Clare, 2009).

Despite the different perceptions that surfaced in our interviews, 87% of our survey respondents expressed no preference working with either age group. This suggests that, despite the differences in working styles, attitudes and values as highlighted by the interviewees, there is a consensus to accommodate one another. This is critical as flexibility enables organizations to harness their strengths to maximize performance (Clare, 2009).

Where supervisory relationships are concerned, our findings showed that older supervisors do have communication problems with their subordinates as well, regardless of age. However, they do not think that younger workers differ from older workers in terms of attitudes and loyalties. This finding confirms that consistent assumptions about younger workers being radically different from other employees in their organizations are not justifiable (Macky, Gardner & Forsyth, 2008).

According to Finkelstein et al (1995), older supervisors are able to command greater respect from younger subordinates as a result of their experiences and seniority in the workplace. This form of relationship is an accepted norm in comparison to a younger supervisor-older subordinate relationship. With the threat of status incongruence, younger supervisors have to display exceptional performance in order to command equal respect from their older subordinates. Observable attributes such as educational level and family background becomes contributing factor to their success. Likewise, younger subordinates are doubtful when older supervisors fail to achieve equivalent paper qualifications. This is especially so in Singapore society whereby paper qualifications are regarded as a stepping stone to achieve success.

Next, our study also shows that approximately 50% of survey respondents believed that age affects one's work performance. It is interesting to note that although research suggests no relationship between age and performance (Warr, 1994), members of the workforce still hold this view. Many people fail to realize that age and performance are unrelated. However, there were some survey respondents who agreed that age has no relation to work performance, citing other variables such as personal work attitude and efficiency, character and experience as factors affecting work performance, rather than age. Depending on their learning and work attitude, two people of the same age may be holding vastly different positions in the company. It is not necessary that senior employees in companies hold senior positions.

In response to RQ2, employees suggested several ways to ensure they work well together. Firstly, employees felt that organizations should facilitate constructive conflicts and effective communication amongst older and younger employees. As Clare (2009) suggests, this approach enables diverse aged employees to understand and recognize each others' strengths and weaknesses such that they can approach this work differently and learn from each other. Secondly, our participants believed that there should be more opportunities for genuine interaction to build trusting relationship. Third, employers should display flexibility and adapt to changes in the work environment.

Lastly, there are varying opinions on whether sufficient effort has been made in managing age diversity within organizations. Some felt there was, but others highlighted there is little companies can do to manage age diversity.

Limitations and Future Directions

With limited resources, convenience sampling was adopted, posing certain limitations as respondents are from our social circles might likely possess similar perceptions and values, resulting in similar responses. Hence, it may not be representative of the Singapore workforce. Potential researchers can look into getting a more representative sample. Second, our survey sample size of 46 does not allow our research findings to be totally representative of the Singapore population. Hence, future research can involve a larger number of respondents. Third, there is relatively unequal distribution of the working industry of respondents. Half of the respondents were from the financial sector and the rest were evenly

distributed among the other sectors.Thus, future research could focus on particular industries or use a well-balanced sample from different industries and job types.

Despite the mentioned shortcomings, our research area has filled gaps in the current field of research. We overcame the methodological issue in some research where range of research participants' age is small by having research participants ranging from ages 21 to 60, thus increasing the validity of our findings

Lastly, we suggest future research build upon our findings to derive recommendations for younger/older employees to cooperate effectively. Future studies can examine the ideas provided by the respondents regarding RQ2 through more qualitative methods, such as focus group discussions. An action research approach could be taken to improving the recommendations for a particular workplace.

Practical Implications for Organisations

Implications are: First, understanding the generational differences helps managers to allocate work and monitor performance appropriately. Second, people of different ages need opportunities to work together and learn from each other. This is more effective if there are social or team building events that *genuinely* foster constructive interactions. Third, where younger people manage older workers, extra care is needed to accommodate generational differences, while also promoting good management-staff relationships. Lastly, age has no relation to performance and recruitment should be based upon merit.

In conclusion, our study indicates that the general perceptions younger workers have of their older co-workers are positive, as most of them viewed the older workers as role models with vast experience. Likewise, older workers are optimistic that the younger workers have potential that can be developed with proper guidance from their mentors. Moreover, both younger/older workers felt that the ability to effectively manage age diversity lies in both the employees' attitudes and management's support.

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Chapter 6: Organizational Commitment

Effects of Job Insecurity on Job Performance and Intention to Quit

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Abstract

This study explores the effects of job insecurity on job performance and intention to quit, and posits that hindrance and challenge are possible immediate outcomes of job insecurity. A set of hypotheses and a comprehensive model were tested on a sample of 484 employees. The findings showed that: (1) Job insecurity is positively related to work performance and negatively related to intention to quit; (2) Hindrance and challenge are positively correlated with work performance and negatively correlated with intention to quit; (3) Control variables (gender, age and job tenure) are significantly related to work performance. These results are discussed and study limitations are outlined.

Introduction

Job Insecurity

Job Insecurity (JI) is a subjective state of mind regarding objective events in an individual's work environment (Jacobson, 1991). Workers experience JI during their working life whether or not an objective threat to their continued employment exists, e.g. privatization, merger, organizational change (Deery, 2006; Mauno, Kinnunen, Makikangas, & Natti, 2005). Perceptions of JI greatly influence organizational effectiveness (Burke & Nelson, 1998); thus understanding the process underlying employees' behaviors is imperative. Job insecurity at work is defined as:*"perceived powerfulness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation*" (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984).

The threat facet of JI has been the focus of studies exploring its health, social and behavioral impact on the individual and its work related consequences in particular. Previous research has tended to attribute negative consequences to JI, including a decline in work performance (Burke & Nelson, 1998; Reisel, Chia & Maloles, 2005). When conditions in the work environment are perceived by employees as a threat or source of harm to their employment their intention to quit increases. Edwards (2000) reported decreased motivation, commitment; trust in management and loyalty to the organization.

With temporary employment on the rise in labor markets worldwide (Sparke & Cowton, 2004), as well as mergers & acquisitions and jobs related to project management, research is needed on the possible positive outcomes of JI in addition to the more obvious negative ones. Examples at the individual level include higher retirement pensions, early retirement and opportunities for a career change. Roskies, Louis-Guerin & Fournier (1993) examined positive and negative emotional responses to JI and found that "the first and most original of our findings is the strong beneficial impact of positive personality disposition on mental health, an effect that appears to be as strong as the better known impact of negative affectivity". Positive affect was found in workers who were to be fired in the long run, while

negative affect was present in workers whose companies were undergoing immediate dismissals of employees.

Cavanaugh, Boswell,Roehling, and Boudreau (2000) examined perceived stress emanating from JI as a hindrance or challenge in executives and found significant differences in attitudes and behavior regarding organizational outcomes. For example, intention to quit was positively related to the perception of hindrance, but not with perceptions of challenge. Recent studies examining positive affectivity under stress reveal that this phenomenon needs further clarification.

We used Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theory of stress in an attempt to understand differences in employees' performance and intention to quit when experiencing JI. In this theory, threat/hindrance and challenge are integral parts of the JI coping mechanism. As they suggest, "threat and challenge are not necessarily mutually exclusive… and their affective component can occur simultaneously" (p.32). Findings on the mechanism of hindrance and challenge show that challenge related positively to desirable outcomes, such as job satisfaction and less job search, while hindrance-related stress associated negatively with these same outcomes (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). It would, however, be worthwhile to examine the question of whether hindrance and challenge are complementary or distinct variables.

In this study we expand Cavanaugh et al.'s (2000) model to include the following question: When an employee perceives JI as a threat entailing uneasy feelings, would this affect work performance and intention to quit in a negative way, or would perceiving JI as a challenge lead to coping strategies within the organization or a search for new opportunities outside it?

Work Performance

Work performance is the result of the amalgam of interpersonal relationships and work relations in the vicinity of an employee. Differences in the relationship between JI and performance have been related to various factors including self esteem (Brockner, Greenberg, Brockner, Bortz, Davy & Carter, 1986), education and chances for reintegration in the workforce (Cheng & Chan, 2007).

We suggest that feelings of job insecurity are often prevalent when the economy is on a down turn. In a declining economy, job there are fewer opportunities on the labor market, and employees who perceive that they are under threat of being fired are likely to invest more effort than usual to avoid being dismissed. We therefore suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Job Insecurity is positively related to work performance.

Intention to Quit

Employee turnover is the movement of members across the boundary of an organization (Price, 1977). Intention to quit is the employee's intention to develop and act upon his/her wishes to leave the organization. In JI situations, employees perceived the possibility of termination as a breach of both a formal work contract and a psychological contract, which is the unrecorded contract concerning the reciprocal nature of the working conditions between them and the organization (Morrison, 1994). Ito & Brotheridge (2007) posit that intention to quit under JI conditions is influenced by two distinct employee interpretations of JI. The first is affect based: the danger is interpreted as a threat which motivates the employee to search for an alternative job opportunity. The second is a cognitive interpretation in which the

employee sees the situation as manageable. This interpretation leads to enhanced involvement in the organization to expand the window of opportunity through which the employee can obtain knowledge and promote his/her interests (Ugboro, 2003), such as maintaining the current position and avoiding changes at a time of economic instability. We suggest that in an unstable economy, job alternatives are limited, thus employees will be reluctant to leave their companies. As such we suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Job Insecurity is negatively related to Intention to Quit.

Hindrance &Challenge

Hindrance and challenge have been studied as cognitive variables related to perception of stress according to Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theory. An individual who identifies a disparity between the resources he/she has and the resources required for handling a situation makes one of two possible appraisals. The employee can interpret the situation as a **threat/hindrance**, a concern about resource reduction, potential harm, loss or damage. Alternatively the employee can interpret the stressful situation as a **challenge**, a positive force that motivates action. The results of these appraisals were studied in the context of managers and workers experiencing stress at work. When stress was appraised as a challenge (Challenge-Related Stress), as a requirement of the job or as related to organizational growth, it was related to positive outcomes. On the other hand, when stress was appraised as a hindrance (Hindrance Related Stress) resulting from a force holding the employee back or compromising his/her achievements, it was negatively related to desired outcomes (Boswell, Olson-Buchanan, & LePine 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000).

Work performance and its relationship to hindrance and challenge appraisals of stress have not been adequately clarified. In the current study we examine hindrance and challenge with work performance in the context of JI. We posit that in light of workforce dynamics and the growing trend to move between organizations, on top of the obvious negative characteristics of hindrance there are positive characteristics of challenge. These include new opportunities for professional learning, social and organizational enriching exposure and career change. In the same vein as Cavanaugh et al.'s (2000) approach and Boswell et al.'s (2004) results, we hypothesize that employees who perceive JI as a hindrance will show decreased performance whereas those who perceive JI as a challenge will show increased performance. As such we suggest the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: Hindrance is negatively related to work performance.

Hypothesis 4: Challenge is positively related to work performance.

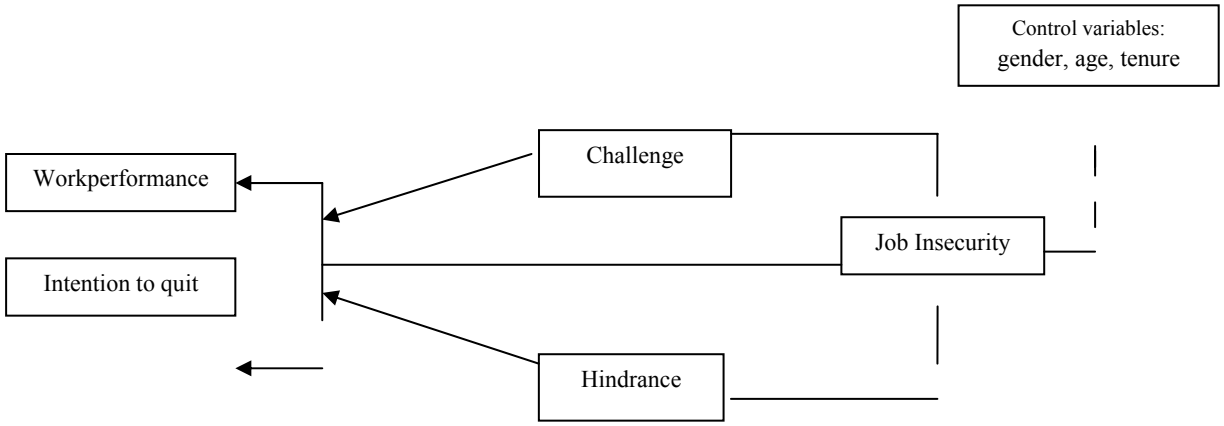
Intention to quit increases when working conditions are perceived as causing damage due to a decrease in social identification, commitment and trust in the organization (Edwards, 2000), as opposed to a situation in which working conditions are perceived by the employee as an opportunity to become more involved in the organization by looking for more relevant information and promoting its professional standing. Thus, we suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: Hindrance is positively related to intention to quit.

Hypothesis 6: Challenge is negatively related to intention to quit.

The above six hypotheses were incorporated into one model in which the perception of JI was transformed into challenge and hindrance affecting work performance and intentions to quit in turn. This model was tested using hierarchical regression analysis.

Figure 1: Job Insecurity Effects on Job Performance and Intention to Quit



Method

Participants in the current study were 484 employees belonging to one of four types of organizations: IT, marketing, services and industry. The response rate was 93%, of which 60% were men. The average age was 43 and the average tenure 9 years. Data collection for the study started at the end of 2008 and was completed by mid 2009. Data were collected using translated self -report questionnaires (translation-back translation technique; Brislin, 1980) which were filled out anonymously and collected immediately after completion. Employees were permitted to take a break from their workday in order to fill out the questionnaires.

Job Insecurity

JI was measured using questions from the Ashford, Lee, & Bobko (1989) questionnaire, which was based on Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's (1984) theoretical model of perceptions of JI. The JI questionnaire consisted of 10 items and examined employees' worries concerning changes that could occur in the work environment, for example: "being transferred to a different position in the workplace", on which the employees rated their perceptions on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not worried at all) to 5 (very much worried). The reliability for the scale was $\alpha = .81$.

Work Performance

There are several measures for work performance. Previous studies (e.g. Inderrieden, Allen, & Keaveny, 2004; Lim, 1996) relied only on employees' self reports to measure work performance. We chose to compare the employees' self reported performance with their direct supervisor's report, following Baruch's (1996) method, thus minimizing the bias related to self report. This 5 item scale, developed by Black & Porter (1991), is based on a comparison between employees and their colleagues, such that an employee is required to rate him/herself in comparison to other employees of the same group or division. Questions included "the quality of my performance (in comparison to others)" and "the ability to get along with other employees in the workplace", and answers were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (far below other employees) to 5 (far above other employees). The reliability for the scale was $\alpha = .83$. It is important to note that the employees' and the supervisors' answers to the questionnaires and each pair of matching questions were significantly correlated ($p<.01$), thus addressing the bias related to self reports.

Intention to Quit

Various studies (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Steel & Ovalle, 1984) have found that intention to quit is a strong cognitive predictor of actual leaving. We used 3 highly reliable items ($\alpha = .81$) from Mobley's (1977) scale to measure intentions to quit. Answers were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (completely false) to 5 (completely true).

Challenge and Hindrance

Cavanaugh et al.'s (2000) original questionnaire distinguished between questions measuring hindrance and those measuring challenge, and consisted of 11 items from 3 sources:

a. "Job demands and worker health: Main effect and worker health" (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, & Pinneau, 1975)
b. "Stress Diagnostic Survey" (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1983)
c. "The measurement of job stress: Development of the job stress index" (Sandman, 1992)

In this study we presented the items in a different way. Following each item, two scales were presented, the first referring to hindrance and the second to challenge. Answers ranged on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (not a hindrance/challenge for me at all) to 5 (very much a hindrance/challenge for me). For each of the 11 statements, respondents were requested to indicate whether the statement presented a hindrance or a challenge for them, and rate themselves on the relevant scale. A factor analysis revealed two distinct factors, hindrance of JI and challenge of JI.

Results

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study variables. There was a significant correlation ($p<.01$) between JI and all other variables apart from tenure, in line with previous findings (Reisel et al., 2005; Sverke, Hellgren, & Newell, 2002).

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Variables (N = 484)

6	5	4	3	2	1	SD	M	Variable	
					-	12.61	43.15	Age	1
				-	.50**	8.32	9.06	Tenure	2
			-	.06	-.15**	0.81	3.44	Job Insecurity	3
		-	.20**	.00	-.09	0.96	3.22	Challenge	4
	-	.19**	.26**	-.03	-.09	0.99	2.83	Hindrance	5
-	.18**	.29**	.20**	.11	-.11*	0.64	3.80	Work Performance	6
-.06	-.19**	-.15**	-.13**	.02	.04	1.36	2.61	Intention to Quit	7

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Test of Hypotheses

Job Insecurity was positively correlated with work performance(r=.20, p<.01), thus supporting Hypothesis 1. In other words, if a worker experiences job insecurity he or she will invest more efforts to enhance performance in order not to be fired,

Job Insecurity was negatively correlated with intention to quit (r= -.13, p<.01) thus supporting Hypothesis 2. In other words, workers are reluctant to leave their organizations under JI conditions, A regression analysis presented in Table 2 shows that the contribution of JI in predicting intention to quit was significant (β= -.20, p<.01).

Hindrance and Challenge were both correlated with work performance. There was a positive correlation between hindrance and work performance (r=.18, p<.01; β=.13, p<.05), suggesting that hindrance does not necessarily impair work performance. Hypothesis 3 was not supported, since we expected to obtain a negative effect but instead found a significant positive relationship that will be analyzed in the discussion section. There was a positive correlation between challenge and work performance (r=.29, p<.01; β=.22, p<.01) supporting Hypothesis 4.

Hindrance and Challenge were both negatively correlated with intention to quit. There was a negative correlation between hindrance and intention to quit (r= -.19, p<.01; β= -.13, p<.05), suggesting that hindrance delays an employee's decision to leave the place of work. Thus, Hypothesis 5 was not supportedbut a significant correlation was found which will be discussed below.There was also a negative correlation between challenge and intention to quit (r=-.15, p<.01) thus supporting Hypothesis 6.

Table 2: Results of Regression Analysis for Intention to Quit and Job Performance

Work Performance			Intention to Quit			Variable
Step 3	Step 2	Step 1	Step 3	Step 2	Step 1	
-.16*	-.17*	-.18*	-.05	-.05	-.03	Age
.18*	.16*	.17*	.08	.09	.07	Job Tenure
-.12*	-.14*	-.13*	.03	.05	.02	Gender(male = 1)
.03	.10		-.15*	-.20**		Job Insecurity
.13*			-.13*			Hindrance
.22**			-.10			Challenge
			.03	.04		Change in R^2
.11	.04	.03	.07	.04	.00	R^2
.09	.03	.02	.05	.03	-.00	Adjusted R^2
6.10(6)**	3.31(4)*	3.45(3)*	3.67(6)**	3.22(4)*	.47(3)	F(df)

Results of the hierarchical regression analysis: In relation to intention to quit, the demographics variables were not significant. JI had a significant negative effect; hindrance had a negative effect, whereas challenge showed a negative but no significant relationship.

In terms of work performance, the demographic variables were significant: age and gender were negatively related, whereas job tenure was positively related. In other words, male work performance was higher than female work performance; however, as the employee's age increases, there was a decrease in work performance. In addition, job tenure increased work performance. JI was not significantly related to work performance. Hindrance and challenge added in Step 3 were both positive and significant.

Discussion

In the current study we tested and confirmedthe effect of JI on job performance (positive) and on intention to quit (negative). Then we examined the immediate ramifications of JI; .i.e. hindrance or challenge, and how these two constructs affect work performance and the intention to quit a workplace. We examined whether hindrance and challenge are constructs that exclude each other and result in either positive consequences (for challenge) or negative ones (for hindrance), or whether they are constructs that may affect an individual simultaneously, or in sequential order: first, hindrance and then challenge.

The results suggest a different view than that presented in Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theory of threat/hindrance and challenge that suggests a negative relationship between these constructs (negative vs. positive). We found a weak positive correlation between hindrance and challenge ($r=.19$, $p=.01$).Hindrance and challenge appear to be two complementary and sequential concepts playing an important role in motivating the individual in stressful situations. Both are positively correlated with JI, but their influence on the consequences of JI justifies viewing them as separate theoretical constructs. Hindrance may be more related with an initial assessment of the JI situation and challenge may then be related with a later response to it that is affected by the dimensions of hindrance.

Work Performance was consistently and positively correlated with hindrance and challenge, but this correlation was much stronger for challenge than for hindrance, suggesting there is need for further research on this issue.

Intention to Quit was negatively correlated with hindrance and challenge, but again the correlations were very different for each of these two constructs. By contrast challenge Hindrance made a unique contribution to predicting intention to quit in that it accounted for half of the explained variance. Stated differently, as perceptions of JI arise, so do workers' tendencies to avoid leaving the workplace, whether the situation is perceived as a hindrance or as a challenge. When this cognitive construct is aroused, positively or negatively, the worker does not consider quitting. It may very well be that this behavior is the result of an assessment that JI in one's workplace is indicative of a more general trend (results for this study were obtained during a global economic crisis), and that alternative employment opportunities are scarce, and that it is a good idea to "stick to what they have". This helps explain the correlation between JI and work performance – when JI is present, so are workers' tendencies to stay in their workplace and increase their performance in order to be the last on the list of dismissals.

Finally, this study suggests that JI as a stress phenomenon is characterized by two assessments: a negative correlation and a negative regression were related significantly to

intention to quit. A significant positive correlation and a positive regression that was however non-significant was related to work performance.

This study's limitations are twofold: first, despite the significant correlations, the overall explained variance, though significant, is low, implying that other variables that were not incorporated in our model may be relevant; secondly, we did not examine the effects of the type of industry.

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Stress and Intentions to Leave the Job and the Profession among Accountants

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is: a) to assess the gender-related differences on stressors variables and on turnover intentions from firm and profession; b) to describe associations between stressors and firm and profession turnover intentions; c) to examine the predictor role of stressors on firm turnover intention and on profession turnover intention. The sample included 269 chartered accountants. Results suggest that there are no gender-related differences on stressors and on profession turnover intentions. Regarding to firm turnover intention, female accountants experience significantly higher levels than their male counterparts. Firm turnover intention is explained by all stressors, being "role stress" the best predictor of firm turnover intention. Concerning to profession turnover intention, only "role stress" and "conflict between work and home life" have a significantly predictive role.

Introduction

The new features of post-industrial work, that will tend to extend in the future, have increased the psychological work load, and the risk of suffering from stress in the future will grow much more, and will become a significant occupational risk (Coelho, 2008). According to Ross and Altmaier (1994) occupational stress involves the interaction between workers and working conditions, in such a way that the requirements generated by this interaction are beyond the capacity that the employee has to deal with the situation. The authors emphasize the circumstances under which transactions with the environment may lead the individual to perceive a discrepancy between the physical or psychological demands of the situation and the biological, psychological or social resources available.

The literature review allows us to highlight some major sources of stress in the accounting field: quantitative overload, role ambiguity (Sanders & Fulks, 1995), role conflict, qualitative overload, career development; responsibility for people, time pressure; job scope; conflict home/work (Sanders & Fulks, 1995; Daniels & Guppy, 1995; Cluskey & Vaux, 1997; Borgia, 1989; Collins, 1993). Studies such as Collins (1993) and Troutman et al. (2000) show that women experience higher levels of stress compared to men.

Regarding Cluskey and Vaux (1997) found among the accounting profession, that job stressors (role of circumstances, job characteristics, work relationships and career) are associated with the intention of quitting jobs. Collins (1993) focused on the relationship between stress and job turnover, testing the effect of gender in the profession of public accounting. He concluded that 15% of sample left the profession of public accounting, and the percentage women accountants was substantially higher than that of men.

Leaving the job or the profession is one of the consequences of stress with a significant impact at an organizational level, because turnover corresponds to an important labor cost to the organization (WHO, 2005). Therefore, from this perspective it deserves further attention.

The relationship between intention and subsequent action is well supported and accepted by the behavioral literature (Ajzen, 1991). In this study we believe that the intention to abandon the profession requires taking into account that the individuals are likely to engage in professional activities not directly related to accounting. The intention to abandon the current job does not reflect a so profound change, in that there is the intention of maintaining the practice of chartered accountants, but in another organization. Several research studies about the accounting profession pointed out factors that contribute to the intention of abandonment and turnover: work overload; role ambiguity; work features, relationships at work, career (Cluskey & Vaux, 1997; Greenhaus et al.1997), gender, age (Rasch & Harrell, 1990; Collins, 1993); status (Almer et al., 1998), company type, hierarchical level (Rasch & Harrell, 1990, Sanders & Fulks, 1995), and burnout (Fogarty et al., 2000).

b) Research objectives and rationale of the hypotheses

The aims of this research is the study of stress in the profession of chartered accountant, in general, and assess how this issue contributes to the intention of giving up the profession and current job, in particular. In this paper we define the following objectives: to evaluate the existence of gender differences in several stressors (role stress, time pressures, concerns about career, responsibility for people and conflict home/work), in the intention to abandon the job and the profession of chartered accountant, and check the interactive effect of other variables (age, marital status, number of children, qualifications, length of stay in the profession of chartered accountant and length of stay in your place of employment); to describe the associations between stressors (stress, time pressures, concerns about career, responsibility for people and conflict home/work) and the intentions of leaving (the employing institution and the profession of chartered accountant) and to evaluate the predictive role of these stressors in the intentions of leaving. Our hypotheses are as follows:

H1) Women reveal significantly higher levels of stress. H2) Interactive effects between gender and other socio-demographic variables have an effect in stressors classes; H3) Demographic variables have an effect on the stressors. H4) Women have significantly higher intention to abandon the employing institution; H5) Interactive effects between gender and other demographic variables have an effect on the intention to abandon the job; H6) Demographic variables have an effect on the intention to abandon the job; Similar to the hypotheses 4) 5) and 6) we also state that: H7) Women have significantly higher levels of intention to abandon the profession of chartered accountant; H8) Interactive effects between gender and other demographic variables have an effect on the intention to abandon the profession of chartered accountant; H9) Demographic variables have an effect on the intention to abandon the profession of chartered accountant.

H10) The classes of stressors are positively associated with the intention of abandoning the job and the occupation of chartered accountant, H11) and H12) The stressors are predictive of the intention to abandon the employing institution and the profession of chartered accountant.

Method

a) Sample

The method used was the survey and a convenience sample. We distributed 485 questionnaires to chartered accountants during a conference sponsored by the Chamber of

chartered accountants. 299 questionnaires were returned, but only 269 were considered valid. The sample characteristics are shown in table 1.

Table 1 – Sample characteristics

Age of the participants	M= 44.16; SD = 10.96
Male subjects	56.9%
Married subjects	74.7%
Subjects with two children	42.4%
Subjects with children in school age	30.5%
Graduates	57.6%
Subjects with a spouse working full time	63.6%
Length of stay in the profession of chartered accountant	M = 17.57 years; SD = 10.88
Length of stay in firm	M = 12.11; *SD* = 8.74
Effective / No term	65.1%
Number of weekly hours spent on the job during the period of greatest burden	M = 43.11; SD = 19.97
Number of weekly hours spent on the job during the period s of low overhead	M = 31.96 hours; *SD* = 16.00
Most participants exercise their profession in the district of Porto	61%

b) Measures and internal consistency

We used a questionnaire consisting of three parts: i) A questionnaire about the sources of stress (40 items) based on Collins (1993); ii) Questions about the intention of leaving the profession (5 items) based on Collins (1993), on the "Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire" from Cammann et al. (1979) and Seashore et al. (1982). Questions on the intention to abandon the current job (2 items) derived from “Working Conditions and Control Questionnaire”; iii) Questions that allow the characterization of demographic social and professional profiles (16 items) derived from Collins (1993) and Torres-Oliveira (2006). We analyzed the internal consistency of the factors evaluated in the survey, using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient to verify the suitability of the instrument in our sample, and found suitable values (between 0.64 and 0.95).

Results

a) Stress, gender and socio-demographic variables

The results of T tests revealed no significant gender differences with regard to all classes of stressors in the study (role stress, time demands, concerns about career, responsibility for people, and conflict home/work). Moreover, the ANOVA analysis allowed us to study the existence of interaction effects between gender and other demographic variables in each of the stressors. There was only an interactive effect of gender and qualifications on the variable "responsibility for people" [F (1, 256) = 4.17, P = .04, partial Eta squared = 0.016, p <.05]. As

a result, we inspected more closely the direction of that interaction. First, it was found that the educational level has a major effect on the variable "responsibility for people" [F (1, 257) = 5.34, p <0.05], but that gender does not exert a major isolated effect on this variable [F (1, 253) = 3.10, ns]. It can be concluded that individuals with higher qualifications have significantly higher levels of stress in the category "responsibility for people," but that this effect occurs only for women.

We used MANOVA to see whether the five classes of stressors, when analyzed as a whole, differed according to socio-demographic variables. There were no significant differences in the linear combination of the five classes of stressors on the basis of any of the socio-demographic variables considered. Therefore, their effect was not further considered in the regression analysis.

b) Intention to abandon, gender and socio-demographic variables

The variable intention to abandon the profession of chartered accountant did not register significant differences in gender or regard the socio-demographic variables. In addition, there was not an interactive effect of gender with any of the socio-demographic variables on the intention to abandon the profession of chartered accountant.

Concerning the intention to leave the employing institution, there was an effect of gender, to the extent that women have significantly higher levels (2.65) compared with men (2.13). However, the magnitude of the effect is small given that the value of partial eta squared is around 0.02. Moreover, there was only one interactive effect of gender and marital status [F (2, 268) = 5.36, p <0.05]. We proceeded with more detailed analysis of this interaction and found that the intention of abandoning the employer does not have a regular pattern. More specifically, among single people, men and women had very similar intention to abandon the employing institution, among individuals married or living together, the intention of abandonment is higher among women and, finally, among divorced/separated or widowed individuals the intention to abandonment is higher among men.

There were differences in intention to leave the employing institution, when considering various demographic variables: Age: There were significant differences in the intention of abandoning the employer based on age, with younger individuals (27/37 years) having significantly higher values in that intention (M = 2.80, SD = 1.79) when compared with older individuals (51/73 years) (M = 1.84, SD = 1.30), F (2,60) = 7.93, p <.001; Status: detected significant differences in the intention of abandoning the employer, specifically single individuals showed significantly higher levels (M = 3.00, SD = 2.11) than married individuals (M = 2.23, SD = 1.49), F (2.266) = 3.92, p <.05; Number of children: There were significant differences in the number of children, so that people without children have significantly higher levels of intention to abandon the employing institution (M = 2.87, SD = 1.94) than individuals with one or two children (M = 2.29, SD = 1.53) as well as individuals with three or more children (M = 1.67, SD = 1.19), F (2, 266) = 4.96, p <.01; Academic qualifications: detected significant differences in the intention of abandoning the employer depending on qualifications, specifically individuals with high education levels had significantly higher values (M = 2.41, SD = 1.61) than individuals without higher education (M = 1.78, SD = 1.38), F (1, 255) = 4.97, p <.05; Length of stay in the profession of chartered accountant: There were significant differences in the intention of abandoning the employer depending on length of stay in the profession of chartered accountant. More specifically, it was found that individuals who are no longer in the profession (22/52 years) had significantly lower levels of intention to leave the employing institution (M = 1.81, SD = 1.26) than individuals that are

less time in Employment (0/10 and 11/21 years) (M = 2.72, SD = 1.69 and M = 2.59, SD = 1.26), F (2, 262) = 8.51, p <.001; Time spent in the company where people currently works: There were significant differences depending on the time spent in the company where the sample currently works. More specifically, it was found that individuals who are less time in the company (0/7 years) had significantly higher levels of intention to leave the employing institution (M = 2.82, SD = 1.75) than individuals who are longest in the company (15/43 years) (M = 2.01, SD = 1.50), F (2, 245) = 5.61, p <.01. Given the above differences it became important, at this stage, to assess whether women and men differed in relation to demographic variables that may be the cause of these results. In fact, we found that women differ significantly from men in demographic variables in the study. More specifically, women have significantly lower age (39,1) than man (47,8), length of stay in the profession of chartered accountant and time spent in the company where chartered accountants work.

In addition, it was found that women and men differ significantly with regard to marital status [$\chi 2$ (2) = 17.57, p = .000], education [$\chi 2$ (1) = 7.50, p = .006] and number of children [$\chi 2$ (2) = 24.62, p = .000]. More specifically with regard to marital status, the group of single people is mostly composed of women (70.7%), while the subgroup of married couples is mostly composed of men (63.5%). Concerning qualifications, subjects without high education tend to be men (77.8%), whereas in the subgroup of individuals highly educated there is greater equality between men (53.4%) and women (46.6%). On the topic of the number of children, the subgroup of individuals without children consists mainly of women (67.9%), while in subgroups with 1 or 2 children and 3 or more children the gender trend is reversed.

c) Relationship between stress and intention to leave

Based on multiple regression analysis we found that 28.5% of the variance of intention to leave the employing institution is explained by all stressor (role stress, time requirements, concerns about career and conflict home/work). All variables included in the model have predictive power (when considered independently) on the intention to leave the employing institution, and the “role stress” is the best predictor. The results show that 28.1% of the variance of intention to abandon the profession of chartered accountant is explained by all the predictors of role stress, time demands, concerns about career and conflict home/work. However, only the variables of role stress (β = 0.33, p <.001), and conflict home/work (β = 0.28, p <.001) made a significant unique contribution in explaining the intention to abandon the profession of chartered accountant.

Discussion

We did not found gender differences in regard to classes of stressors, as opposed to Collins (1993) and Troutman et al. (2000) who found higher levels of stress in women accountants. It is common to find references addressing theoretical and empirical evidence of the burden female experiences in terms of reconciling work and family role (Borgia, 1989; Ross & Altmaier, 1994). However, as Lim and Teo (1996), in this study there were no significant differences between genders for the stressor "conflict home/work”. This result may reflect an adequate capacity to cope with stress by Portuguese women accountants and probably a growing share of the male gender in family/household activities. We only detect gender differences in the stressor "responsibility for people", with greater sense of responsibility among women with higher qualifications. For the other stressors experienced in the workplace, the lack of gender differences seems to support empirically the benefits to health

model and the role expansion model (Ross & Altmaier, 1994). These models argue that the active participation of women in work is reflected positively on their physical and mental well-being, which results in a greater ability to manage stressful situations. Therefore, having a good ability to manage the stressors, they are no longer regarded as stressful by the individual.

The results showed that the intention to abandon the profession of chartered accountant did not register significant differences in gender, but regarding the intention to leave the employing institution, it was found that women showed significantly higher levels compared with men. Thus, these results support, to a certain extent, those found by Rasch and Harrell (1990), which show evidence of gender differences in intention to leave the job, but also the results reported by Troutman et al. (2000) which did not reveal any differences. The results of our study suggest that the higher intention of women to leave the employer may be explained by factors not directly evaluated in this study due to the lack of gender differences in the experience of sources of stress. Thus, further research is necessary to deepen the knowledge of the factors that may explain gender differences in the intention to leave the employer, that may be related to various professional and family issues of individual experience (or a combination of all these aspects) of women Portuguese chartered accountants. In fact, there were differences in intention to leave the employing institution, when considering various demographic variables, including age, marital status, number of children, educational time spent in the profession of chartered accountant and time spent in the company where he/she works. In addition, it was found that chartered accountants women were statistically significantly different from chartered accountants men, regarding the demographic variables, which leads us to conclude that the higher drop-out intention of the employer institution in women is due to these variables. More specifically, the results suggest that the intention to leave the employing institution tends to be higher in younger, single, childless, highly educated people, and, that arrive to the profession and to the firm less time ago.

With regard to hypothesis 9, there were no significant differences in the variable intention to abandon the profession of chartered accountant according to the variables: age, marital status, number of children, length of stay in the profession, and length of stay in the company he/she works. This result, following the previously described, leads us to conclude that certain groups (defined according to socio-demographic variables) of Portuguese chartered accountants although they wish a change of the employer institution, they do not question his profession of chartered accountant. That is, this desire can be derived from the expectation of new opportunities for professional growth (change of institution) within the profession of chartered accountant.

The other objectives of this work have focused on the analysis of stressors as predictors of intention to leave (the employing institution and profession of chartered accountant), regardless of gender. The analysis supports the existence of positive associations between classes of stressors and intention to leave, and thus is in tune with those found in previous research (Bartunek & Reynolds, 1983; Greenhaus et al. 1997; Cluskey & Vaux, 1997ab). Despite the associations so far explained, it is also relevant to understand the extent to which different classes of stressors are significant predictors of intention to leave the employing institution (hypothesis 11) and intention to leave the profession of chartered accountant (hypothesis 12). The results are significant as far as 28.5% of the variance of intention to leave the employing institution is explained by all classes of stressors (role stress, time requirements, concerns about career, responsibility for people and conflict home/work) being that the best predictor of intention to leave the employing institution is the role stress. Moreover, as regards the intention to leave the profession of chartered accountant only the

variables of role stress and conflict home/work have a unique and significant contribution in explaining the intention to leave the profession of chartered accountant.

Conclusions

The main contribution of this study is to show the predictive power of stress in the intentions to leave the job and the employing institution. More specifically, the role stress is important in predicting intention to leave the employing institution and the intention to leave the profession of chartered accountant. Therefore managers should be attentive and assign tasks according to the qualifications and skills of employees and should clearly define the procedures and be consistent in the demands, to avoid the role stress and thus job leaving. Additionally, time requirements, concerns with career and conflict home/work also proved important for the intention to leave the employing institution and conflict home/work seems important to the intention to leave the profession of chartered accountant. In this sense we point to a more strategic human resources management, in order to address these issues. Knowledge about the factors that contribute to the experience of stress can contribute to enhance individual awareness and to the promotion of training programs toward the development of coping strategies.

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Mentorship and Retention of Graduate Interns in a South African Information, Communication and Technology Company

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Abstract

The objective of the research was to determine whether mentorship, as part of a graduate internship programme, contributed to the retention of graduate interns in a South African Information Communication and Technology (ICT) company. A Mentorship role survey and Retention survey were administered among a purposive selected sample of graduate interns (N=79) and mentors (N=39). Results showed that mentorship was statistically significantly related to the graduate intern's intention to quit the graduate internship programme. Results further showed a practically significant relationship between the opportunity to apply mentorship skills and the mentor's intention to employ the graduate intern upon completion of the programme. Recommendations are made.

Introduction

Talent retention is an important topic of debate in the Information, Communication and Technology (ICT) sector in South Africa, given the context of a skills shortage, the relative scarcity of specialist employees and the mismatch between the supply from higher education institutions and the demands of the ICT workplace (Frost, 2002; Griesel & Parker, 2009; ISETT SETA, 2005; Kruss, 2005; Paterson, 2007). It is within this context that this study investigated the experiences of both interns and mentors in a graduate intern programme, concomitant with the propensity of graduates to remain in the company after the completion of the programme. The goal of the graduate internship programme is to provide interns with an opportunity to learn from the various areas of expertise of a particular employer (National Skills Development Strategy, 2006). In most cases for the purpose of providing a comprehensive training experience, each intern is assigned to a member of staff who acts as a mentor for that intern. The mentor coordinates the intern's work, supervises efforts, ensures productive use of time, and provides guidance and feedback to the intern (Kram, 1985; Henson, 2006; Janse van Rensburg & Roodt, 2005). The importance of mentorship in the retention of employees has also been widely documented (see Beck-Howard, 2009; Eighst, 2009; Hemson, 2006). Numerous studies have focused on the role of the mentor, with very few focusing on the role of the intern. This research highlights the significance of both parties in the mentorship relationship and the retention of the graduate interns.

Mentorship and Retention of Graduate Interns

Mentoring is a process where a more experienced member of the organisation [mentor] takes responsibility for and actively participates in the systematic development of the skills and leadership abilities of a less experienced member of the organisation [mentee] (Fisher, 2003; Nankivell & Shoolbred, 1997; Regents, 2009). Nankivell and Shoolbred (1997) are also of the

opinion that mentoring places a focus on a one-to-one relationship between mentor and mentee, which ensures individual attention and support for the learner. The role of the mentor is to guide the professional development of the mentee and knowledge, experience and organizational perspectives are shared candidly within a context of mutual respect and trust" (Janse van Rensburg & Roodt, 2005; Kram, 1985).

According to Henson (2006), the mentorship process can include several benefits for the mentee, mentor and organization. The **mentee benefits** include: career advice and advancement, personalised recognition and encouragement, improved self-confidence, learning to cope within formal and informal organisational structures, honest criticism and informal feedback, and possibilities of retention, especially in the case of possession of hard skills. The **mentor benefits** include: improved job satisfaction, career advancement, personal self-development, fresh ideas and feedback concerning projects in progress and assistance in effectively managing projects. The **organisational benefits** include: competent and dependable employees who continue to grow and meet new challenges and obligations, increased productivity, increased commitment, lower rates of staff turnover, team based/participative management, and increased effective communication and cooperation among staff and administrative units.

The mentorship programme's success in most cases depends on a number of crucial factors: management commitment, complete ownership of the process by all role-players involved, organisational readiness, strict criteria for mentors/mentees, training for mentors/mentees/managers of mentees, clear guidelines on the programme which are going to be followed very closely, regular follow-up sessions with role-players in order to solve problems, close monitor of the process regularly and overall evaluation of the process and continuous feedback to management/participants/staff (Janse van Rensburg & Roodt, 2005; Kanye & Crous, 2007; Kram 1985). The implementation of a well planned and structured mentorship programme is thus a vital component of employability and retention (Beck-Howard, 2009; Eighst, 2009). Failing to retain key employees, especially new graduates, is costly for business. Heathfield (2009) maintains that the quality of the supervision an employee receives is critical to employee retention. People leave managers and supervisors more often than they leave companies or jobs. Frequent employee complaints include a lack of clarity about expectations and potential earnings, lack of feedback about performance, failure to hold scheduled meetings and failure to provide a framework within which the employee perceives he/she can succeed (Heathfield, 2009). When employees feel that they are unvalued, it contributes to turnover.

In the light of the preceding the following hypotheses were formalized for the research:

H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between mentorship and the graduate intern's intention to quit the internship programme;

H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between mentorship and the mentor's intention to employ the graduate intern on completion of the internship programme

RESEARCH DESIGN

Research approach

An exploratory, ex post facto quantitative research approach was followed. Ex post facto research is aimed at the discovery of possible causes for behaviour. This type of research

design can aid in identifying those mentorship dimensions of the graduate internship programme that contributes to the graduate's turnover intentions and the mentor's intention to employ graduate interns (Shaunessey & Zechmeister, 1997). In this research, mentorship was the independent variable and intention to quit and intention to employ the dependent variable. Data was collected by means of surveys.

Research Method

Research Participants

This research focused on an ICT company that has implemented a graduate internship programme for IT graduates. A purposive sample was taken from graduate interns (N=79) and Mentors (N=39), who participated in the internship programme during 2007 and 2008. This represented a response rate of 61% for the graduate interns and 75% for the mentors respectively. In this research mentors were primarily male (72%), 30 years and older (90%), had more than 10 years of work experience (87%) and some sort of a tertiary education (84%). Graduate intern respondents were primarily male (52%), aged between 20-24 years (50%) and hold bachelor degrees (64%).

Measuring Instruments

The variables measured in this research were mentorship, intention to quit and intention to employ. Mentorship served as the independent variables whereas intention to quit and intention to employ were measured as dependent variables. A brief description of the measurements is presented below.

- *Mentorship* - An adapted version of the Mentorship Role Questionnaire (Janse Van Rensburg and Roodt, 2005) was used to measure the frequency of interaction, quality of mentorship and the roles of the mentor from the perspective of the graduate intern. The questionnaire measured the frequency of interaction, quality of mentorship and the roles of a mentor. The MRQ measure has a 5-point intensity scale: *to no extent (1)* and *to a large extent (5)*, and *never (1)* to *always (5).* Mentors were asked to indicate the extent to which the graduate internship programme enabled him/ her to act as a mentor on a five point scale ranging from *1 = to no extent* to *5 = to a large extent*.
- *Intention to quit* – Graduate interns were asked to indicate the extent to which they considered quitting the graduate internship programme with 1 item on a five-point scale from 1 to 5: *1 = to no extent* and *5 = to a large extent.*
- *Intention to employ* – Mentors were asked to indicate the extent to which they consider employing the graduate intern on completion of the programme with 1 item on a scale from 1 to 5: *1 = to no extent* and *5 = to a large extent.*

Data Analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out with the SPSS Program (SPSS, 2009). The reliability and validity of the Mentorship Role Questionnaire were determined by means of exploratory factor analysis and Cronbach alpha coefficient. Descriptive statistics (i.e., means, standard deviations) were used to analyse the data. Pearson-product moment correlations were used to analyse the significant relationships between mentorship and intention to quit (graduate intern)/ intention to employ (mentor). A cut-off point of $p < 0,30$ was used for statistical significance.

RESULTS

The results and findings are reported in two tiers. Tier 1 presents the results of the research in a descriptive format. Tier 2 focuses on the testing of the hypotheses.

Tier 1: Descriptive results

Graduate interns were first asked to rate their experience of the mentorship role. The results are reported in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics: Mentor Role Questionnaire

Item	Description	Mean	*SD*	Item	Description	Mean	*SD*
MRQ1	Need for mentor	**4.35**	1.03	**MRQ11**	Mentor encourage intern to prepare for position at organisation	3.63	1.28
MRQ2	Intern interaction with mentor	3.95	1.17	**MRQ12**	Mentor encourages intern to behave alternatively	3.13	1.40
MRQ3	Intern benefit from interactions with mentor	**4.05**	1.26	**MRQ13**	Sharing of personal experiences	3.41	1.31
MRQ4	Professional guidance and direction by mentor	**3.94**	1.22	**MRQ14**	Mentor serves as role model	3.67	1.34
MRQ5	Challenging assignments to improve intern competence	**3.89**	1.25	**MRQ15**	Mentor display content expertise	**3.88**	1.07
MRQ6	Frequency of feedback from mentor	3.44	1.29	**MRQ16**	Mentor's attitudes influences intern's attitudes	3.81	1.15
MRQ7	Respect of mentor for intern	3.58	1.25	**MRQ17**	Mentor share career history	3.53	1.33
MRQ8	Promotion of intern's career	3.62	1.31	**MRQ18**	Mentor provide constructive and useful feedback on intern's performance	**3.85**	1.20
MRQ9	Mentor encourage communication about fears and anxiety	3.68	1.26	**MRQ19**	Appropriate recognition of intern's contributions	3.80	1.20
MRQ10	Mentor convey feelings of empathy for graduate intern	3.56	1.26	**MRQ20**	Motivation to improve intern's work	3.77	1.28

From Table 1 it is evident that the graduate interns perceived the mentorship experience in the organisation positively. The results clearly indicate a need for mentorship as an integral part of the graduate internship programme. On average, other results also indicated that the intern benefited to a large extent from interactions with the mentor, received professional guidance from the mentor, received challenging assignments to improve his/ her competence, mentors displayed content expertise and mentors provided constructive and useful feedback on interns' performance.

Other descriptive results showed that graduate interns (57%) indicated that they never considered quitting the internship programme. Mentors (84,9%) indicated that the internship programme enabled them to apply their mentor skills. Mentors (94.9%) also indicated that they considered employing the graduate intern on completion of the graduate programme.

Tier 2: Testing of Hypotheses

Prior to the testing of the hypotheses, the Mentorship Role Questionnaire (MRQ) was subjected to a factor and reliability analysis. Item scores were inter-correlated and these matrices were subjected to the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's tests for suitability for factor analyses. A MSA of 0.928 was obtained which according to the guideline of higher than 0.6 (Hair et al, 1998) is adequate for factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis resulted in a one-factor structure for the MRQ. The factor, labelled mentorship showed an acceptable Cronbach Alpha of 0.972 (Cohen, 1988).

Next Pearson product moment correlations were performed to test the hypotheses in this research. The results of the correlation between Mentorship and graduate interns' intention to quit are reported in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Correlation Coefficient Between Mentorship and Intention to Quit

		Mentoring	Intention to Quit
Mentoring	Pearson Correlation	1	-.276*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.019
Intention to Quit	Pearson Correlation	-.276*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.019	

* Statistically significant: $p < 0,01$
+ Practically significant correlation (medium effect): $r > 0,30$
++ Practically significant correlation (large effect): $r > 0,50$

Table 2 shows a statistically significant coefficient between mentor role experiences and the graduate intern's intention to quit. Further Pearson correlations were done to identify the elements of mentorship that are significantly related to the graduate intern's intention to quit the internship programme. Results showed a practically significant correlation of a medium effect between the frequency of interaction with a mentor ($r_{(df = 79;\ p < 0.001)} = -0,363$), benefit from interaction with a mentor ($r_{(df = 79;\ p < 0.001)} = -0,363$), professional guidance and direction from the mentor ($r_{(df = 79;\ p < 0.001)} = -0,389$), mentor providing challenging assignments to improve intern's competence ($r_{(df = 79;\ p < 0.001)} = -0,341$), mentor conveying feelings of respect for the intern ($r_{(df = 79;\ p < 0.001)} = -0,335$), mentor serving as a role model ($r_{(df = 79;\ p < 0.001)} = -0,383$), mentor providing constructive and useful feedback ($r_{(df = 79;\ p < 0.001)} = -0,331$), mentor acknowledge intern's contribution appropriately ($r_{(df = 79;\ p < 0.001)} = -0,339$) and the intern's intention to quit the graduate internship programme. Results further showed a statistically significant correlation between mentor providing career guidance ($r_{(df = 79;\ p < 0.001)} = -0,261$, emotional support ($r_{(df = 79;\ p < 0.001)} = -0,234$)and the intern's intention to quit the internship programme. The correlations were all negative which indicates that the greater attention mentors pay attention to the significant aspects of mentorship listed above, the less likely the graduate intern will consider quitting the graduate internship programme and vice versa. Hypothesis 1 is therefore accepted.

The results of the correlations between the Mentor's intention to employ the graduate intern and opportunity to apply mentoring skills are reported in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Correlation Coefficient Between Mentor's Intention to Employ versus Opportunity to Apply Mentoring Skills

			Mentoring	Intention to Employ
Kendall's tau–b	Mentoring	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.455**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001
	Intention to Employ	Correlation Coefficient	.455**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.

* Statistically significant: $p < 0,01$
+ Practically significant correlation (medium effect): $r > 0,30$
++ Practically significant correlation (large effect): $r > 0,50$

Table 3 shows a practically significant relationship of a medium effect between mentor's intention to employ graduate interns and the extent to which mentors were given the opportunity to apply their mentoring skills. Hypothesis 2 is therefore accepted.

DISCUSSION

The objective of this research was to determine whether mentorship, as part of a graduate internship programme, contributed to the retention of graduate interns in a South African ICT company. On average, results indicated that the intern benefited to a large extent from interactions with the mentor, received professional guidance from the mentor, received challenging assignments to improve his/ her competence, mentors displayed content expertise and mentors provided constructive and useful feedback on the interns' performance. The results are in line with Hemson (2006) suggestion that mentee benefits include: career advice and advancement, personalised recognition and encouragement, improved self-confidence, learning to cope with the formal and informal structure of the company, honest criticism and informal feedback. Results also showed that the graduate internship programme allowed the majority of mentors to apply their mentorship skills and that they will consider employing the graduate interns on completion of the internship programme. The results confirm the mentor and organizational benefits in the mentorship process as indicated by Hemson (2006).

The relationship between mentorship and the intern' intention to quit was negative, which means that the more positive the graduate interns experience mentorship, the less frequently he/she will consider quitting the graduate internship programme. The results are in line with research that found that companies with a mentoring program have reported a significant improvement in employee retention, organizational learning, leadership training and career development (Beck-Howard, 2009; Hemson, 2006). Casey, Fink, Krugman and Probst (cited in Eigst, 2009) further indicated that a climate encouraging socialization via mentoring precedes the successful transition of graduate nurses to competent co-workers. The quality of supervision and mentorship an employee receives is thus critical to employee retention. The results also showed a positive significant relationship between mentorship and the mentor's intention to employ the graduate intern. This means that the greater the extent to which a mentor is allowed to practice his/her mentorship skills in the graduate internship programme, the more likely he/ she will consider employing the graduate intern.

Limitations

A limitation of the research was the sample size and the use of a purposive sample, which means the findings cannot be generalised to other organisations. The research however identified and confirmed the importance of mentorship that may be of relevance to other organisations for the employability and retention of graduate interns. The electronic nature of the research questionnaire posed a limitation to those participants in the population group that did not have access to the organisation's network system. This may be a possible explanation for the low response rate of mentors.

Recommendations

Mentoring is pivotal to the success of the graduate internship programme and mentoring training should be considered as a pre-requisite for any employee that is considered to fulfil the role of mentor. The benefit of mentorship skills through mentor training will have positive effects for all employees managed by a mentor and not only the interns. Mentoring must take the form of a structured development programme and not merely a management-by-incident approach. It is important that mentors are involved in setting the daily tasks and objectives of the intern, monitor the progress of the intern on a regular basis and provide them with feedback on their progress.

Conclusion

The absence of any research in the South African environment with regards to graduate interns' and mentors' perception on the role and relationship of mentorship in the implementation of a graduate internship programme, makes this research stand out as unique and exploratory in the domain. From this research, it is evident that there is a need for mentorship as an integral part of the graduate internship programme. Findings indicated that a graduate intern's intention to quit the graduate internship programme was significantly related to the frequency and benefit of interactions with a mentor, professional direction and career guidance, constructive and useful feedback, appropriate recognition of contributions, respect and emotional support. A mentor who guides, supports and counsels youth as they navigate their way through the world of work, will thus yield positive results, especially from the intern's point of view

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The Relationship of Career Commitment to Satisfaction, Support and Stress[1]

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Abstract

The importance of frontline employees' boundary spanning roles for securing customer satisfaction with rendered services is established in research. However, employee commitment is a major problem in the hospitality industry, and luxury hotels, which provide mostly better compensation, are not exempt of that. In this study, the effects of satisfaction with rewards, satisfaction with work and work environment, perceived support from the organization as well as peers, and stress symptoms on frontline employees' career commitment were investigated. Data come from 163 frontline employees of 10 luxury hotels in Istanbul. The analyses revealed that career commitment was mainly determined by satisfaction with work and work environment, in addition to symptoms of stress experienced by the employees.

Introduction

The work commitment of employees of all levels has been a major concern in organizational behavior for several decades, because of its link with organizationally relevant outcomes were supported by massive body of research. However, with increasing concerns of employers on "employee loyalty" and "involvement" in recent years, a reexamination (Goulet & Singh, 2002) may be timely. There have been several attempts to put side by side the different conceptualizations of work commitment (e.g., Carmeli, Elizur & Yaniv, 2007; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2001). Among those conceptualizations, work, job, career and organizational commitment are the most commonly investigated ones, and these constructs were often found to tap different aspects of professional or vocational commitment (Carmeli, et al., 2007). Although there is a growing interest in the organizational commitment construct in recent decades (Wasti, 2003), Robbins and Judge (2010, p. 76) argued that "something akin to occupational commitment" has become more relevant variable compared to organizational commitment, in an era where the "..unwritten loyalty contract that existed 30 years ago between employees and employers has been seriously damaged, and the notion that employees staying with a single organization for most of their career has become increasingly irrelevant." Therefore, investigating career commitments of non-managerial employees could provide a fresh look.

A driving concern in hospitality industry members in different parts of the world is voluntary turnover of the qualified employees (Cho, Johanson & Guchait, 2009; Kim, Murrman & Lee, 2009). In fact, Iverson and Deery (1997) coined in the term "turnover culture" to describe this phenomenon, because hospitality industry worldwide continues to hold the greatest turnover rates across its different segments. The above mentioned annual turnover rates range between 60 to 240 percent in different segments of the industry (Robinson & Barron, 2007), and a recent research in luxury hotel sector in Turkiye -the segment the present investigation

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focused upon- concluded that there was 85 percent turnover (Bas-Collins, 2007). Because the frontline employees act as boundary spanning agents of their organization, their intention to stay with their establishment was deemed important for securing guest satisfaction (e.g., Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe & Avci, 2003; Bernhardt, Donthu & Kennett, 2000). Therefore, new knowledge that would help to increase commitment of frontline employees in all segments of the hospitality industry could be said to find an echo.

In the commitment literature, the terms career, profession and occupation have been used interchangeably most of the times (Irving, 1997). Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) suggested using the term "occupation", as they argued that "career" creates somewhat ambiguity in terms of its meaning. They contended that since both professionals and nonprofessional can experience commitment to the work they do, the term "profession" is also not suitable. Blau (1985, p. 278) draws a parallel line, while defining career commitment "as one's attitude towards one's profession or vocation". Carmeli and colleagues (2007) contended that career commitment as an attitude, does not lend itself to be manipulated easily, whereas organizational commitment may show variations over an employees' lifetime. This argument points once again to the interactive, yet distinct natures of these two constructs. In the same vein, Meyer et al. (1993) developed an occupational commitment scale in conjunction to their well known Three Component Organizational Commitment model. In the above cited study, the authors showed that these two constructs tap different aspects of work commitment, and thus should be measured independently. In the following decades, there have been a number of studies that investigate both organizational commitment (see Meyer et al., 2001) and although less frequently the career commitment constructs (see Goulet & Singh, 2002) and their impacts on employee behavior. After examining the interactions of work, job, organizational and career commitment, Carmeli et al. (2007) concluded that employing multiple commitment measures is justifiable, since a combination of these measurements may provide more comprehensive information than a single general measure.

As discussed before, the terms "occupation", "profession" and "career" were often used interchangeably in the commitment literature. To reduce this terminological confusion in the remainder of the paper, occupational and professional commitment will be referred to as career commitment. After their meta-analysis, Meyer et al. (2001) concluded that career commitment contribute beyond organizational commitment to organizationally relevant outcomes such as retention and OCB, and suggested organizations might benefit from efforts to foster career commitment without the fear of undermining organizational commitment. In other words, it could be suggested that investing career commitment of employees could help to increase the employees' intention to stay with their current employer, as well as their conduct of organizationally desirable work behaviors. The main aim of the present investigation was studying the attitude of the non-managerial hotel frontline employees toward their vocation, and career commitment was deemed appropriate as the dependent variable of the study. This decision was based on the fact that careers today may consist of several different jobs over the course of ones working life for the large share of working people, and an investigation that takes this change into account may fit the current day reality more closely (Hess & Jepsen, 2009; Robbins & Judge, 2010).

According to Cho et al. (2009) the hospitality industry suffers one of the greatest turnover rates primarily due to low wages, strain that is caused by shift schedules, and social perception of entry-level jobs. This assertion could be tested given that it would be possible to measure these primary drivers which lead employees to turnover with some proxy variables. In the present investigation, it was decided to measure the effects of pay and compensations through assessing the frontline employees' satisfaction with financial rewards as well as satisfaction with work and work environment. Job satisfaction is determined by many factors'

and it is more closely tied to the organization than to one's supervisors because there seems to be more determinants of job satisfaction that are attributable to organization, such as working conditions as argued by Leung et al. (2009). Moreover, strain that is caused by shift schedules has been shown to have substantial impact on psychological and behavioral outcomes of the hotel frontline staff (Karatepe & Sokmen, 2006), as the front-of-the-house departments operate around the clock. Therefore, stress measured through the level of experienced symptoms by the frontline employees was also included into the present framework as a primary determinant of career commitment. Lastly, social perception of the frontline job needed to be assessed to complete the proposed model; however, it would be very difficult to make such an assessment due to social desirability issues. Nevertheless, it could be suggested that the amount of social support that the employees would get from their organization and peers could be expected to help in employees' intention to leave as hinted by Cho et al. (2009) after a recent study conducted in the hospitality industry. Looking at the picture that is canvassed from earlier research, it could be argued that an investigation of the factors that may have substantial impact on employees' commitment is a useful line of research, and for that end, the impacts of two facets of employee satisfaction, again two facets of perceived support, and level of stress symptoms on career commitment were investigated to get a deeper understanding on luxury hotel frontline employees in Istanbul.

Methodology

Procedures and Sample

Frontline staff who participated in the study were employees luxury hotels in Istanbul. The management of 15 randomly selected hotels were approached to get the necessary permissions; consequently, 10 hotels management gave permission to administer the questionnaire to their staff for data collection. In total, 300 questionnaires and self-seal envelopes were left with the Human Resource Departments to be distributed to the frontline employees. Each questionnaire included a Letter of Information, which gave an overall information about the research project, insured the participants about the confidentiality. The respondents were also asked to seal the questionnaire in the provided envelop after filling, and if they chose to not fill it return the questionnaire in the same way. In coordination with the 10 hotels' Human Resource Departments, the sealed envelops were collected within approximately three weeks after their distribution. All together, 183 sealed envelopes were returned and after eliminating the blank and the questionnaires filled by inappropriate personnel, 163 questionnaires (%56 percent return rate) were found usable. The mean age of the respondents was 29.7 (S.D. = 6.7). Males were overrepresented in the sample (60% males) and a clear majority of the respondents were single (67.3%); similar figures are often observed among the frontline hotel employees. Almost all of the respondents were employed on full-time basis by their establishments (95%), and on average their tenure in their current position (M = 35.0; S.D. = 48.0; in months) was parallel to their tenure in the employing hotel (M = 35.2; S.D. = 35.6; in months) and was approximately three years.

Measures

Dependent Variable

Career commitment was measured using Blau's (1985) scale. Responses on the eight-item instrument were recorded on a 5-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Items are summed to create a scale score. The scale scores range from 8 to 40 with higher scores indicating higher commitment to career. Questions are worded as, for example, 'I definitely want a career for myself in the this profession.' 'I am disappointed that I ever entered this profession.' Scores are reversed in three items, such as the latter item, in constructing the scale score. The alpha reliability for the scale in this study was .88.

Independent Variables

Job satisfaction scale was developed by Spector (1997). Parallel to earlier research (e.g., Zeytinoglu et al., 2006) two facets of job satisfaction measured here: "Satisfaction with Financial Rewards" (Cronbach's alpha 0.86) and "Work and Work Related Satisfaction" (Cronbach's alpha 0.89). The former facet of satisfaction is operationalized as satisfaction with pay, promotional opportunities and fringe benefits and consists of eight questions. The latter facet of satisfaction, on the other hand, consists of satisfaction with supervisor, contingent rewards, co-workers, type of work done (nature of work) and communications and consists of 24 questions. The sub-scale "rules and procedures (operating conditions)", which existed in the original of the scale, showed a very low sub-section reliability, and thus was excluded from the study.

Symptoms of stress scale developed by Denton et al. (2002) was employed. Respondents are presented with 14 symptoms of stress (e.g., "feel exhausted at the end of the day", "feel burnt out", "feel like there is 'nothing more to give") and are asked (on a five-point scale ranging from 1 = none of the time to 5 = all of the time) how often they felt this way during the past month. The symptoms of stress scale score is obtained by summing the 14 stress symptoms. Stress scores range from 14 (lowest) to 70 (highest). The scale showed a good reliability with Cronbach's alpha being 0.81. However, an investigation -as with other variables - showed a problem of linearity, and thus the scale score went trough the necessary transformation.

Organizational support scale using a nine-item Likert items and *Peer support* scale using the four-items adapted from Denton et al. (2002). Organizational support scale consists of items concerning perceptions about how much of the needs and thoughts of employees are taken into account by the organization and the immediate supervisor. Peer support items are about perceptions of help, attention, etc. received by the employees from their coworkers. Both scales showed a good reliability with Cronbach's alphas of .91 and .90, respectively.

Control variables included age, gender, marital status, tenure in the employing hotel, tenure in the position, job status (full-time, part-time, on call) and education. This list was prepared matching the variables with Goulet and Singh's (2002) investigation that was devoted in the investigation of the factors that have potential impact on career commitment. In the regression analysis, gender (male = 1) and marital status (single = 1), were entered as dummy variables. Two of the control variables, namely tenure in the employing hotel and position tenure, i.e. experience in the particular frontline job, showed moderate but significant correlation ($r = .60$, $p<.001$). To control for potential multicollienarity effects, variance inflation factor (VIF) for all variables in that were included into the regression analysis were obtained. None of the figures calculated for the study variables pointed towards a potential problem as all VIFs were below 4; the common cut-off criterion for multicollienarity.

Results

Following the questionnaire administration, the data was transmitted to SPSS and for each subscale an index score was obtained. The descriptive figures and bivariate correlations

between the study variables are shown in Table 1. All study variables were found to correlate at least moderately with career commitment and all correlations were significant at a substantial degree. Therefore, the study variables were deemed suitable for using as factors in a regression analysis with career commitment being the dependent variable.

Table 1. Correlations among the Study Variables

	Mean (S.D.)	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Career commitment	29.1 (7.4)	[.88]					
2. Stress symptoms	26.9 (6.5)	-.36***	[.81]				
3. Organization support	36.1 (7.6)	.30***	-.31***	[.91]			
4. Peer support	16.8 (3.4)	.30***	-.26**	.66***	[.90]		
5. Reward satisfaction	37.7 (9.9)	.45***	-.47***	.33***	.31***	[.86]	
6. Work env. satisfaction	88.9 (14.2)	.57***	-.51***	.45***	.48***	.76***	[.89]

Note: *Correlations statistically significant at .05 level. **Correlations statistically significant at .01 level. ***Correlations statistically significant at .001 level. The numbers in the square brackets are Cronbach's Alphas calculated for the employed subscales.

None of the above listed control variables produced a significant effect in this analysis. When the study variables were included into the model, it produced an R^2 of 32 percent, indicating the independents explained the variance in career commitment at this level and this result was statistically significant ($F [12, 70] = 2.77$, $p<.01$). A closer investigation of the Beta weights revealed that the primary determinant for this group of respondents were satisfaction with work and work environment (Beta = 2.827, $p<.01$) with a positive impact, and level of stress symptoms (Beta = -2.099, $p<.05$) with a negative influence. Although not strongly, position tenure (Beta = -1.783, $p<.10$) also emerged as a barely significant variable which pointed also towards a negative influence of this factor. The results of the regression model are shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2. The Regression of Factors Associated with Career Commitment

Independent Variables	**Beta**	**t-test**	**Sig.** (two-tailed)
Age	.049	.389	ns
Gender	-.045	-.387	ns
Marital status	.043	.370	ns
Tenure in the hotel	.207	1.481	ns
Job status	.012	.108	ns
Education	.056	.499	ns
Position tenure	-.263	-1.783	.079
Stress symptoms	-.278	-2.099	.039
Organization support	-.123	-.853	ns
Peer support	-.102	-.712	ns
Reward satisfaction	-.130	-.784	ns
Work env. satisfaction	.540	2.827	.006
R^2 of the Model		.322	

Note: All regression coefficients are standardized.

Discussion

The importance of boundary spanning roles of frontline employees for securing customer satisfaction with rendered services was established by numerous researches (e.g., Babakus et al., 2003; Bernhardt at al., 2000). However, high turnover is a major problem in all segments of tourism sector, and luxury hotels are not exempt of that. Recently, Cho and colleagues (2009) asserted that the hospitality industry suffers one of the greatest turnover rates primarily due to low wages, strain that is caused by shift schedules, and social perception of entry-level jobs. The present study examined the effects of perceived support from organization and peers, level of stress symptoms as well as satisfaction with rewards, and satisfaction with work and work environment on the frontline employees' career commitment. The main aim here was to provide explanations on some factors that could be central for frontline employees' career commitment. In fact, satisfaction with work and work environment emerged as the most crucial factor that contributes positively to career commitment. Looking more closely into this variable, one finds that satisfaction with their supervisor, contingent rewards given for good performance, i.e. the extent to which employees work been appreciated, amount of burdening rules and procedures, relationship with co-workers, meaningfulness of the type of work done, and finally the communication within the organization, were the most important among others for the frontline employees that were included to the sample. As an outcome, it could be suggested that this result points for the most part to the direction of three basic human needs: sensations of increased autonomy, increased meaningfulness and decreased isolation. Thus, the business establishments should embrace processes that sends clear signs of that they have confidence in the abilities of their employees, their contribution to the firm appreciated and would be supported when they have to face circumstances that demands such support.

Interestingly enough, satisfaction with financial rewards was not a primary determinant for career commitment for this group. It could be suggested that this sample of frontline employees were gaining relatively high income as an outcome of being employed by luxury hotels, and thus Cho et al.'s (2009) assertion did not typically apply to this segment of the industry. However, the results supported their assertion that strain caused by the job itself - and very likely by shift schedules- to the extent it results in stress symptoms, indeed had a negative influence of the respondents' career commitment. Moreover, the length of time the respondents were doing the same job also had a negative but relatively modest influence on career commitment. It could be suggested that to tackle problems that are caused by stress and fatigue caused by routinized jobs, practices in the luxury hotels should be revised to include more occasions for variability in the work. The present study results pointed to the direction of an improvement that could be achieved in job satisfaction and support within the organization would be useful to reduce employees' stress symptoms. As these symptoms often result in decreased productivity at work (Karatepe & Sokmen, 2002) and increases the propensity of leaving the establishment (Zeytinoglu et al., 2006). However, one should also note that neither organizational support nor peer support had a significant effect on career commitment, and the only variable that had an impact in the desired direction was satisfaction with work and work environment. Therefore, for future research this variable's effect on both career commitment and stress symptoms could be investigated more closely with other samples. Finally, an investigation of career commitment in conjunction with organizational commitment on samples derived from different industries could also be suggested to be a fruitful venue of future research with the aim of broadening knowledge on work commitment.

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Employee Commitment: Measurement Equivalence Tests Across Two Points of Time in Different Cultural Contexts

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Abstract

Understanding organisational commitment is important since it has both theoretical and practical implications. The emphasis of current analysis was to verify its measurement characteristics for the purpose of comparing of levels of commitment across two points in time (1997-2005) and seven countries (the US, the UK, West Germany and East Germany, Japan, Hungary and Slovenia). It is a prerequisite of meaningful comparisons across countries to first establish measurement equivalence of items that purport to measure same concepts in different countries. We follow standard estimation procedures, terminology and notations (Billiet, Welkenhuysen-Gybels, 2004). There is an indication that changes through time and differences among countries are substantive and not measurement artefacts, which is always a plausible alternative explanation if no such test is performed.

Introduction

In this paper we will analyse employee commitment from cross-national and time perspectives (Tsui et al., 2007). A multidimensional perspective on organizational commitment was used. The most thoroughly validated model of organizational commitment is Meyer and Alen's (1991). An emphasis of the current analysis was to verify its measurement characteristics, for the purpose of comparing levels of commitment across time and countries. The goals of the present study are three-fold. First of all, the paper aims to test two attitudinal latent variables of commitment namely affective and continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Jaussi, 2007).The second is to test the methodological appropriateness of comparative analysis of commitment in cross-country and cross-time perspective. The third is to observe the differences in the level of employee commitment in different national contexts regarding the changes in economic, cultural and organizational environment.

A limited set of countries was chosen among those available in a sample from the data on Work Orientations II, ISSP 1997, purposefully selected to reflect cultural and structural differences that were expected to effect change in levels of organisational commitment. With the use of structural equation models we first confirmed that a model for configurable invariance for two factors measuring conceptually distinct components of Affective commitment (AC) and Continuance commitment (CC) respectively has better support than that of a one factor model. Metric and error term invariance was subsequently confirmed. Scalar equivalence, needed for valid comparison of mean levels of both components of commitment was confirmed as well, with the exception of two countries, specifically the Tau coefficient. Finally, a model thus established was applied additionally onto data from 2005 ISSP. An acceptable fit was achieved for a common model containing both points in time and

all countries, which allowed making more firm conclusions about the changes in AC and CC in different countries.

Cross-cultural and time comparison

Over the last decade an interest in cross-cultural research concerning employee work attitudes has emerged (Lincoln & Kalleberg 1985; Vanderberghe, et al.2001; Williams, et al. 1998; Rigotti, et al. 2007). Tsui et al. (2007) analyzed 93 empirical studies published in the 16 leading management journals from 1996 to 2005. They highlight the need for a nuance

differentiation among nations which are generally considered to belong to the same cultural cluster. They argued that the main limitations of cross-cultural studies is that culture is not measured directly, which imposes limitations on the internal validity of such studies and leaves open the possibility of an alternative explanation. Country proxy was used in the statistical analyses. This paper examined samples from seven countries and it was assumed that culture is a country-level variable rather than measuring cultural values at the individual level. Our primary interest was in comparing attitudinal differences and similarities among seven countries rather than with testing specific hypotheses about the impact of individual-level differences in values.

Tsui, et al. (2007) argued that culture is not a static phenomenon. They urge for developing dynamic models of culture by tracking changes in culture over time and the effect of cultural change. For example Ralston et al. (2006) found cultural values changed much more in China than in the US in the recent 12-year period. Recognizing and incorporating the likelihood of cultural change is especially important for those scholars who study nations with rapid economic, technological, and social development. Recognizing and incorporating the likelihood of cultural change is especially important for those scholars who study nations with rapid economic, technological, and social development (Glazer, Carole & Short, 2007).

Organizational Commitment

Most influential definitions of commitment are those of Modway et al. (1974), O' Reilly & Chatman (1986) and Mayer & Allen (1997) Modway's definition of organizational commitment is seen as the "strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation". Meyer & Allen's (1997) model and definition, which has received a great deal of research attention (Vandenberghe, 2008; Snape, 2008) includes three dimensions: effective, continuance and normative commitment. The three components of commitment are considered to be psychological states which employees experience to differing degrees. Each individual is assumed to experience the components of commitment in varying strengths. This model is perhaps the most empirically tested and says that employees with high Affective commitment (AC) stay in an organization because they wish to; employees with high continuance commitment (CC) stay because they need to; employees with high normative commitment (NC) stay because they must. In general studies provide support for three-factor model relative to alternative factor structures (Chen & Francesco, 2003; Lee et al., 2001).

We employ this model as a theoretical background of our analysis. Definition of AC is stated as referring to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization. Since attitudinal (Affective) commitment has been identified as most strongly related to job performance, attendance and organizational citizenship behaviours it deserved a great deal of attention. On the other hand it was put into operation in many ways and each time some elements were captured and others omitted (Gelade at al., 2008). In our analysis limit ourselves to two dimensions of AC: (1) identification with organization and (2) willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization. CC refers to an employee's awareness that costs are associated with leaving of the organization. It is associated with an employee's perceptions of employment alternatives. The employee who thinks he or she has several viable alternatives will have a weaker CC than those who think their alternatives are few (Meyer& Allen, 1997). The authors argue that the intention to leave the organization is negatively related to all three components of organizational commitment. In our analysis CC is measured with one item only and includes the likelihood of: "staying in the organization although there might be good chances on the labour market". Normative commitment was not included in our analysis.

Measurement invariance

It is a prerequisite of meaningful comparisons across countries to first establish measurement equivalence of items that purport to measure same concepts in different countries. It can be quite a challenge to achieve full measurement equivalence when dealing with a variety of cultures, languages and populations.

We follow standard estimation procedures, terminology and notations (Billiet, Welkenhuysen-Coenders et al., 2004; Reeskens, Hooghe, 2008).

Data

The analysis was performed based on the data on Work Orientations II, ISSP 1997 (ISSP, 1997) that was replicated in 2005 (ISSP, 2005). The questionnaire was carried out on random multistage samples of the adult population in every country with the realisation of N=1000 respondents or more. The actual number of respondents in our samples reported in the results section is somewhat lower (above N=500 except East Germany) due to the fact that only the employed population was a target of the present analysis. The fieldwork was done in the same years, 1997 and 2005, in different countries except in the USA where it ended in May 1998 and August 2006 respectively. The response rates for the 1997 round were around 70% except in Germany and Great Britain where they reached exactly 50% in each country. For 2005 this worsened, where Slovenia and Japan retained a response rate above 60% and the remaining countries between 40 and 50% (See details in ZA 2001).

Results

We estimated the subsequent models using Lisrel 8.80 students' edition (Jöreskog, Sörbom, 2006). We used one from the family of descriptive fit indices (NNFI – Non-normed Fit Index)

and one from the family of alternative fit indices (RMSEA – Root mean square error of approximation). The desirable values for NNFI are closer to 1 and that 0,95 is a lower bound for reasonable model fit, while for RMSEA values close to 0,05 are a norm.

Table 2: Models of seven country measurement equivalence on four items of affective and continuance commitment by two periodes (Source ISSP 1997 and 2005)

	Model	N	χ 2	df	NNFI	RMSEA
M1	**Configurable invariance 2 factors (AC, CC), 1997/8**	3890	**24**	**7**	**0,95**	**0,08**
M2	Configurable invariance 1 factor, 1997/8	3890	212	14	0,83	0,16
M3	**Metric invariance (λjG1 = λjG2 = ... = λjG7), 1997/8**	3890	**65**	**19**	**0,97**	**0,07**
M4	**Error term invariance (δjG1 = δjG2 = ... = δjG7), 1997/8**	3890	**129**	**43**	**0,98**	**0,06**
M5	Scalar equivalence (τjG1 = τjG2 = ... = τjG7), 1997/8	3890	314	55	0,95	0,08
M6	**Submodel (M5): + Free τ4 Hungary, 1997/8**	**3890**	**195**	**54**	**0,97**	**0,07**
M7	**Submodel (M6) + Free τ4 Germany West , 1997/8**	**3890**	**169**	**53**	**0,97**	**0,06**
M8	**Model 7 applied on 1997/8 and 2005/6 data**	**7615**	**260**	**81**	**0,98**	**0,06**

From the results in table 2 one can observe that we first established the model for 1997/8 data for 7 countries. In comparison of the models one can see that (M1) of two factors solution outperformed the alternative one factor model (M3). Subsequent more constraint models (M3 and M4) obtained a reasonably good fit, while (M5) Scalar equivalence or full score invariance model was on the edge of an acceptable fit. The modification indices showed that same country specific parameters needed to be introduced, namely the 'change work' item scalar values in Hungary and West part of Germany looks to be biased in a different direction than in the rest of the countries. After allowing for country specific estimates for these items to be intercepted, a good fit is obtained again.

It is not possible to estimate the same chain of models for 2005/6 data as it does not contain a second observed item of CC (Change work). With only three observed items one cannot distinguish two-factorial solution. Instead we were able to confirm a set of pair wise comparisons of models for particular countries for both periods. In order to test the model for 2005/6 data as well, we used pseudo-values for that part (1 for variances and 0 for covariance and means) and fixed them in an incomplete data model, so as to be able to estimate values of latent constructs in that data set as well. An excessively good fit was obtained in all 7 cases for the fully constrained model which confirms the assumption that the functioning of items in a ten-year period in each particular country remains the same.

We also used the same logic of dealing with the item omitted in estimating the last model, which tests the previous cross-country equality constraint model (M7) on the data from 1997/8 and 2005/6 altogether. Thus established model (M8) performed even slightly better than the previous one.

Table 4: Estimates of scalar equivalence measurement model for four items of affective (AC) and continuance commitment (CC) by two periods (M8) (Source ISSP 1997 and 2005*)

Items	**λ (Standardised Solution)**				**specific**	
	ξ AC	**ξ CC**	**Reliability**	**τj (equality constraint)**	**τj Hungary**	**τj West Germany**
Work harder for firm	0,60	(-)	0,36	3,51	(-)	(-)
Proud to firm	0,88	(-)	0,78	3,44	(-)	(-)
Stay with organisation	(-)	0,65	0,46	2,60	(-)	(-)
Change work	(-)	0,59	0,39	3,03	3,59	3,27
Country	**Φ ξ AC* ξ CC**		**κAC**		**κCC**	
	1997/8	**2005/6**	**1997/8**	**2005/06**	**1997/8**	**2005/6**
USA	0,71	0,85	0,34	0,50	-0,08	0,19
East Germany	0,82	0,69	0 (fixed)	0,27	0 (fixed)	0,05
Great Britain	0,86	0,85	0,09	0,22	-0,04	0,00
Slovenia	0,77	0,65	0,20	0,18	-0,18	0,09
West Germany	0,65	0,69	0,02	0,17	0,02	0,34
Japan	0,67	0,75	0,15	0,16	0,49	0,92
Hungary	0,85	0,96	0,01	-0,05	-0,35	-0,31

* ISSP 2005 data set does not contain a second variable of CC (Change work). We used pseudo-values for that part (1 for variances and 0 for covariance and means) and fix them in an incomplete data model, so as to be able to estimate values of to estimate values of latent constructs in that data set as well.

Estimates of the parameters form the last model are presented in table 4. We concentrate on κAC and κCC parameters. If we compare this with the descriptive results in table 5 and 6 which includes means, ranks and a t-test for variables of affective and continuance commitment in each country included in the study for the years 1997 and 2005 the same broad conclusions can be reached about the order and direction of change of AC and CC. The difference is that for the latent means we have additional ground to believe that these are valid comparisons, not affected by measurement errors.

The Table 5 includes means, ranks and t-test for variables of affective and continuance commitment in each country included in the study for the year 1997 and 2005.

Table 5: Affective commitment (AC) – mean, rank and change, ISSP, 1997 and 2005

	Work harder for firm (Mean)		Proud to firm (Mean)		Average rank		Work harder for firm		Proud to firm	
	1997/8	2005/6	1997/8	2005/6	1997/8	2005/6	Δt1-t0		Δt1-t0	
USA	3,9	4,1	3,9	4,1	1	1	0,2	***	0,2	***
East Germany	3,6	3,7	3,5	3,9	5	2	0,2	*	0,4	***
Great Britain	3,6	3,7	3,6	3,8	3	3	0,1		0,2	***
Slovenia	3,6	3,5	3,8	3,8	2	4	-0,1	**	0,0	
West Germany	3,5	3,6	3,5	3,7	7	4	0,1	*	0,2	***
Japan	3,6	3,6	3,6	3,6	3	6	0,0		0,0	
Hungary	3,6	3,4	3,5	3,4	5	7	-0,2	**	-0,1	

***Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.001; *** Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.01; * Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05

Comparing the mean differences in two variables that showed AC (work harder for firm and proud in the firm) in two points in time for each country, it can be seen that AC in some countries increased significantly (East and West Germany, the US, and the UK) and in other countries decreased (Hungary and Slovenia) or stayed the same (Japan). The Preliminary conclusions therefore show that those countries with an increase in AC are a part of cultures with individualistic value orientation. They equally respond to the present situation.

A decrease in AC can be observed in Hungary and Slovenia. In Slovenia and Hungary employment activity is becoming higher compared to the situation in 1997. This same trend of decreasing AC can be explained by culture. According with Hofstede (1980) these two countries belong to collectivistic cultures, where these value orientations can form a specific work ethics that support AC. Snape et al (2008) also argued that collectivist societies place greater emphasis on loyalty to the group and on social obligations than do more ndividualistic Western societies. But our data show that these two countries are part of the same trend of decreasing in AC. It might be that the collectivistic culture is becoming weaker as a determinant of AC. Since globalisation and flexibility have reached these countries as well, the absence of HRM policies (which drive job satisfaction and job quality) that can mitigate these bad implications for workers, the drop of AC can be explained as a withdrawal of adherence from the side of employees. An additional explanation might be that older generations of employees had left the labour market. Younger generations change value orientations towards individualism. This is something to be investigated in further analyses of AC determinants in these countries.

From comparing average ranks AC increased in the US, the UK, West Germany and East Germany. In the US the increase is probably due to a more extensive use of HRM focused on high commitment policy(Kwon, 2007). In the UK the increase of AC can be explained by higher employment and probably by a more extensive use of HRM focused on highcommitment and high job satisfaction in the work place (Holbeche, 2005). Regarding average ranks the AC decreased in all collectivistic countries (Hungary, Slovenia and Japan). Maybe job insecurity, the lower quality of jobs and lower job satisfaction weakened culture as the antecedence of AC.

Table 6: Continuance commitment (CC) – mean, rank and change, ISSP 1997 and 2005

	Stay with organisation (Mean)		Rank		Stay with organisation	
	1997/8	2005/6	1997/8	2005/6	Δt1-t0	
Japan	3,1	3,5	1	1	0,4	***
West Germany	2,6	2,9	2	2	0,3	***
USA	2,6	2,8	2	3	0,2	***
Slovenia	2,4	2,7	6	4	0,3	***
East Germany	2,5	2,6	4	5	0,1	
Great Britain	2,5	2,6	4	5	0,1	
Hungary	2,2	2,3	7	7	0,1	

*** Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.001; *** Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.01; * Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05;

CC increased significantly in four countries (Japan, West Germany, the US and Slovenia) and non-significantly in three country (East Germany, Great Britain and Hungary). The trend is

obvious and it can be explained by worsening conditions in employment relationships. An employed person believing that he or she does not have a better alternative for employment in the labour market, will raise the value of their present job and will increase his or her CC.

From preliminary results it can be concluded that CC is a more unified concept than AC. The same conclusion can be found in Glazer et al. (2004). CC is a more rational calculation of an individual and it is less prone to cultural effects than AC. AC is more dependent on values, which is why it is more heterogeneous and differs among countries. Glazer et al. (2007) found that significant differences between values and AC were between a contractual and a communal culture. Our findings go in the same direction. In societies with a collectivistic culture people react similar to flexibility, to labour market and in organizations. They withdraw their attachment to the organization. In countries with a value orientation that promotes individualism AC in 2005 was even higher then it was in 1997. Organizations in these countries probably use leverage to increase the AC. The differences in trends in AC between countries with individualism as the predominant value orientation (the US, the UK, West and East Germany) and countries with a predominant collectivistic value orientation (Hungary and Slovenia) can be due to undeveloped HRM policies, which failed to deliver a supportive work environment for high job satisfaction and job quality. But this can not be argued without looking into AC determinants in these countries. Although findings regarding the effect of HRM practices on commitment are still rare, our analysis pointed in this direction. This conclusion deserves future research.

Conclusions

A procedure of testing the equivalence of measurement in cross country and cross time perspective proved useful. There is an indication that changes through time and differences between countries are substantive and not measurement artefacts, which is always a plausible alternative explanation if no such test is performed. We have some evidence, supported by the test of measurement models, and by looking into the patterns of changes and differences between countries, that we can distinguish two dimensions of commitment even if correlation between them is high. Two lines of research are opened following this. One is to continue to try to explain the observed differences in average levels of commitment with explicit determinants on individual, country and cultural level taking into account. In relation to this further inquiry could go into direction to confirm a robustness of the results presented here by extending set of countries and by further refinement of data and models testing procedures.

References

For a list of references, you may contact the author of this paper.

The Influence of Empowering Leadership, Empowerment and Engagement on Affective Commitment and Turnover Intentions in Community Health Service Workers: Test of a Model

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Abstract

The study extends research on the relationship between empowering leadership, empowerment and outcome variables by examining the mediating role of employee engagement. More specifically, the study set out to test whether employee engagement mediates the effects of empowering leadership and empowerment on affective commitment and turnover intention.The sample on which conclusions are based consisted of 139 employees of a community health service. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equations modelling (SEM) were used to test the measurement and structural models proposed.CFA showed acceptable fit indices for the measurement model after respecifying a reduced number of items for the explanatory variables. Structural equations modelling of a respecified model also yielded acceptable fit indices and showed that empowerment mediated the influence of empowering leadership on engagement. Engagement was shown to partially mediate the influence of empowerment on affective commitment, which in turn influenced turnover intentions. Results are discussed in terms of the importance of training and development initiatives aimed at promoting empowering leadership, empowerment and engagement in health service contexts. The results will be of interest to practitioners and researchers.

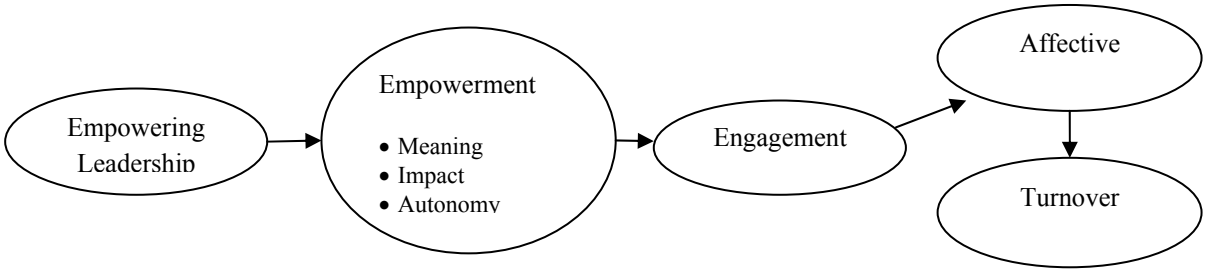
Introduction

Organizations invest significant effort and resources to attract, select and retain conscientious, proactive, engaged and committedemployees(Macey, Schneider,Barbera& Young, 2009). There is therefore a need for ongoing research directed toward identifying the organizational factors that best promotepositive employee attitudes and behaviourand positiveorganizational performance. Consistent with this argument, the present researchaimed to test a model (see Figure 1) which shows how empowering leadership influences employee empowerment, which in turn influences employee engagement, which in turn influences affective commitment and turnover intentions. The model is designed to provide an account of the direct and indirect mechanisms by which empowering leadership, empowerment and engagement influence affective commitment and turnover intentions.

Figure 1 shows empowering leadership directly influencing psychological empowerment. Empowering leadership, drawing as it does from high-involvement management research (e.g. Lawler (1993), emphasises the importance of leaders actively encouraging and enabling followers to lead themselves (Manz & Sims, 1987). Empowering leaders, by definition, attempt to empower their employees by providing them with, what is variously referred to as,autonomy, discretion, control, decision latitude or power. Examples of empowering leader behaviours include encouraging participative decision making, leading by example, sharing

information, coaching, and demonstrating concern for employees(Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006; Pearce & Sims, 2002). In response to these behaviours, employees can be expected to feel more empowered and to have enhancedrole-related feelings of contribution, control, competence, connectedness and meaningfulness. Somewhat surprisingly, despite the self-evident conceptual link between empowering leadership and empowerment, there has been limited empirical research linking empowering leadership and empowerment.

Figure 1. Proposed Research Model



Beyond its direct effect on empowerment, empowering leadership may also have indirect or downstream effects on engagement, affective commitment and turnover intentions. Avolio, Zhu, Koh and Bhatia (2004) argued that while leadership, broadly defined, has been shown to be "positively associated with workattitudes and behaviors at both an individual and organizational level … the mechanisms and processes by which … leaders exert their influence on their followers' motivation and performance have notbeen adequately addressed in the literature". (p. 951). It is here argued that leadership, and more specifically empowering leadership, will indirectly influence follower commitment and turnover intention through psychological empowerment and employee engagement. In effect, empowerment and engagement function as two key 'psychological states' (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006; Spreitzer, 1995)which serve as the mechanisms through which empowering leadership influences important outcomes such as employee commitment and turnover intentions. Such indirect, mediated or partially mediated effects can be extrapolated from previous research which has demonstrated significant relationships between empowering leadership and engagement (Ahmad, O'Regan & Ghobadian, 2005), affective commitment (Pearce & Sims, 2002), and turnover intentions (Meyerson & Kline, 2008).

Figure 1 shows employee empowerment having a direct influence on employee engagement. Interest in empowerment has increased over the years as organizations have become leaner, flatter, and structured with fewer layers of middle management.A number of different conceptualizations and measures of empowerment have emerged in the literature (e.g. Menon, 2001; Spreitzer, 1995). Spreitzer, drawingin part from Thomas and Velthouse (1990), conceptualised empowerment as a multidimensional construct consisting of four psychological states: impact, competence, meaningfulness and self-determination. Spreitzer (1995) argued that empowerment can best be conceptualized as a higher order construct which subsumes the four first order dimensions and which explains and accounts for the associations among the four psychological states.

As per the modelling in Figure 1, there is research tosupport the direct influence of empowerment on engagement and its indirect influence on commitment and turnover intentions. Autonomy, one of thecore dimensions of empowerment, has been identified in recent meta-analyses and reviews to be a robust predictor of work engagement (Halbesleben,

2010; Mauno et al., 2010). Self efficacy,a construct similar to the competencedimension of empowerment, and meaningfulnesshavealso been found to be associated with engagement (Halbesleben, 2010; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). There is however less evidence to support an association between impact and engagement, and similarly the association between empowerment, conceptualized as a higher order construct, and engagement has not been the subject of significant empirical research. There is however, a considerable amount of published research linking empowerment and commitment.Liden et al.(2000), for example, in a large study of service workersshowed that affective commitment had moderate to strong associations with meaning (r = .59), self-determination (r = .43), and impact (r = .42) but ales strong association with competence (r = .16). Additionally, empowerment has been shown to have indirect effects on outcomes such as commitment (Avolio et al., 2004) and turnover intentions(Yang & Lee, 2009).

There has been avery significant spike in academic and practitioner interest in employee engagement over the past five to ten years (Albrecht, 2010) and there is increasing evidence linking employee engagement to a range of important organizational outcome variables.Consistent with the modelling in Figure 1, employee engagement has been shown to influence affective commitment across a diverse range of occupations.Hallberg and Schaufeli (2006), for example, reported moderately strong correlations between engagement and commitment (r = .46) within a sample of 176 Swedish ICT consultants and a sample of 150 police officers (r=.55). Furthermore, and again consistent with the modelling in Figure 1, meta-analyses have firmly established a strong association between affective commitment and turnover intention. Meyer et al. (2002), drawing on the results from24 studies withover 8,000 employees, reported a corrected correlation of r_c = -.51 between the constructs. While the associations between turnover intentions and empowering leadership, empowerment and engagementhave not been established as clearly, their association with commitment clearly suggests the plausibility of mediated or partially mediated effects.

The above discussion aimed to integrate a number of lines of theoretical and empirical research to examine the separate and combined effects of empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and employee engagement on affective commitment and turnover intentions. Given the average correlation between turnover intention and actual turnover has been estimated to be between .38 (Griffin, Hom & Gaertner,2000) and .65 (Tett & Meyer, 1993) and given that turnover imposes very significant costs and disruptions in healthcare contexts it remains important to identify the factors and processes which predict commitment and turnover intentions in the healthcare contexts. The proposed associations are modeled in Figure 1.

Method

Participants

Survey data were collected from employees of a community health service delivering dental, community nursing, physiotherapy, counselling, speech therapy, psychology, social work and occupational therapy services across seven sites. Of the 424 surveys distributed to all employees, 158 (41%) usable surveys were returned. Most respondents (110, 70%) were female and 19 (12%) were male. Twenty-eight respondents did not record their gender. Most respondents (85%) were aged between 29 and 40 years,were employed full-time (89%).Respondents had an average organizational tenure of 4.1 years.

Measures

Pearce and Sims' (2002) 6-item Empowering Leadership sub-scale was used to assess empowering leadership behaviours. The behaviours encompass the subscales of encouraging independent action, opportunity thinking, and self-development. An example item for encouraging independent action is: 'My manager encourages me to search for solutions without supervision'.Responses were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Definitely nottrue*) to 5 (*Definitely true*). Pearce and Sims advocated full scale scores be used to measure empowering leadership and reported an alpha of α= .91for the full scale.

Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item scale was used to measure psychological empowerment. The scale consistsof four dimensions, each containing three items: meaning (α= .87), self-determination (α= .81), competence (α= .81), and impact (α= .88). An example meaning item is: 'The work I do is meaningful to me'. Responses were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). Avolio et al. (2004) reported alpha coefficients of .84 and .75 for the full 12-item scale. Spreitzer provided evidence in support of conceptualizing empowerment as a higher order construct.

Employee engagement was measured with the 9-item form of the Utrecht work engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al., 2006). The UWES-9 measures absorption, dedication, and vigour on a 7-point scale from 1(*Never*) to 7(*Always*). A sample item is: 'I am immersed in my work'. Alpha reliabilities higher than 0.90have been reported for the full nine item scale (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2006).

Affective organizational commitment was measured with the 6-item affective commitment scale from Allen and Meyer (1990). Responses were rated on a 7-point scale from 1(*Strongly disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly agree*). A sample item is: 'I feel like 'a part of the family' at this organization'. Acceptable alpha reliability estimates have been reported for the scale (e.g. α=.87; Allen & Meyer).

Turnover intentions were measured with 3 items adapted from Seashore et al. (1982) andVigoda-Gadot andKupin (2005). A sample item is 'I am looking for a new job outside this organisation'. Stallworth (2003) reported an alpha of .87 for a similarly constructed scale.

Results

Measurement Model

As a first step in the analysesthe dimensionality of the measurement model was tested with confirmatory factor analysis. An initial CFA using AMOS 7.0 and the raw data as the input, conducted on the 139 cases having no missing data on any of the variables of interest, showed that the 'competence' dimension of empowerment did not significantly correlate with any of the other study variables. Competence was therefore omitted from subsequent analyses. The initial CFA also enabled identification of a reduced set of items which best reflectedeach construct of interest. Given that three items are sufficient to define a construct and given the modest sample size within which to run a quite complex structural equations model, a decision was taken to, where possible, reduce the number of items per construct and to model empowerment as a higher order construct. Having deleted some items on the basis of their low parameter loadings andon the basis of modification indices, the final respecified measurement model consisted of five latent constructs: (1) empowering leadership – the three items highest loading items from the preliminary CFA;(2) a higher order empowermentfactor – indicated by the subscale means for autonomy, impact and self-determination;(3)

engagement – the six items comprised of the two highest loading items foreach of the three subscales; (4) affective commitment – the three items highest loading items; and (5) turnover intentions – the three original items).

The CFA fit indices for the respecified5 factor measurement model provided acceptable fit to the data. While the Goodness of Fit Index (.84) and the Normed Fit Index (.86)did not achieve criterion levels, the Tucker-Lewis Index (.91) exceeded the criterion value of .90 and the Comparative Fit Indexmatched the criterion value of .93. The RMSEA point estimate (.059) and its associated confidence intervals (.043 - .074)also suggested a good fitting model (MacCallum et al., 1996). In contrast, neither the null model nor a one-dimensional model, provided for purposes of comparison, yielded an acceptable fit to the data.

Means, standard deviations, bivariate correlations, and Cronbach's alpha reliabilities, for all variables included in the respecified measurement model are reported in Table 1. Consistent with the CFA results, the correlations, ranging from r = -.03 to -.74,did not suggestthreats to discriminant validity and all scales demonstrated acceptable alpha reliability.

Structural Model

Structural equations modelling on the proposed model (see Figure 1) suggested a reasonably good fitting model: χ^2/df= 1.654, GFI = .84, NFI = .86, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .070 (.057-.081). Allstandardized path estimatesrepresenting the strength and direction of influence between the constructs, ranging from .36 to -.77, were statistically significant.As shown in Figure 2, on the basis of modification indices, the path from empowerment to commitment was added to the proposed model. The respecified model provided a marginally better fit to the data compared to the proposed model: χ^2/df = 1.610, GFI = .86, NFI = .88, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .067(.055-.079). Again, all path estimates were statistically significant, with all but one at $p < .001$.In addition empowering leadership, empowerment and engagement were found to exert significant indirect effects on commitment and/or turnover intentions. Overall, the squared multiple correlations showed that approximately19% of the variance in empowerment, 44% of the variance in engagement, 51% of the variance in affective commitment, and 59% of the variance in turnover intentions was explained by the model.

Table 1. Means, Standard deviations, correlations, and Cronbach's alphas (on the diagonal)

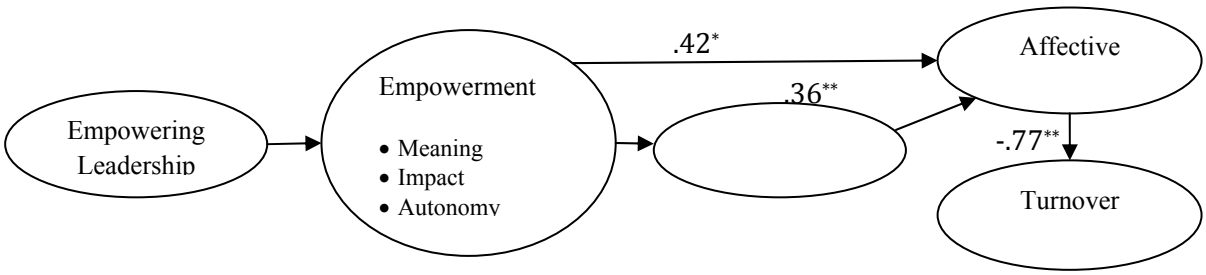
Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Empowering Lshp	3.65	.73	*.84*						
Meaning	4.10	.69	.26**	*.88*					
Self-determina	3.90	.78	.36**	.25**	*. 82*				
Impact	3.04	.99	.34**	.22**	.52**	*.90*			
Engagement	5.40	1.04	.34**	.58**	.38**	.46**	*.93*		
Commitment	3.99	1.68	.30**	.30**	.35**	.48**	.58**	*.95*	
Turnover Inter	2.73	1.07	-.30**	-.31**	-.26**	-.36**	-.52**	-.74**	*.75*

Note. ** p< .01, * p< .05

Discussion

The results of the present study extend previous research findings by pointing toward a comprehensive understanding of how empowering leadership, empowermentand engagement inter-relate to influence affective commitment and turnover intentions in community health service workers. More specifically, the results indicate that when employees perceive that their leaders and managers have an empowering style of leadershipthey will feel empowered. Such feelings of empowerment will lead employees to feel motivatedand engaged and also lead to feelings of connection and belongingness to their organization. Furthermore, when employees experience such affective commitment they will be lessinclined to entertain thoughts of leaving the organization. Overall, the findings suggest that empowering leadership, empowermentand engagementprovide the enabling conditions for employees to experience affective commitment and the propensity to stay engaged in their organizational context. Importantly, the results go some considerable way toward *explaining* the influence that empowering leadership may have on important outcome variables such as affective commitment and turnover intentions. In effect empowerment and engagement serve as explanatory variables helping us understand how leadership behaviour influences the attachment of health care employees to their organizational context.The results both extend and corroborate many previous findings in an expanded and theoretically grounded context.

Figure 1. Respecified Model



Note. ** $p < .001$, * $p < .01$

Beyond contributing an integrative model, the present research also makes a contribution to the literature with respect to the measurement of empowerment and engagement related constructs. Confirmatory factor analysis showed that respondents were clearly able to distinguish between the constructs and alpha reliabilities for each of the original and abbreviated measures met criterion levels. Such briefmeasures of these key constructs can therefore be used with a degree of confidence in future research settings.

There are a number of practical implications that can be derived from the present findings. First, it appears that providing leaders and managers with empowering leadership training and development programs might have positive outcomes in terms of employee empowerment and employee engagement. By helping managers enhance employee decision-making, opportunity thinking, and self-development organizations can directly and indirectly increase employee engagement and commitment. Furthermore, the provision of empowerment programs, helping to facilitate employee cognitions about the meaning of work and making a difference will also promote employee engagement and affective commitment. Similarly, interventions aimed at developing employee engagement will likely result in increased commitment and reduced turnover in healthcare contexts. There is an increasing literature

describing how to intervene at the individual, job and organizational levels to develop engagement (e.g. Schaufeli & Salanova, 2010).

While the present research has provided new insights in to the relationships between empowering leadership, empowerment, engagement, affective commitment and turnover intentions, some limitations need to be acknowledged. Although rigorous confirmatory and structural modelling technologies were used, the cross-sectional data does not enable the determination of causal relations. Longitudinal analyses, preferably drawn over three time periods, would enable much stronger claims to be made about causality and potential reciprocality of influence among the variables.Additionally, given that all of the data were collected through self-report procedures, the usual caveats around 'common method variance' apply.However, given that the measurement model demonstrated acceptable fit to the data, and given that the correlations between the measured constructs were moderate and varied quite considerably, the issue of common method variance appears not to be overly problematic.

Overall, given the increasing status of empowerment and engagementin understanding the motivational underpinnings of employee work attitudes and behaviours additional research on a more fully elaborated model is indicated. The influence of psychological contract, transformational leadership, and procedural justice could be included in the model. The influence of personality variables such as extraversion, openness to experience, and altruism could also be modelled. Similarly, additional mediating variables such as positive mood and leader–member exchange could usefully be modelled. Researchers should also look to link such constructs with additional important outcome variables such as attitudes toward change and with more objectively defined criteria such as absence and turnover. Structural equations modelling within longitudinal designs would provide the most appropriate means of testing these potential relationships within alternative and expanded models.

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Chapter 7: Organizational Values

Empowerment as an Organizational Value in a High Power Distance Culture: Evidence from Venezuela

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Abstract

This paper examines the effects of an empowerment initiative undertaken by a global multinational in Venezuela, a country classified as a high power distance culture. A secondary aim of this study was to assess the validity and reliability of a Spanish language version of the Menon (2001) scale of psychological empowerment. The results of the questionnaire survey not only confirmed the reliability and validity of the Spanish version of the Menon scale, but also confirmed the existence of a nomological network for the construct of psychological empowerment in a Venezuelan sample. The study provides support for the proposition that employees can be empowered at the individual level despite an adverse societal context for empowerment.

Introduction

Many researchers and practitioners have embraced workplace empowerment as a modern, progressive, and enlightened work practice that will result in improved productivity and enhanced employee satisfaction. While employee empowerment as a workplace initiative has its origins in the West, societies all over the world have experimented with various forms of worker empowerment from union movements and work councils to participative decision making in individual work places. Therefore, it is quite possible that workers could feel psychologically empowered even in the absence of a formal empowerment program. By the same token, even in the presence of a formal management initiated empowerment program, it is possible for workers not to experience psychological empowerment for various reasons, including a cultural mismatch between the philosophy of empowerment and the prevailing cultural values. One might recall that more than three decades ago, Hofstede (1980b) cautioned that success or failure of a given management practice would depend on compatibility with the host culture.

This study explores the cross-cultural generalizability of the construct of psychological empowerment in the Venezuelan context. As explained below, although Venezuela has been classified as a high power distance culture, there are many aspects of Venezuelan history that seem favorable to worker enfranchisement and influence. Another aspect that has been of concerns to cross-cultural researchers is that of measurement. Many researchers use instruments developed in the West for their questionnaire surveys, without first establishing cross-cultural equivalence. A secondary goal of the present study is to assess the cross-cultural generalizability of one such instrument, namely the Menon (2001) scale of psychological empowerment, as applied to the Venezuelan context.

Psychological Empowerment

Psychological approaches to empowerment have focused on employee cognitions, rather than managerial actions such as delegation or participation in decision making. For example, Conger and Kanungo (1988) emphasized self-efficacy as the fundamental cognition underlying feeling of psychological empowerment. Spreitzer (1995) identified four cognitions: self-determination (freedom to choose action), impact (making a difference), competence (self-efficacy), and meaning (personally significant work) as making up psychological empowerment. Menon (2001) defined the psychologically empowered state as a cognitive state characterized by perceived control, perceived competence, and goal internalization. The last cognition captures the employee's identification with the goals of the organization and the "power of the idea", the energy that comes from being associated with a worthy cause.

Empowerment initiatives regardless of their form or content must generate these cognitions in the mind of the employee in order for him or her to feel empowered. This requires a change in mind set both for managers and employees. For managers, they need to relinquish power to some extent and feel comfortable allowing subordinates to make decisions. For employees long used to being told what to do, making decisions on their own could cause anxiety and stress, especially if they do not understand the operational and business context in which the decisions are to be made. These considerations become even more important in a high power distance culture, where bosses already enjoy a big status difference and where employees are predisposed to accepting these power differences as natural.

One approach to facilitate empowerment initiatives is to prepare the ground for such efforts. This could include soliciting employee input in solving problems on a regular basis and giving employees training in decision making, encouraging them to solve problems in their immediate operational context, while providing them with the needed information to make sound decisions. The organization featured in the present study adopted many such practices as part of an overall quality initiative as described below.

Context of Empowerment

Venezuela is an oil rich country in northern South America, with a population of about 26 million people. For many periods in its post-independence history, Venezuela has been ruled by dictators, some of whom were allied with labor movements and left-leaning politics. In the 1970s oil and steel companies under foreign ownership were nationalized and to this day, multinationals operate in Venezuela with the ever present specter of nationalization. More recently, many domestic companies in major sectors such as telecommunications and energy have been nationalized.

In the United States and in much of the world, the government is either pro-business or pro-labor, depending on the political bent of the party in power. In contrast, the government-business-labor relationship is somewhat unique in that business and labor have a history of collaborating to protest government. For example, in 2001, business leaders teamed up with labor organizations to protest government policies. The following years also saw business and labor come together to try and oust the government. Tactics included reduction in oil production and other forms of work slowdown and stoppage, including a general strike. In more recent years, however, government backed left-leaning unions have challenged the status quo in the industrial relations climate of Venezuela. With the support of new pro-labor laws, such as a ban on firing lowest paid workers, these newer unions successfully challenged

the old right-leaning union - business nexus. They have overcome lockouts and shutdowns, reopened factories, and have ushered in an era of worker participation and "co-management".

Co-management in Venezuela is a system of heightened worker participation in decision making in the organization. When a company is nationalized and the state takes over, rather than replace all management, a series of elections is held from bottom-up to identify worker representatives at all levels who become part of the decision making structure of the organization. For example, in the state owned Aluminum company, Alcasa, workers have elected 300 "spokesperson delegates" to represent their interests and each department has an administrative council that includes spokespersons, where operational decisions are discussed (Thomas, 2005). Thus, socio-political developments in Venezuela has laid down the structural foundations for employee empowerment.

Power Distance

Since the seminal work of Hostede (1980a), followed by others (e.g. House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004, Schwartz, 1994), to establish a set of dimensions of cultural variability at the country-level to study the impact of culture in organizations, power distance and individualism-collectivism have been the most widely utilized variables. Individualism refers the pursuit of personal goals irrespective of group goals, meanwhile collectivism deals with the subordination of personal interests in favor of group interests. Power distance refers to the extent to which differentials in power are accepted within a society. The essence of the later variable is of particular interest in the study of psychological empowerment.

In low power distance countries such as Sweden or Norway, it is not only desirable but natural to an employee, to speak up to his superior to tell him in detail what he think, even when he disagree, in higher distance countries such as Venezuela and other Latin American countries, the pattern of behaviors use to be different: employees of lower status use to behave submissively in front of their superiors even if they disagree with their decisions or points of views, but when their bosses are not present, they openly and loudly criticize them. Employees know it can be dangerous to put into doubt the word of their superiors since they concentrate the power. "This emphasis upon status differences makes it difficult for people at varying status levels to express themselves freely in discussion and argument" (Whyte, 1961).

In high power distance countries managers and supervisors promoting upward communication practices with lower level employees, need to reduce the fears associated with providing ideas that could be different or even opposite to the ones of the supervisors or managers, and also, to find out incentives to promote a constant communication flow, since employees have been accustomed to depend on their supervisors for direction and decision making. As a consequence, this schema demands a consistent change concerning leadership, that is, it demands a transition from a directive autocratic style into a transformational one.

An interesting question behind these indices is: what makes a country, such as Venezuela, being higher on power distance compared to others? A team of authors of the GLOBE study (Carl, Gupta, & Mansour, 2004) suggests that the acceptance of certain level of power within societies among individuals is rooted in four interdependent factors: predominant religion or philosophy, democratic tradition, prevalence of a strong middle class, and the proportion of immigrants in the society that can become citizens.

Even when the four factors are interdependent, the authors suggest that predominant religion or philosophy occupies a key role. For instance, Catholicism supports in many societies the status quo, and inhibits the promotion of certain minorities to the highest positions of its own structure, societies that have been primarily Roman Catholic tend to be high in power distance

(Carl, Gupta, & Mansour, 2004). Venezuela has been a predominantly Catholic country since the colonization of Spain in the XVI Century. According with the National Census 95% of the population is Catholic.

With respect to democracy, societies that have experienced a long standing tradition in democracy, that is, in promoting and practicing the rights of free speech, association, elections, and separation of powers tend to be less centralized, and as a consequence, low in power distance (e.g. New Zealand, Norway, Denmark). In this regard, during the last decade, Venezuelans have faced the advancement of an increasingly authoritarian government that has weakened democratic institutions and practices (Gómez-Samper & Monteferrante, 2005).

Concerning the role of the middle class, because of their financial stability, and in most of the cases of their higher level of education, members of the middle class of most societies tend to demand access to decision making bodies in their organizations and at all levels of government, consequently they don't feel comfortable with large power distance differences. Societies with a robust and stable middle class tend to be pluralist and promote diversity (e.g. Sweden, Canada). Venezuela had a strong middle class in the 70's and part of the 80's, but after two decades of recession that strong middle class had disappeared (Gómez-Samper & Monteferrante, 2005). The Gini coefficient (Gini, 1913), a widely accepted measure of income inequality between countries (Pianegonda & Iglesias, 2004), with a range that goes from 0 (perfect equality) to 100 (perfect inequality), suggests that Venezuela does not have a strong middle class, since its value is of 48.3, which is lower when compared to the one of a highly developed country such as Sweden of 23.0 (CIA, 2009).

Based on the above discussion it would be reasonable to suggest that the success of typical empowerment initiatives can by no means be guaranteed. On the one hand, recent developments in the labor movement have made significant structural changes to the influence of the rank and file worker, but on the other hand, the strong societal power distance makes implementation of any such change suspect. Even so, there could be job level factors that affect the level of psychological empowerment of the individual worker.

Job Design Factors

Research evidences in the fields of Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations have shown that high performance work systems (HPWS), also named high involvement work practices (HIWP), which include sharing power and information with employees at all levels of the organization, setting boundaries between processes, and implementing team work systems, among others, have a consistent relation with organizational performance (Gibson, Porath, Benson & Lawler, 2007; Lawler, Mohrman & Benson, 2001; Huselid, 1995).

A recent study using data over 200 Fortune 1000 firms in the U.S. (Gibson, et al., 2007) encountered specific relationships between implementation of these practices and organizational performance. It was found that practices related with information sharing such as communicating information at all levels of the organization such as the firm financial results, or specific business unit outcomes, are positively related to the financial performance of the firm. In a similar vein, practices fostering boundary-setting or establishing key indicators of the firm's processes are related to firm-level customer service.

These practices dealing with granting or sharing information with employees in lower levels of the organization's structure and defining key performance indicators to focus on, are supposed to provide objective elements of task feedback and meaningfulness (i.e. job characteristics), and as a consequence, to affect the feelings and mind sets of employees by

increasing their perceptions of control, competence and inspiration to perform their jobs (i.e. psychological empowerment).

The job characteristics proposed by the classic model of Hackman and Oldham (1975) could be a set of reliable measures for assessing high involvement work practices at the job level. In other words, a pair of variables such as task meaningfulness and task feedback could provide an objective photograph on how these practices are affecting the day-to-day work of job occupants in a particular point in time.

Overall, one can propose the general hypothesis that favorable levels of job design factors will lead to higher levels of psychological empowerment, which in turn will lead to higher levels of organizational commitment.

Method

To test the various hypotheses, a questionnaire survey design was adopted. Questionnaires were administered to employees of a large manufacturing facility in rural Venezuela. As a part of its ongoing efforts to increase efficiency, the company had introduced a measurement system that was aimed at showing employees plant performance on various aspects of the production process. Employees would capable of monitoring these themselves and take suitable corrective action. They would also be able to plan the sequence of actions based on these indicators. All employees at all levels were involved in this effort. To increase the visibility and salience of these indicators, the organization made the employees aware of progress and overall performance periodically. Data was also prominently displayed in high traffic areas frequented by employees. In addition, employees received training so that they could appreciate the significance of these measures and had a god grasp of how these indicators affected the overall results.

As the plant was unionized, the support of the union for the study effort was first secured. With the help of the human resource department a random sample of employees was chosen to participate in the study. As is common practice in these types of settings, supervisors were instructed to release employees during regular work time to go to a central location to fill out the survey which was administered directly to the employees. To relieve anxiety about confidentiality, the employees were assured that the survey was anonymous and would be processed only by the researchers. To ensure this, the survey was handed out by one of the researchers who also received the completed responses without any involvement by company representatives. Respondents were mostly and all age, education, and experience levels were represented.

The questionnaire included measures of psychological empowerment, job design factors, and commitment, besides demographic variables. Psychological empowerment was measured by a Spanish language version of Menon's(2001) scale developed specially for this study. Measures of affective and continuance commitment originally developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) and translated into Spanish by Arciniega and González (2006) were used as these measures had previously displayed good psychometric properties. Job design factors were measured using Hackman and Oldham's (1980) measure.

First, descriptive data[1] was complied on demographics and the sample was found to be representative of the employee population at the facility. Given the fact that the Spanish

[1] Results tables available on request.

version of the psychological empowerment scale was developed specifically for this study, it was necessary to first confirm the psychometric properties and factor structure. Therefore, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. An initial single factor model indicated poor fit. In contrast a three factor model provided superior fit, with all fit indices indicators falling in recommended ranges. Based on this confirmation of factor structure, subscale reliabilities were calculated. All three factors of the Menon scale, namely perceived control, perceived competence, and goal internalization had acceptable scale reliabilities. The subscales were then correlated with the other study variables.

The results indicated that the subscales of psychological empowerment were significantly and positively correlated with the antecedent job design factors. This indicates that empowerment initiatives, as represented by the job design factors, can have a potential impact on employee cognitions, and on empowerment in particular. The very fact that the subscales could be reliably measured and had above average means indicates that it is possible for employees to feel empowered regardless of the circumstances in the larger society. The subscales of empowerment were also positively related to outcomes variables such as organizational commitment. This indicates not only the benefits of an empowerment initiative, but also demonstrates the role of psychological empowerment as a mediator variable in the link between job design factors and outcome variables.

Conclusion

This study has shown that despite adverse conditions, it is possible for employees to feel empowered. It also provides evidence that management can create and launch initiatives within the environment of the organization that allows employees the opportunity to be responsible for the results of the work, regardless of the broader societal culture. By creating a system of metrics and continuous improvement, management was able to engender feelings of control and competence, which in turn led to greater commitment and buy-in. The study also contributes by developing a valid scale of psychological empowerment in Spanish. While the Menon scale has been validated in North America and has been used in other non-English speaking cultural contexts, this is the first time the scale has been validated in Latin America.

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Tuning Organizational Values on Job Satisfaction: The Case of International Manufacturing Corporation

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Abstract

The aim of the article is to find how perception of values is related to job satisfaction on an example of international manufacturing service corporation. The study was carried out in 2009 in a company that provides manufacturing services for the global customers. 1180 employees from seven factories located in China, Estonia, Finland, Slovakia, Sweden and Switzerland participated in the survey that focused on different aspects of job satisfaction (job content, compensation, development, management, cooperation etc.) and perceived organizational values. Results imply that job satisfaction of employees from different factories varies to a great extent, but values are perceived in rather similar manner and are generally congruent with declared values of the organization. Survey results show that those respondents who report perceived values coherent to the declared values of the company have significantly higher job satisfaction than those who did not reported particular or any value. It is discussed how and why the perception of shared values influences job satisfaction and its variations.

Introduction

To achieve sharing of the organizational values is one of the most challenging tasks of a rapidly developing international corporation which originally started its operations through acquisitions in different countries. Organizational values show what is considered to be important in particular organization and give directions for work behavior, decision-making and priorities for activities. Organizational values help to facilitate alignment of organizational practices in different cultural contexts. Due to differences of local practices and peculiarities there is a certain challenge for an international corporation to communicate and implement values in the way that those are understood in coherent manner.

As organizational values serve a mean for organizational members' behavior evaluation against to set standards and norms, the employees' job satisfaction is the reflection of perceived outputs of managerial and operational practices. It could be argued that common understanding of organizational values and congruence of those with declared values give employees higher satisfaction, because it reduces work-related uncertainty.

Theoretical background

Values are believes held by individuals or groups about what and how should be achieved and help to choose the preferable actions (Enz, 1988). Values are presumed to encapsulate the aspiration of individuals and societies: they pertain to what is desirable, to deeply engrained

standards that determine future directions and justify past actions (Braithwaite, Scott, 1991). One more function of values is that they provide a standard against which actions are evaluated (Sullivan *et al.* 2001). Thus values serve several important functions and meanings that are crucial in behavior in an organizational context.

Argyris and Schön (1978) distinguish between values "in use" from "espoused" values, which are the values that are not really part of an organizational member's repertoire (Meglino, Ravlin, 1998). Espoused values are the same as Anthony (1994) calls "inspirational views" of organizational culture and do not govern necessarily the behavior of organizational members. The congruence of the values derived on one hand from the employees and on the other hand from the management is important, because if this is not the case, the organization has two "parallel systems" of values: "formal" or official" values (written down in official documents, posters or homepage) *versus* the values which are really hold and shared by organizational members (values that guide the behavior in organization) (Padaki, 2000). If there is a significant discrepancy between the values "in use" and those expressed publicly, a "dysfunctional organization" (Kets de Vries, Miller, 1986) may emerge. This eventually manifests in confusion and dissatisfaction of employees whose decision making about suitable behavior in organization is biased. For example, if it is "written" that customer is value, but organizational members consider customer as an "enemy who needs to be defeated", then there might be serious conflict for those who wish both - to behave according to the declared value and same time be part of the collective and follow informal norms. By disregarding values in long run the dissatisfaction with management practices may arise; by disregarding colleagues the dissatisfaction with relationships may occur.

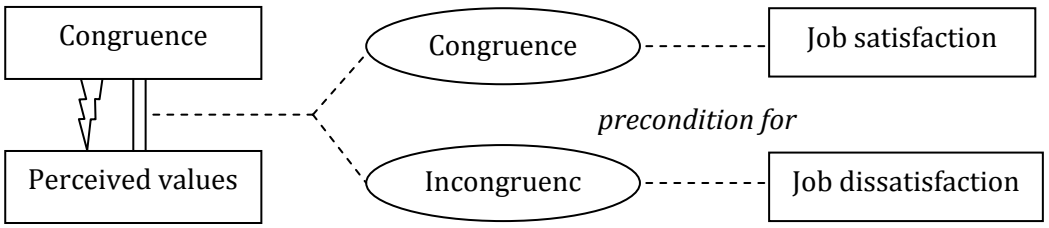
Job satisfaction refers to the attitudes and feelings people have about their work (positive and favorable attitudes toward the job indicate job satisfaction; negative and unfavorable – job dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 2007). There are many aspects of job satisfaction emphasized by different authors. Cooper *et al* (1989) bring out such aspects as rate of pay, responsibility given, freedom to choose working method, variety in job, opportunity to use one's ability, hours of work, recognition for good work, colleagues and fellow workers and physical working conditions. Oshagbemi (1999) brings out pay, nature of work, promotions, supervision, co-workers' behavior and physical conditions. Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000) consider work compensation, interesting job, independent work, advancement opportunities, good relationship with management and colleagues, and job security as the aspects of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction thus is composed of the level employee relates in positive or negative way with received compensation, job itself and environment which consist of e.g. relationships, management, physical conditions etc.

There is not so many surveys done in the field of relationships between job satisfaction and organizational values, but still some of those show particular patterns. Findings by Elizur and Koslowsky (2001) demonstrate that work values are positively related to the job commitment which refers to the emotional or functional attachment to the work place. Another study found that women indicating the organizational values to be more supportive of work-life balance also reported greater joy in work, less job stress, greater satisfaction with their jobs, careers and family, less intent to quit, fewer psychosomatic symptoms and higher levels of emotional well-being (Burke, 2001). Research conducted by Hassan (2007) revealed that some human resource development practices (e.g. potential appraisal and promotion, learning/training, performance guidance and development) were positively related to organizational values of collaboration, creativity, quality, delegation, and humane treatment. However, performance appraisal system, career planning, and contextual analysis variables were negatively associated with values such as trust and creativity (*Ibid*). Bellou (2010) studied the relationships between organizational culture and job satisfaction. Her findings suggest that job

satisfaction is enhanced if in organization such values as fairness, opportunities for personal growth, enthusiasm for the job and good reputation are regarded; and aggressiveness, seems to confine job satisfaction. It could be argued that there is some evidence of the relationships between organizational values and job satisfaction, but certainly this is an understudied topic; moreover we could not find any studies concerning the coherency between perceived and declared values and its impact on job satisfaction.

Figure 1 presents conceptual connections between notions elaborated in theoretical overview. We argue that if there is congruence between declared and perceived organizational values this may be the precondition for job satisfaction. And in other way around – if there is incongruence between declared and perceived values it might be a precondition for dissatisfaction with job. Still in this general frame final conclusions cannot be derived, because human behavior is indeed complex and it cannot be stated without empirical research that for example incongruence between declared and perceived values definitely cannot create job satisfaction.

Figure 1. Conceptual connections between values and job satisfaction (authors' figure)



Sample and methodology description

The survey took place in June 2009 in all factories of the corporation at the same time. Number of the respondents who filled in the questionnaire is 1180 – 319 (27.0% of the sample) from China, 172 (14.6%) from Estonia, 94 (8.0%) from Finland, 115 (9.7%) from Slovakia, 333 (28.2%) from Sweden, 122 (10.3%) from Switzerland and 25 (2.1%) from corporate employees working in different mentioned locations. Average overall response rate is ca 50% of all employees. The study was conducted during challenging times where cost reductions, lay offs and reorganizations took place in all studied factories.

Employee's satisfaction was measured by seven main sections in the questionnaire: my job, my compensation, my work conditions, my development, my direct manager, factory management, cooperation in factory, cooperation in factory's department, corporate brand. 6-point Likert type scale was used for measurement of job satisfaction ("1" means total disagreement and "6" total agreement with the statement). The sections of the questionnaire, keywords that open the content measured, number of statements in each section and reliability measure are presented in appendix 1. The questionnaire included an open question in which respondents were asked to name three keywords that they consider to be important in the company. The responses reflect perception of company's values in practice and we will compare those with declared values of the company. Perceived values were grouped according to keywords and then reduced to declared values according to subjective opinion of authors and then the distribution of values and job satisfaction estimations according to

factory locations were found. The job satisfaction of employees according to perceived values was calculated by comparing two groups of respondents: those who reported the values which are in accordance with the declared values of the company and those who did not report same values as declared ones (but reported some other value) plus those who did not report any value at all. In order to analyze the statistical differences of job satisfaction estimations according to perceived values ANOVA-analysis was implemented.

Results of the study

Declared values of the corporation are *customer, innovation, success, responsibility* and *respect*. The keywords answered by respondents, i.e. **perceived values** were grouped in following: *quality, respect, teamwork, development, customer, remuneration, efficiency, communication, responsibility, delivery, focus, stability, work environment, employee, result, relationships, competencies, flexibility, discipline, spirit*. Not all respondents reported perceived values, but still those are included in analysis. Table 1 summarizes values perceived by employees; keywords that have been included into the value categories are presented in the second column. Perceived values have been matched with declared values based on the subjective opinion of the authors. In sum the value of *customer* was reported 321 times, *success* 204 times, *respect* – 158, *responsibility* – 150 and *innovation* – 126 times. Such a set of perceived values as remuneration, stability, work environment, employee and spirit (could be named as value *people*) did not match with declared values and in total those values were reported 331 times.

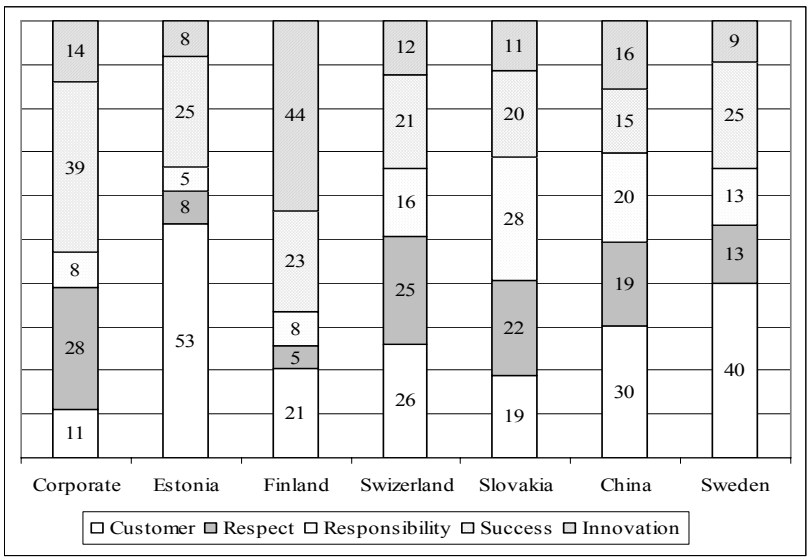
Table 1. Congruence with declared and perceived values

Perceived values	Keywords	Declared values*	No of respondents
Quality	Quality	Customer	242
Respect	Trust, honesty, equality	Respect	108
Teamwork	Teamwork, cooperation, unity	Responsibility	98
Development	Innovation, prosperity	Innovation	93
Customer	Customer focus, orientation, importance	Customer	91
Remuneration	Salary, pay and benefits	-	77
Efficiency	Efficiency, productivity	Success	71
Communication	Communication, openness, information sharing	Respect	69
Responsibility	Responsibility, reliability	Responsibility	68
Delivery	On time delivery	Customer	64
Focus	Business focus, strategy, goals, vision, values	Success	63
Stability	Stability	-	62
Work environment	Working environment, conditions	-	61
Employee	Employees, people, loyalty, motivation	-	57
Result	Success, achievement, profit, performance, cost efficiency	Success	55
Relationships	Relationships with colleagues, friendliness, harmony	-	47
Competencies	Abilities, professionalism, knowledge, experience	Success	36
Flexibility	Flexibility, speed	Innovation	35
Discipline	Accuracy, order, diligence	Customer	27
Spirit	Atmosphere, climate	-	27

Note: *congruence is derived from description of the declared values, but in order to keep company's name anonymous those descriptions are not published.

From the figure 2 it is possible to see how the perceived values (reported by the employees) differ in various locations where the company operates. *Customer* is the most reported value in Estonia, Sweden, China and Switzerland. *Responsibility* is the most mentioned value in Slovakia; *success* is mentioned the most by corporate employees; *innovation* – in Finland.

Figure 2. Distribution (%) of perceived values according to location of the factories



The ANOVA-analysis shows a considerable deviation in job satisfaction estimations in different countries where corporation operates (see table 2).

Table 2. Differences of job satisfaction estimations according to location of the factories

Satisfaction section/ location	Corpo-rate	Estonia	Finland	Switzer-land	Slova-kia	China	Sweden	ANOVA
My job	5.06	4.81	4.34	5.06	4.71	4.36	4.67	F(6,870)=18.15 p=.000
My compensation	4.35	4.11	3.78	4.53	3.70	3.64	3.43	F(6,894)=19.68 p=.000
My work conditions	5.06	4.47	4.06	4.94	4.31	3.84	4.15	F(6,869)=24.53 p=.000
My development	4.19	4.02	3.34	4.56	4.08	3.61	3.51	F(6,836)=19.85 p=.000
My direct manager	5.03	4.52	3.91	5.08	4.51	4.13	4.51	F(6,867)=14.35 p=.000
Factory management	4.91	4.24	3.86	4.92	4.35	4.06	4.22	F(6,493)=3.08 p=.006
Cooperation in factory	4.62	4.26	3.68	4.59	4.26	4.08	4.25	F(6,443)=3.48 p=.002
Cooperation in factories' department	-	4.50	4.10	4.90	4.37	4.11	4.36	F(6,746)=11.51 p=.000
Corporate brand	4.84	4.59	3.40	4.89	4.68	4.16	4.36	F(6,752)=22.54 p=.000

Note: "1" means that employee absolutely disagrees with the statement and "6" means total agreement with the statement.

In order to find what is the difference in job satisfaction estimations according to perceived values variance analysis was implemented. The results are presented in table 3 show that there are significant differences in job satisfaction estimations between those respondents who

reported the values which are in accordance with the declared values of the company and those respondents who did not report the same values as declared ones (but reported some other value) or who did not report any value at all.

Table 3. The differences among job satisfaction estimations according to reported/not reported perceived values

Job satisfaction m (SD); Anova statistics	Values									
	Customer		Respect		Responsibility		Success		Innovation	
	r*	N/r*	r	N/r	R	N/r	r	N/r	r	N/r
My job	4.77 (.62)	4.58 (.79)	4.73 (.77)	4.62 (.75)	4.77 (.59)	4.61 (.77)	4.82 (.59)	4.59 (.78)	4.77 (65)	4.62 (76)
	F(1,875)=10.53 p=.001		N/S*		F(1,875)=4.49 p=.034		F(1,875)=12.42 p=.000		N/S	
My compensation	3.98 (.95)	3.75 (1.06)	3.88 (1.03)	3.80 (1.03)	3.89 (1.05)	3.80 (1.03)	4.15 (.93)	3.78 (1.04)	3.93 (.88)	3.80 (1.05)
	F(1,899)= 9.48 p=.002		N/S		N/S		F(1,899)=22.77 p=.000		N/S	
My work conditions	4.40 (.73)	4.14 (.93)	4.38 (.94)	4.19 (.91)	4.34 (.84)	4.19 (.92)	4.55 (.79)	4.15 (.92)	4.37 (.79)	4.19 (.93)
	F(1,874)=14.09 p=.000		F(1,874)=4.49 p=.034		N/S		F(1,874)=24.84 p=.000		N/S	
My development	3.95 (.94)	3.73 (1.09)	3.97 (1.08)	3.76 (1.04)	3.94 (.93)	3.77 (1.07)	4.09 (1.01)	3.73 (1.05)	3.97 (.98)	3.77 (1.06)
	F(1,841)=7.58 p=.006		F(1,841)=4.07 p=.044		N/S		F(1,841)=14.91 p=.000		N/S	
My direct manager	4.75 (.90)	4.37 (1.10)	4.59 (1.02)	4.45 (1.07)	4.78 (.83)	4.42 (1.08)	4.75 (.83)	4.41 (1.10)	4.62 (.90)	4.45 (1.08)
	F(1,872)=22.91 p=.000		N/S		F(1,872)=11.70 p=.001		F(1,872)=13.51 p=.000		N/S	
Factory management	4.40 (.82)	4.07 (.99)	4.36 (.95)	4.14 (.95)	4.43 (.78)	4.13 (.98)	4.56 (.85)	4.08 (.96)	4.45 (.92)	4.13 (.95)
	F(1,498)=13.57 p=.000		N/S		F(1,498)=6.62 p=.010		F(1,498)=20.19 p=.000		F(1,498)=6.01 p=.015	
Cooperation in factory	4.43 (.68)	4.10 (.98)	4.47 (.82)	4.14 (.92)	4.43 (.79)	4.15 (.93)	4.50 (.75)	4.12 (.93)	4.50 (.78)	4.16 (.92)
	F(1,448)=12.65 p=.000		F(1,448)=8.06 p=.005		F(1,448)=5.74 p=.017		F(1,448)=12.94 p=.000		F(1,448)=6.45 p=.011	
Cooperation in factories' department	4.52 (.80)	4.31 (.93)	4.43 (.88)	4.37 (.91)	4.66 (.71)	4.33 (.92)	4.68 (.70)	4.31 (.93)	4.56 (.77)	4.35 (.91)
	F(1,750)=8.40 p=.004		N/S		F(1,750)=11.90 p=.001		F(1,750)=19.12 p=.000		N/S	
Corporate brand	4.58 (.75)	4.27 (1.05)	4.57 (.88)	4.33 (.99)	4.64 (.98)	4.31 (1.00)	4.63 (.79)	4.30 (1.01)	4.53 (.81)	4.34 (1.00)
	F(1,757)=16.18 p=.000		F(1,757)=5.71 p=.017		F(1,757)=10.60 p=.001		F(1,757)=13.35 p=.000		N/S	

Note: * r – reported perceived value similar to the declared value; N/r – did not report same value as is declared officially (but reported some other value) or did not report any value at all; N/S – not significant differences; job satisfaction estimations are given on the scale where "1" means that employee absolutely disagrees with statement and "6" means total agreement with the statement.

The analysis brought out that the job satisfaction estimations of those employees who perceived organizational values in same manner as they are declared officially are significantly higher in many respects compared to those employees whose perception of values diverges from official values.

Discussion

There is a considerable congruence between perceived and reported values in the corporation which implies that management by values has been implemented in a successful way. All declared values had a reflection in reported perceived values, but there was one set of keywords (labelled as *people* by us) which was reported by employees, but this is not a declared value by the company. It could be proposed to add one more value to declared values or incorporate *people* value into the description of existing values, because employees feel that people are important. This is somehow opposite situation compared what usually is expressed in literature (that there are some values that are "espoused", but not "in use") – in current case there is a value which is followed, but not declared by organization. This certain lack of congruence between perceived and declared values could cause confusion especially in such dimension what relates to people. Too business-driven value setup could raise the question of the importance of human factor in achieving results of the corporation.

The variance in job satisfaction estimates according to reported values have significant differences, but certain pattern could be followed – those respondents who reported some specific value have higher job satisfaction estimations than those who did not report any specific value. This means that by strengthening the practice of managing-by-values it is possible to increase the employees' satisfaction.

In table 4 study results are summarized. *Customer* and *success* are most represented values. As previous results showed values of respect, responsibility and innovation has been mentioned less. In order to show that value *respect* is important in corporation it is necessary to improve work conditions, put more emphasis on developing employees, enhance cooperation within the factory and continuously work on corporate branding. For increasing the importance of value *responsibility* job related issues has to be regarded, managerial practices and cooperation improved and corporate brand developed. In order to present the importance of value *innovation* the management and cooperation in factory should be improved. Still there is another possibility to interpret the results – by strengthening management-by-value practices it is possible to increase job satisfaction level of employees. Finally it depends on what is taken as target variable and influencing variable.

Table 4. Connections between job satisfaction and perceived values in studied corporation

Satisfaction section/perceived values	Customer	Respect	Responsibility	Success	Innovation
My job	+		+	+	
My compensation	+			+	
My work conditions	+	+		+	
My development	+	+		+	
My direct manager	+		+	+	
Factory management	+		+	+	+
Cooperation in factory	+	+	+	+	+
Cooperation in factory's department	+		+	+	
Corporate brand	+	+	+	+	

Note: "+" means that there are significant differences in job satisfaction estimations – those who reported marked value have higher satisfaction than those who did not mark particular or any value; blanc cell means no significant differences.

There is a large variation of job satisfaction estimations in different locations of factories. Job satisfaction is forming human behavior in organization and is the result of operational and managerial practices. The perception of values in different locations seems to be different as well. Still it should be mentioned that all declared values have been reported by the respondents in entire sample, but the emphasis or importance of those values is different. The highest unity is followed in value of *customer* which has been mentioned as the most reported value in four out of seven locations. Based on the analysis done it is difficult to conclude whether the variation in emphasis is stemming from business practices or from national cultural background. Literature shows that organizational values have greater impact on human behavior in organization (while giving base for behavior patterns) than national cultural values have. Hofstede (2001) states that at the national level cultural differences reside mostly in values and less in practices; and at the organizational level, cultural differences reside mostly in practices and less in values. In international corporations it might be proposed that organizational values, which are shared among parts of corporation situated in different countries, have greater effect on employees' behavior and thus on job satisfaction than national cultural context.

There are certain limitations of the study. First of all, two sets of respondents whose differences in job satisfaction estimations were analyzed are composed from those who reported declared value and those who did not report any certain value plus those who did not report any value at all. No analysis or discussion has been made in order to find what is the level of satisfaction of those who did not mark any value (compared to those who did) and what are the reasons why employees did not report any value. Secondly, national cultural impact on organizational values and job satisfaction was not analyzed in profound way. Finally, no individual characteristics (such as length of employment relationship, position in organization, function) have been incorporated into results studies. While human behavior is complex phenomena then by adding individual variables richer background and result explanation might be expected.

Stemming from limitations more profound analysis on theoretical and empirical levels are needed in order to find what is the impact of national culture of certain countries on corporate values and then what has biggest impact on job satisfaction – national cultural background of respondents or corporate values. Still the presented piece of study gives general clues how it is possible to tune organizational values on job satisfaction.

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What Factors Predict the Values of an Organization?

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Abstract

The objective of the present paper is to outline the regularities in the formation of organizational values. The study of organizational values in Estonian organizations took place during the period 2004–2008. Values were analyzed in terms of the Competing Values Framework according to which organizational values could be categorized into four types (Open System, Rational Goal, Internal Processes and Human Relations types). Binary logit regression analysis was applied in order to test the impact of industry, organization's size and age on organizational values.

Introduction

Formation of organizational values has been described as a "fluid, ongoing process whereby cohesion, division and ambiguity continuously intertwine" (Martin, 1992) and where several simultaneously influential factors have an effect on the organization. For better understanding how to cope with internal and external pressures, especially in the turbulent organizational environment, it is important to understand to what extent and how different factors may influence organizational values. Author of the present paper believes that combining several factors and the analysis of their impact on organizational values in the scope of one single study facilitates the better understanding of the magnitude of the influence that those factors have on values. While variety of values adopted by organizations is notable it is reasonable to create categories and analyze values in terms of types. It has been argued that typologies help to make sense and provide some order out of observed phenomena (Schein, 2004: 190), and they also facilitate comparisons between different organizations based on counter-intuitive empirical data (Furnham, 2005). In the present paper the type of organizational values will be defined as an aggregate of values organized along to the certain dimensions. In this respect the types of organizational values always remain abstraction, because the types can never be exhaustive.

The Competing Values Framework (Quinn, Rohrbaugh, 1981) has been used in the present study as a frame of reference. This Framework captures the dimensions of flexibility/stability and the external/internal focus of organizations and enables distinguish between four types of organizational values. *The Open System type* encompass values like flexibility, external organizational orientation, adaptability, capacity to change, uniqueness and orientation towards customers (Cameron, Quinn, 1999). *The Human Relations type* of values is flexibility supported by the internal focus, cohesion, morale, trust and belongingness (Kalliath *et al*, 1999). Central values of the *Rational Goal type* are planning, productivity, efficiency, competition, stability and control over external matters as ends (Cameron, Quinn, 1999). Stability, consolidation, control, formalization and centralization are core values of the *Internal Processes type* (Lamond, 2003). The dimensions that form the framework have been considered important for organizations by different authors (e.g. Schein, 1983; Trice, Beyer, 1993). Moreover, in today's globalized and turbulent environment, the question of being

flexible or pursuing stability, but also the issue of where core resources of the organization are embedded (whether opportunities for effectiveness proceed from the organization itself or from the external environment), are critical for every organization.

Theoretical background on determinants of organizational values

Organizational values reflect the beliefs and understandings of individuals or groups about the means and ends of the organization (Enz, 1988) and because the values are socially validated and shared they predict much of the behavior of organizational members (Schein, 2004). Formation of organizational values takes place in the sphere of influence of internal and external forces. Some authors (e.g. Gagliardi, 1986; Schein, 2004) have argued that the formation of organizational culture is an "incremental process" where the role of the founder, leader and organizational members is crucial. But organizational values are also influenced by the external factors like national culture or industry; besides, several organizational characteristics (organization's size and age) could be seen as factors that mediate the influence of internal and external factors on organizational values.

It has been argued that organizations are founded on industry-based assumptions about customers, competitors and society and from those assumptions certain values are derived which serve as the basis for strategies, structures and processes needed for the survival of the organization (Gordon, 1991). Therefore it could be assumed that organizations that operate in a same industry are quite similar in their values, because the specific environment and regulatory demands of industry prescribe what kind of structures organizations implement or what the orientation of the organization should be. Organizations' accordance with its environment is important because of maintaining legitimacy, surviving and developing (Christensen, Gordon, 1999). Lately, the influence of industry on organizational values has been demonstrated in several studies (e.g. Silver, 2003; Savič, Pagon, 2008; Wright, 2005). The impact of organizational age and size on organizational values has received less attention in the research compared to the contextual factors. It has been argued that organizations with a long history usually have rooted cultures and organizational members perceive their organization in more homogeneous manner (Kekäle, Kekäle, 1995; Wiener, 1988). Greater sharing of the organizational values is associated with lower innovativeness, while greater diversity of beliefs and values within the organization leads to higher innovativeness (Jaskyte, Dressler, 2004). Besides, it has been proposed that older organizations tend to be more stability oriented because of inertia (Tsui *et al*, 2006; Van Wijk *et al*, 2007) and older organizations "suffer from ossification of their routines, non-learning processes, blindness, and conservatism, which cause poor performance and decline" (Durand, Coeurderoy, 2001: 473). Effect of size on organizational values is manifested in internal processes, intra-organizational relationships and structures - growth in organizational size will cause changes in structure and result in a higher level of bureaucracy. Dastmalchian *et al* (2000) have found that the larger the organization is the more characteristic the Internal Processes type of values and the less characteristic Human Relations type of values are for the organization. But organizational size is believed to have an impact on the relationships between the organization and its environment as well: it has been argued that larger organizations tend to be more bureaucratic and less entrepreneurial (Sørensen, Stuart, 2000), and therefore less flexible towards changes in the external environment (Hannan, Freeman 1984).

In respect of the factors that influence the formation of organizational values following propositions will be set up:

P1: Industry is a significant predictor of all types of organizational values.

P2: Organizational age is a significant predictor of organizational values as follows: Human Relations, Rational Goal and Internal Processes type of values are more characteristic for old organizations, whereas organizational values belonging into the Open System type are more characteristic for new organizations.

P3: Large organizations adopt more Internal Processes and less Human Relations and Open System types of values.

Sample and method

The study of organizational values in Estonian organizations took place during the period 2004–2008. Principle of providing diversity among the organizations was the criteria for selecting organizations for the study ad therefore, organizations from different industries, of different sizes and with a different historical background (age of organization) were included in the study. Altogether 29 organizations with 2986 respondents participated in the study. The organizations represented five different industries: education (11 organizations with 882 respondents), services (8 organizations with 990 respondents), production (7 organizations and 327 respondents), legal protection (2 organizations, 331 respondents) and health care (1 organization with a sample of 456 respondents). There are 19 large and 10 medium-sized organizations in the sample. Composition of the sample in respect of organizational size could be considered as one of the limitations of the study - small organizations are not included in the sample, because small organizations were not agreed to participate in the study. Fifteen organizations in the sample were founded after Estonia regained its independence in 1991 (referred to later as "new" organizations) and 14 organizations existed before 1991 (referred to later as "old" organizations)[1]. The organizations' web pages were also analyzed and the additional criteria for distinguishing old versus new organizations was based on the information provided by the organizations themselves – after analyzing how organizations regard themselves from the perspective of organizational history. The average age of respondents was 35.7 years (SD=12.6, N=1886[2]), altogether 945 (31.6%) men and 1 770 (59.3%) women participated in the study (271 respondents did not mark their gender). Organizational members from all organizational levels were involved in the survey as follows: 932 specialists (31.2% of sample), 969 workers (32.5%) and 280 managers (9.4%). In case of educational organizations students were also included (N=589, i.e. 19.7%). Average tenure of the respondents in the organization was 6.7 years (SD=8.3, N=1689).

Organizational values were studied with the Organizational Values Questionnaire (Reino, 2009), which bases on the ideas and principles of the Competing Values Framework. 10-point Likert scale was applied, where "1" meant that the statement in the questionnaire is not at all characteristic to the organization and "10" denoted that the statement is very characteristic to the organization. Descriptive statistics (means, t-test) was used for analyzing organizational values estimations and a binary logistic regression analysis was applied for analyzing the impact of independent variables (industry, age and size of organization) on estimations of organizational values. Data were transformed into dummy variables and for coding the

[1] Some authors (for instance Quinn and Cameron, 1983) propose that there is a connection between an organization's life cycle and its values, but in the present study the life cycle was not taken into account because it is complicated to assess the particular stage of development each organization is at. This would need in depth analysis and a case study approach, which is not in the scope of this study.

[2] Some organizations refused to include questions about socio-demographic data into the questionnaire.

dependent variables, the mean estimation given to each type of organizational values was set as the reference point. Estimations above the mean were considered above-average estimations of the particular type of organizational values and were coded as 1, while estimations below the average were coded 0. Three independent variables were included in the models: (1) *industry* (coding will follow the logic: 1, if the organization operates in the particular industry and 0, if it operates in other industries); (2) *organizational size* (large organizations were coded 1 and medium-sized organizations 0) and (3) *organizational age* (1 for new organizations and 0 for old).[1] Four binary logit models were constructed; the impact of the explanatory variables on the probability of high estimations for types of organizational values expressed as marginal effects. In the case of the industry variable, educational organizations were taken as the reference group because educational organizations had the most balanced pattern of organizational values. The models will take into account possible heteroscedasticity (robustness).

Results

Analysis showed that relatively higher estimations were given to the Rational Goal (m=7.16) and Internal Processes types (m=7.06) of organizational values, whereas the t-test proved that difference in mean estimations is not statistically significant. Open System type values were found to be less dominant for organizations (mean estimation 6.31 on the 10-point scale), but values that characterize Human Relations type is even less characteristic for the organizations that participated in the study (m=5.95). Table 1 presents the logit models for the types of organizational values. As seen from the table the models contain several significant variables.

All four models for organizational values display a significant fit with the data (Chi^2–test p= .000), but the level of the description of the overall variation is different for different models (26.4% for Rational Goal, 9% for Internal Processes, 2.3% for Open System and 2.8% for Human Relations type of organizational values). Analysis brought out that among other dummies, the only variable that was not significant predictor of organizational values was organization's age.

In case of *Rational Goal type of values* industry increases the probability of having above-average estimations for this values type: in services the probability of having an above-average score for this type of values is 60.5%, in the production industry 50.9% and in health care 16.8% higher than in educational organizations. In the case of legal protection, the probability of scores higher than the average for the Rational Goal type is 9.9% compared to the education sector. Being a large organization increases the probability of above-average estimations of the Rational Goal type of organizational values by 16.5% compared to medium-sized organizations. Above-average estimations of the *Internal Processes type* are predicted by affiliation with the services industry (the probability of high estimations is 38.7% higher than for educational organizations), the production industry (34.6% higher probability than in education) and legal protection (37.2% higher than in education). The health care

[1] No interactions of predictors were included in the analysis because the number of observations would have become too low in different groups. Specific organizational effects were not also checked (the organization as an independent variable was not included) because no organizations could be included in some groups. Concerning individual characteristics, missing data exists for several organizations and therefore, variables reflecting individual characteristics were also left out of the model.

sector does not predict different estimations to Internal Processes type. In respect to organizational size, the probability of having an above-average score for the Internal Processes type is 14.6% higher in large organizations. The results for the *Open System type* model are broadly similar to the previous model because again industry seems to be the most powerful predictor of the type of organizational values. Although industry is a significant predictor of the Open System type (health care as an exception), compared to the Internal Processes type the marginal effects are smaller and in the case of legal protection organizations even negative. Organizational size (i.e. being a large organization) increases the probability of above-average estimations of the Open System type by about 18%. The last model constructed for the *Human Relations type* of organizational values gives different results compared to the other values types. Although some industries predict higher estimations for the Human Relations type compared to educational organizations (for service organizations, the probability of higher estimations for the Human Relations type of values is 2.7% higher and in legal protection 3.4% higher than in educational organizations), the marginal effects are quite small. It also became clear that in large organizations the probability of high estimations for the Human Relations type of values is lower than in medium-sized organizations.

Table 1. Determinants of the organizational values types: binary logit analysis

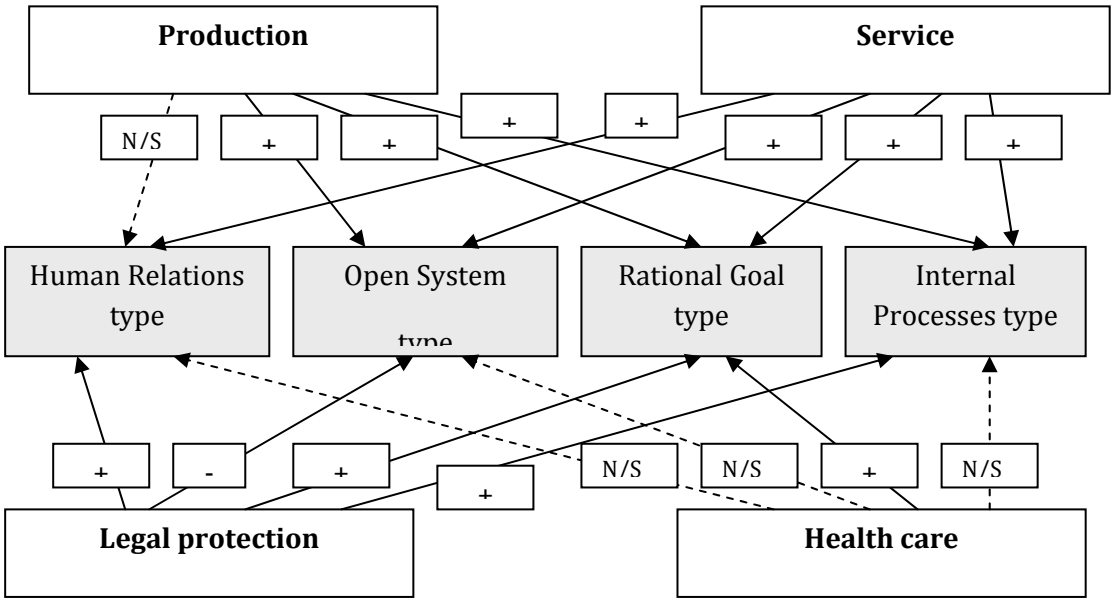
Rational Goal type of values				**Internal Processes type of values**			
	Parameter estimate	**z-statistic**	**Marginal effect**		**Parameter estimate**	**z-statistic**	**Marginal effect**
Service	3.335*	21.03	0.605	Service	1.739*	14.14	0.387
Production	3.551*	13.12	0.509	Production	1.675*	9.03	0.346
Legal protection	0.428*	2.74	0.099	Legal protection	1.910*	12.24	0.372
Health care	0.739*	5.35	0.168	Health care	1.381	10.47	0.301
Large	0.669*	3.19	0.165	Large	0.589*	3.96	0.146
New	–0.156	–1.19	–0.038	New	0.185	1.67	0.046
Constant	–1.865*	–7.72		Constant	–1.531*	–4.11	
Log pseudolikelihood	–1348.38			Log pseudolikelihood	–1676.51		
Pseudo R^2	0.264			Pseudo R^2	0.085		
Chi^2-test prob.	0.000			Chi^2-test prob.	0.000		
Number of observations	2663			Number of observations	2663		
Open System type of values				**Human Relations type of values**			
	Parameter estimate	**z-statistic**	**Marginal effect**		**Parameter estimate**	**z-statistic**	**Marginal effect**
Service	0.664*	5.81	0.161	Service	0.371*	3.33	0.027
Production	1.074*	5.66	0.242	Production	0.203	1.13	0.044
Legal protection	–0.501*	–3.58	–0.125	Legal protection	–0.592*	–4.14	0.034
Health care	0.101	0.81	0.025	Health care	0.020	0.16	0.031
Large	0.733*	4.92	0.181	Large	–0.435*	–2.99	–0.107
New	0.053	0.53	0.013	New	0.043	0.43	0.010
Constant	–0.730*	–4.11		Constant	0.337*	–4.11	
Log pseudolikelihood	–1822.99			Log pseudolikelihood	–1831.54		
Pseudo R^2	0.023			Pseudo R^2	0.028		
Chi^2-test prob.	0.000			Chi^2-test prob.	0.000		
Number of observations	2760			Number of observations	2722		

Notes: Education sector is used as reference group. *= coefficient estimate is significant at 0.01 level.
Source: Author's calculations on the basis of the research database

Discussion and conclusions

The study revealed some interesting findings about the determinants of organizational values. Research demonstrated that generally both, organizational and contextual variables count for organizational values, but they do not have equal power in explaining the scores for types of organizational values. Emphasis on some types of organizational values is more predicted by the external factors, more specifically on industry (see figure 1). For example Rational Goal type and Internal Processes type of values are more determined by industry than Open System and Human Relations type of values. Business sector organizations have adopted more than other organizations the values of Rational Goal and Internal Processes type, whereas somewhat surprisingly for example belonging into the service sector predicts Internal Processes type even more than belonging into the public sector (legal protection in present case).

Figure 1. Impact of the industry on the types of organizational values

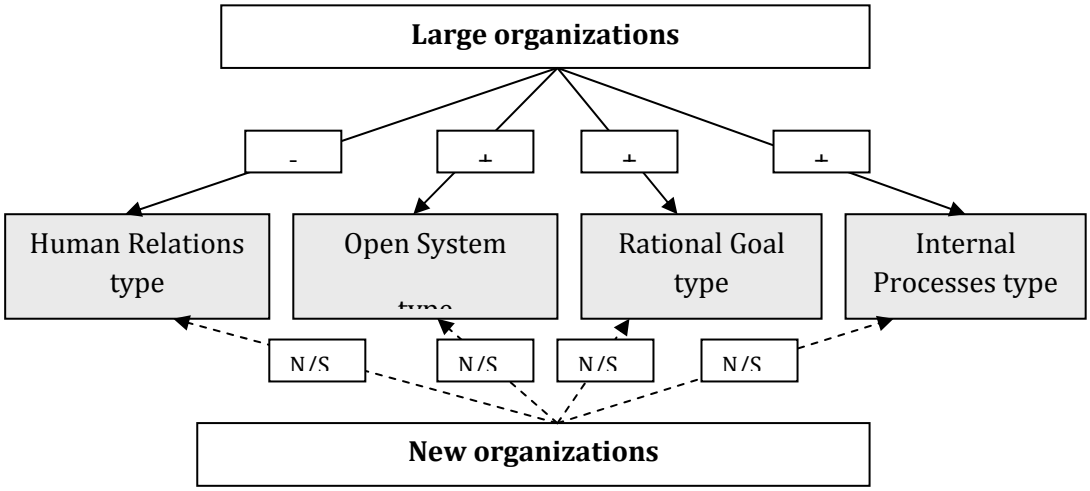


Notes: "+" significant predictor of above-average estimations of organizational values types; "-" significant predictor of below-average estimations of organizational values types; "N/S" not significant predictor
Source: author's figure based on the results of regression analysis

Another organizational factor that determines organizational values is a size of the organization (see figure 2). Internal Processes type of values was more characteristic to the large organizations; the finding that is supported by theoretical arguments (e.g. Hannan, Freeman, 1984). However based on literature it was assumed that smaller organizations are more flexible and open to change compared to larger organizations the findings of this study indicate the opposite – above average estimations of the Open System type values are predicted to occur in large organizations. This result supports Schein's (2006) idea that because of the more complex and diverse skills, capabilities and resources engaged in large organizations, they may be more innovative than small organizations. Still, it is too early to make broad generalizations about the impact of organizational size on organizational values, because the sample only comprised medium-sized and large organizations and no micro- and small organizations. This could be considered one of the limitations of the study. However

literature and previous studies argue that values that have possessed by old and new organizations are quite different, present study did not support that argument, because the findings showed that organizational age did not predict the score for any of the organizational values type. Explanation to this could be found from the history of our society. Old organizations included into the study were established under the command economic system, which essentially differed from a market economy and when the rapid transition from a command economy to a market economy started in the early 1990s, organizations had to adapt to the new conditions and reorganize their activities very quickly. Moreover those organizations have been restructured several times which probably have brought along changes in organizational values. The term "old" and "new" are rather subjective categories and especially in the context of catching-up economies it is somewhat confusing to talk about the old and new organizations, because of the radical changes the organizations have experienced.

Figure 2. Organizational size and age as the predictors of organizational values types



Notes: "+" significant predictor of above-average estimations of organizational values types; "-" significant predictor of below-average estimations of organizational values types; "N/S" not significant predictor.
Source: author's figure based on the results of regression analysis

To sum up, organizational size and industry explain the Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of values more, but the impact of those variables on the Open System and Human Relations types is slight. This kind of result indicates that although the variables analyzed in present study are important, there are other factors that should also be considered as determinants of organizational values. It seems that in the case of developing the Human Relations and Open System types of organizational values, individual-level characteristics may contribute more than other factors because industry and organizational size do not have a strong impact on those types of organizational values.

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Appendix 1. Job satisfaction section's descriptions and reliabilities

Job satisfaction sections	Description of the statements	No of statements	Cronbach Alpha
My job	Measures employee's perception of awareness of tasks, responsibilities, performance, expectations, target achievement, feedback and information sharing.	11	0,89
My compensation	Measures employee's perception of awareness of salary formation principles and benefits, equity compared to similar job in other companies, expectations of salary and responsibility balance, impact of bonus on motivation.	5	0,78
My work conditions	Measures employee's satisfaction with existence of proper tools and equipment, general working conditions and social facilities, dynamics of working condition improvements, work-safety conditions, working climate.	9	0,88
My development	Measures employee's perception of career and training opportunities, knowledge about training principles, existence of feedback on development and instructions for doing job.	8	0,91
My direct manager	Measures employee's satisfaction with direct management. Direct management includes statements about attributes and attitudes of manager (feedback, recognition, listening, respect, problem solving, information sharing, development, support).	11	0,96
Factory management	Measures employee's satisfaction with factory management. Includes statements about achievement of results, change management, problem solving and situation analysis, development, customer orientation and management team behavior (according to values, respectful, teamwork).	12	0,96
Cooperation in factory	Measures employee's satisfaction with cooperation on factory and department levels. Cooperation section includes statements about cooperation between and within factories/departments/group functions, teamwork, working climate, communication, openness.	9	0,95
Cooperation in factories' department		10	0,94
Corporate brand	Measures employee's perception about company's imago (caring, stable, successful, strong, good employer) and loyalty (proud to work at the company and recommend as employer to others).	8	0,95

Sensemaking in Re-Organizing: The Case of Research Activity at the Open University of Israel

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Abstract

The Open University of Israel (OUI) has initiated a novel project to promote its research position. The project is composed of two complementary processes: a top-down mapping of research activity by analyzing the research fields of its senior faculty members, and a bottom-up self-organizing of new research groups. The logic of this two-directional initiative is to accommodate the university's research priorities and the research interests of its academic staff. This paper is intended to show that an important part of restructuring the research profile of the OUI is a painful process of sensemaking, according to Karl Weik's theory. This is because members of the new, emerging structure are required to partially distance themselves from the conventional sensemaking of their research work, which is disciplinary and carried out within the conventional framework of specialized fields and faculties, and to devote more time and thought to interdisciplinary work. In some respects, they are required to build a new professional self-identity and values. This sensemaking process is strongly related to the top-down mapping and its methodology, and to the fact that OU researchers have been experiencing ambiguity when, on the one hand, the were surprised to discover that their work is in close proximity to the research interests of unexpected colleagues, either in their own department or in other departments, and on the other hand, they have not yet developed a new sensemaking construct in line with the long range vision of the project.

The Open University of Israel (OUI) is undergoing a major change, from a teaching university with minor research activity to a unique model of a teaching AND research university. For the OUI seriously to enter the research business takes a major strategic change in its science policy. Important steps in implementing this new policy have been marked in the standards for recruiting new faculty members, in stimulating applications for competitive research grants and in the growth in the rate of winning research grants from top research funds (NSF, GIF, the EU research programs, and so forth).

Alongside these familiar practices to encourage research, the OUI has initiated a novel project to promote research activity. The project is composed of two complementary processes: a top-down mapping of research activity at the OUI by using the self-descriptions of the research fields of the faculty members in their websites; and creation of bottom-up self-organizing spontaneous research groups in response to an internal "call for research groups" from the university's research authority. The logic of this two-directional initiative is to optimize, on the one hand, the university's research vision, and on the other hand, the research interests of its senior academic staff – not a trivial task in an organizational culture of academic freedom, and given collegial norms of work and management. The expected outcomes of this project are to map research clusters, which will serve as centers for interdisciplinary work among OUI researchers, and to attract research funds to the unique opportunities of these research clusters. I shall here briefly describe some technical details of this project, then I shall attempt to show that at the core of this project is an experiment in expanding the current sensemaking of the research work of the faculties of OUI, from

focused disciplinary research in specialized fields to a pattern of sensemaking that includes inter-disciplinary research work.

Top-down mapping of research clusters

The first task in the top-down process was to identify valid aggregates or clusters of research work at the OUI. This has been accomplished by a heuristic content analysis of the semantic fields of the self-descriptions and key words in the websites of the researchers. This analysis produced the following eight clusters:

"Computational and formal thinking in science and behavioral science" .1
This cluster maps most of the research work in computer science, game theory, and mathematics.

"Cognition, learning and education" .2
This charts research work in cognitive psychology, the philosophy of learning, education (processes, methods – including learning technologies), and cognitive science of brain research (neurobiology and neuropsychology).

"Cultures, peoples and societies" .3
This cluster maps a variety of research work in culture studies, literature, archeology, Jewish philosophy, communication studies, arts, and cinematography.

"State, economy and organizations" .4
This maps many research studies in political science and political sociology, including democracy and the study of other regimes, political economy, labor relations, civil-military relations, state-civil society relations, business and public administration.

"History of religions, ideologies, science and communities" .5
This cluster charts a diversity of research work on Judaism, Islam, Christianity, communism, Zionism, Palestinians, colonialism, post/ modernity/ colonialism/ Zionism and other movements that have an impact on peoples and communities.

"Managing human and non-human systems" .6
This maps research work on management and managing human, non-human, and organizational systems in business and public sectors, technical, professional, and logistic systems, such as information systems, engineering systems, medical systems, research and development systems and military and security systems.

"History, philosophy, sociology and psychology of identities, emotions, morality and values" .7
Maps research work on morality, social and national values, memory and personal, cultural, and national identities and encounters of individuals and collectives.

"Matter, life and environment" .8
Maps research work in natural and life sciences, psychology and education (often, but not only) oriented to experimental and laboratory exploration of the secrets of the universe, life and the interaction between life and various environments (physical, including climatic, geological, biological, geographical, urban and technological).

The second task was to assign a research profile to every researcher by coding his membership (code 1) or non-membership (code 0) in each of the eight clusters of the profile. Thus, for example, a researcher could have, according to his or her self-description, a research profile **00101010**, namely, he or she works in the research fields of clusters 3, 5, and 7 (see above for the labels and definitions of these clusters).

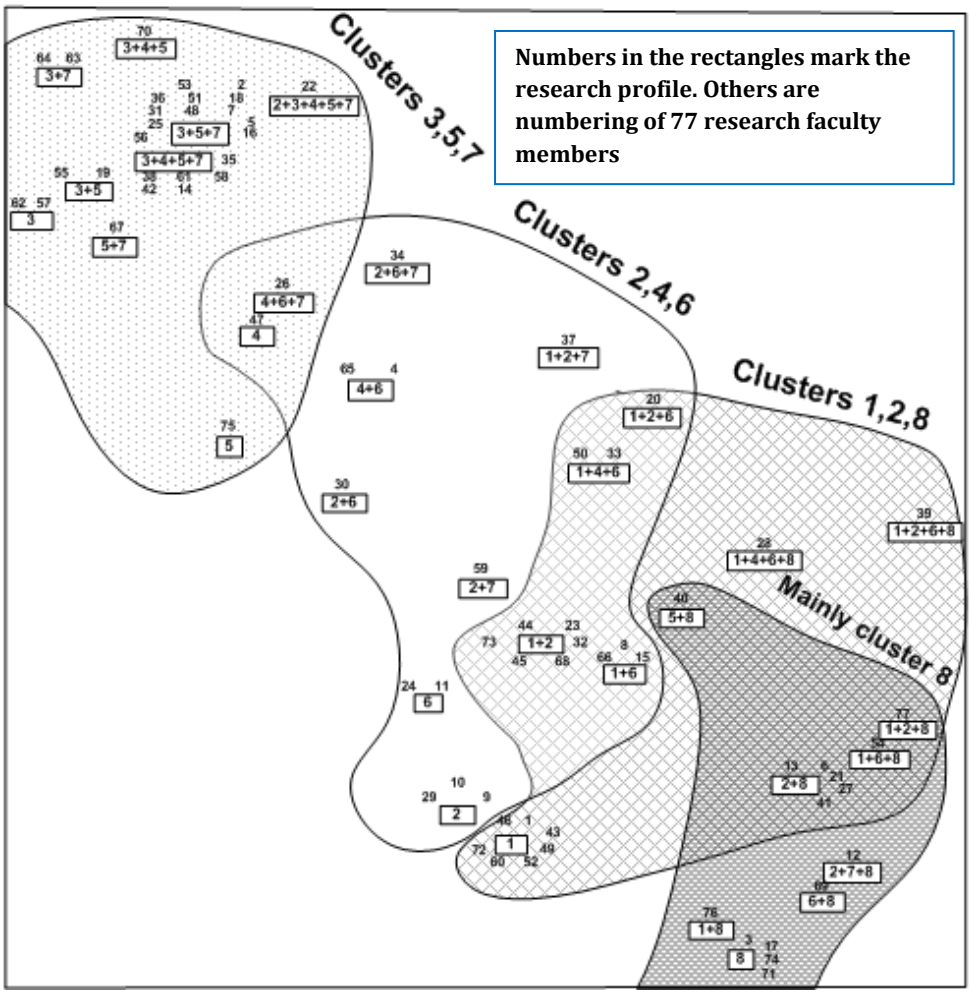
The third task was to map the relationships among the research profiles. This was done by a statistical mapping procedure that was applied to the data set of 77 eight-item research profiles. The mapping target was to show the relative position of profiles to each other. This is crucial because the mapping process has to be meaningful and relevant to every member of the research community of the OUI. This personal dimension is important for members to locate themselves in the research space of their institution, to discover potential co-workers in research projects, to develop fruitful discourse in their fields and to accumulate a critical volume of valuable research work.

The task has been accomplished by non-parametric weak monotonicity correlations (MONCO), and a non-parametric profile analysis of partial order scalogram analysis with base coordinates (POSAC).[9] The obtained graphical map of distances among the research profiles is displayed in Chart 1. We get 33 research profiles among 77 members.[10] Some people have a research profile with a single element; others have more elements in their research profile (2-5). There are profiles that characterize a single researcher, and other profiles that characterize several researchers (2-12). All the research profiles are assembled in four main regions or "super-clusters" on the map with some overlapping (the colors are not seen in a B&W presentation): "Blue" region (mainly clusters 3, 5, and 7), "Green" region (mainly clusters 2, 4, and 6), "Yellow" region (mainly clusters 1, 2, and 8), and "Brown" region (mainly clusters 1, 8).

[9] Performed by procedures 'Monco' and Posac' of HUDAP (Hebrew University Data Analysis Package), Release 6.0. In this technique, the correlation matrix of the profiles is transformed into Euclidean distances, where the relative distances are smaller as the correlations are higher. In an exploratory study, where knowledge about the behavior of the distributions of the investigated phenomenon is limited or non-existent, this non-parametric approach is more appropriate.

[10] In a profile of eight binary elements there are 2^8 (512) possible profiles.

Chart 1: Top-down mapping of 77 research profiles at the OUI by partial order scalogram analysis (POSAC)



Bottom-up mapping of spontaneous research groups

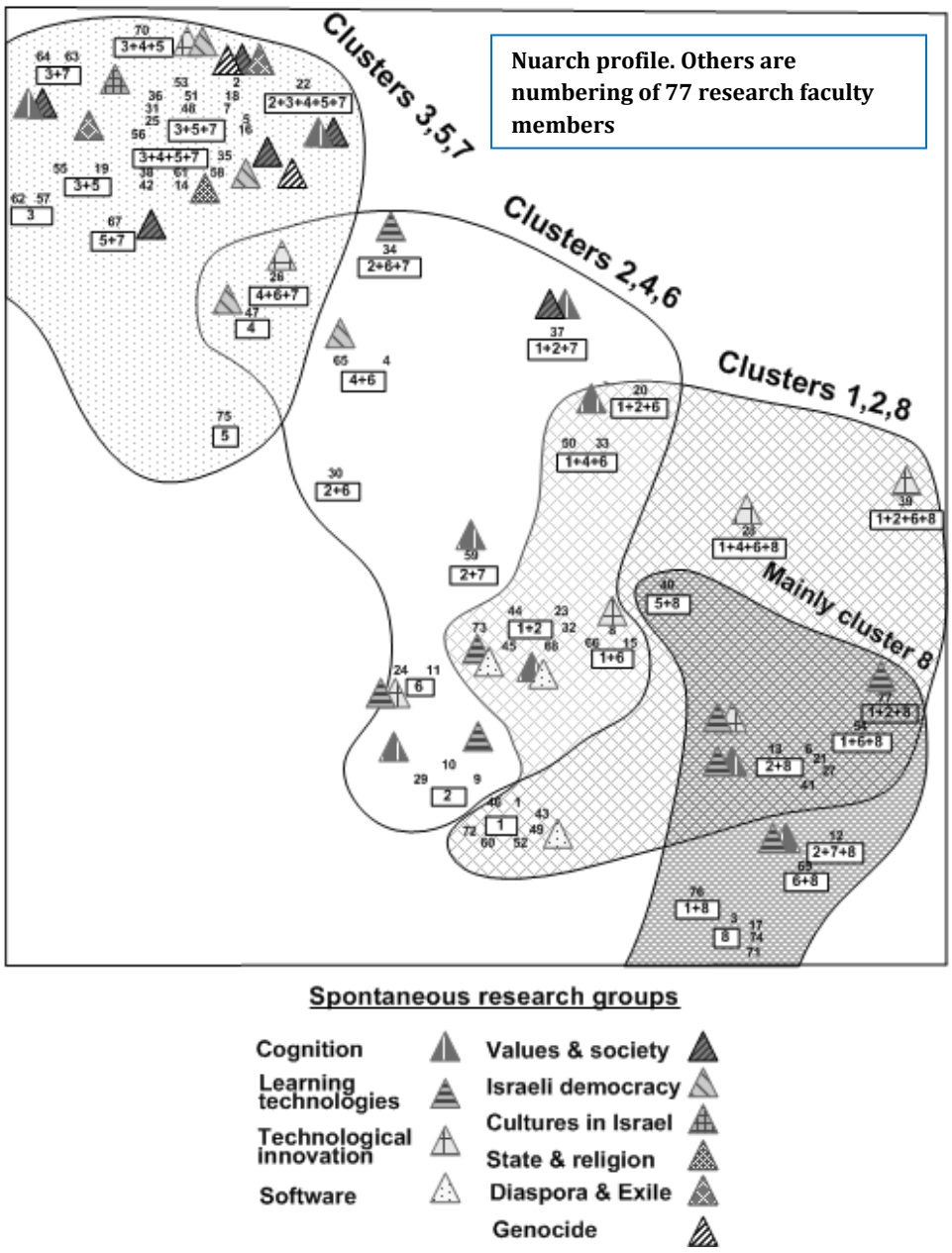
The bottom-up mapping was accomplished by "imposing" the following 10 spontaneous research groups on the cluster map (see chart 2):

1. Cognition.
2. Learning technologies.
3. Technological innovation.
4. Software.

5. Values and society.
6. Israeli democracy.
7. Cultures in Israel.
8. State and religion.
9. Diaspora and exile.
10. Genocide.

One can see that some of the research groups belong to the same "super cluster" or related fields, while others cross domain and faculty borders, and are truly interdisciplinary fields of research. This is more striking when we "impose" these research groups on the top-down map, as is displayed by triangles in the chart.

Chart 2: Bottom-up mapping: imposing 10 spontaneous research groups on the cluster map



Karl Weick in his seminal paper (ASQ, 1993) explains the mechanism of sensemaking by negation - at a time of disaster, when active organizing routines and leadership collapse and the lack of orientation and meaningful instrumental action puts organizational survival at risk. In this critical period, weak inter-subjective communication is a pre-condition of organizational collapse, which in its turn causes panic (an old Freudian observation: in the absence of social and organizational support, the outburst of restrained fears becomes a real possibility). In short, catastrophes dismantle organizational sensemaking. On the other hand, in normal times, sensemaking is built on organizational routines, roles and decision-making that have rational meaning, and people can trust co-workers' judgments and opinions, because they are in an accepted and known context of inter-personal relations and experience.

However, as Millsa and Weatherbeeb (2006) show, an effective inter-organizational response requires shared meaning (Weick & Roberts, 1993), which can only result when there is a convergence of both inter- and intra-organizational sensemaking. Relating to this convergence is organizational identity as a critical element in the sensemaking process.

Mullen, Vladi and Mills (2006) indicate that Weick (1995) provided a framework that has helped to improve our understanding of how an individual's identity influences enactment and sensemaking in organizational crises. However, testing of the theory of sensemaking has been almost totally confined to disastrous events, and in a negative mode, namely, the collapse of sensemaking. When an attempt is made to apply the theory in a less dramatic and traumatic context, we need to consider the time dimension. This is studied and discussed extensively by Weick and Quinn (1999) in a different setup of organizational change – spontaneous versus planned change. In normal times, both spontaneous and planned change require time, and so does the building of a new pattern of sensemaking. Perhaps this is more difficult to do, because the existing pattern works and controls the daily routines, practices and behaviors in Lewinian terms, namely, the field of meanings and identities is frozen.

The research project of the OUI displays properties of both spontaneous and planned change of meanings and identities. The bottom-up research activities are mostly spontaneous and organized around established practices of disciplinary fields of research. These organizing activities strengthen the traditional academic disciplinary identity and sensemaking. This also enhances the status quo ante for university faculty members, who are pushed to excel both qualitatively and quantitatively in disciplinary research and publication.

On the other hand, the top-down efforts of the project emphasize a different locus of identity and sensemaking. They are aimed at research collaboration between researchers from different fields and disciplines. Time, intellectual and material resources are required to change a pattern of sensemaking in this direction. Perhaps we need some time to create a research environment that facilitates both disciplinary and inter-disciplinary co-existence. At these initial stages of the project, researchers at the OUI are experiencing ambiguity - feelings of surprise to discover that their work is in close proximity to the research interests of unexpected colleagues, either in their own department or in other departments, and a new sensemaking that is unfamiliar to faculty members with a strong disciplinary identity. In this respect, we have to wait and see, while continuing to observe, record and gain insights into the dynamic development of this project as it evolves.

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Impact of Values on Leader-Member Exchange and Upward Influence

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to investigate connections between values, leader-member exchange and upward influence in Estonian enterprises. Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory suggests that leaders do not use the same style in dealing with all subordinates, but rather develop a different type of relationship or exchange with each subordinate (Liden & Graen, 1980). Schwartz's (1994) theory of basic human values is used in the survey. Strategies of Upward Influence (SUI) was also used to measure managerial upward influence strategies. The research questions are following: How do values predict leader-member exchange? How do values predict upward influence? The results indicate that one value - self-enhancement predicts organizationally beneficial behavior. One value - self-enhancement predicts LMX factors – affect and professional respect.

Introduction

This paper analyses connections between values, leader-member exchange and upward influence in Estonian enterprises. The purpose of this paper is to investigate connections between values, leader-member exchange and upward influence in Estonian enterprises.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory suggests that leaders do not use the same style in dealing with all subordinates, but rather develop a different type of relationship or exchange with each subordinate (Liden & Graen, 1980). Schwartz's (1994) theory of basic human values is used in the survey. Schwartz's model identified ten motivationally distinct values, which may be located along two orthogonal bipolar dimensions resulting in four "higher order" values (Schwartz, 1994; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004). One values dimension is comprised of self-transcendence on one end and self-enhancement on the other end of a continuum. Schwartz Value Survey was used to measure personal values orientations (Schwartz, 1992, 1994; 1997). Strategies of Upward Influence (SUI) was also used to measure managerial upward influence strategies. In the survey two dimensions of the SUI that create a hierarchy of ethical influence behaviors: organizationally beneficial behaviours and destructive behaviours were used (Egri et al., 2000). Organizationally beneficial behaviours are the standards prescribed and sanctioned behaviours for employees in organizations. Destructive Behaviours are extreme self-serving behaviours that directly hurt others, and often times, the organization (Ralston et al., 2005).

The research questions are following: How do values predict leader-member exchange? How do values predict upward influence? The following section will explore the theoretical framework of the study by presenting an overview of the literature on this topic. Then the empirical study will be presented followed by the results and some concluding remarks.

Theoretical Background

Values

Schwartz (1992, 1994) used his Schwartz Value Inventory (SVI) with a wide survey of over 60,000 people to identify common values that acted as 'guiding principles for one's life'. He identified ten value types that gather multiple values into a single category: power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity and security. These values form a spectrum, with successive values often having a close relationship. This is perhaps unsurprising as they are groupings of a larger number of values. They can also be collated into larger super-groups: openness to change (stimulation, self-direction and some hedonism), self-enhancement (achievement, power and some hedonism), conservation (security, tradition and conformity) and self-transcendence (universalism and benevolence).

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory suggests that leaders do not use the same style in dealing with all subordinates, but rather develop a different type of relationship or exchange with each subordinate (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Graen & Scandura, 1987). These relationships range from those that are based strictly on employment contracts (i.e., low LMX, or "outgroup") to those that are characterized by mutual trust, respect, liking and reciprocal influence (i.e., high LMX or "in-group;" Dansereau, et al., 1975; Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

Theoretical support for the multidimensionality of LMX may be derived from role theory and social exchange theory. The theoretical foundation of LMX has been built using role theory (Graen, 1976; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). According to this approach, leaders test subordinates with various work assignments in a series of role making episodes. The degree to which subordinates comply with task demands and demonstrate a worthiness to be trusted dictates the type of LMX relationship that forms. In turn, the type of LMX determines the extent to which the leader reciprocates with work-related resources such as information, challenging task assignments, and autonomy (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

As implied by the exchange in leader-member exchange, social exchange theory is highly relevant to LMX research (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Considerable attention, beginning primarily in the 1950s and 1960s and extending to the present, has been paid to exchange processes (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1958; Sahlins, 1972; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Thus, both roles and exchanges between role occupants appear to be characterized by multiple dimensions (Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

Strategies of Upward Influence

The Strategies of Upward Influence (SUI) consists of three dimensions that create a hierarchy of ethical influence behaviors (Egri et al., 2000). First scale is measuring organizationally beneficial behaviors. These are the standard prescribed and sanctioned behaviors for employees in organizations. They may be viewed as the "*organizational person*" approach to upward influence because these behaviors tend to be directly beneficial to the organization. Organizationally beneficial behaviors include working hard, volunteering, getting advanced

education, developing good working relationships, getting the job done, and working overtime.

The second scale measures destructive behaviors. These are extreme self-serving behaviors that directly hurt others, and often times, the organization. In many industrialized societies, these behaviors would also be considered illegal. They may be described as a "*burn, pillage, and plunder*" approach to gaining influence because of the harm these behaviors can bring to others and the organization. Destructive behaviors include putting false information on a job resume, blackmailing a co-worker, stealing documents, using listening devices, and hiring a criminal to hurt someone.

Based on the relevant literature authors developed the following general propositions:

P1. Values predict leader-member exchange.

P2. Values predict upward influence.

Empirical study

The aim of this empirical study was to analyze how do values predict leader-member exchange and how do values predict upward influence. The research questions are: How do values predict leader-member exchange? How do values predict upward influence? Estonian organizations were selected to conduct the investigation. The authors conducted an empirical study in 2009. The research was done in Estonian enterprises with 370 respondents.

The Method

3-factors: affect, loyalty and professional respect were assessed by Leader-Member Exchange scale (Liden & Graen, 1980). Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) was used to measure personal values dimensions: self-transcendence and self-enhancement (Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Smith & Schwartz, 1997). Strategies of Upward Influence (SUI) measure was used to assess managerial upward influence strategies (Egri et al., 2000). A linear regression analysis was used in order to find statistically relevant connections between values, leader-member exchange and upward influence in Estonian enterprises. ***The research questions are:*** How do values predict leader-member exchange? How do values predict upward influence?

Results

Our main purpose was to analyze how do values predict leader-member exchange and how do values predict upward influence in Estonian organizations.

Table 1. Connections between two values - self-enhancement and self-transcendence and destructive and organizationally beneficial behaviours (according to standardised regression coefficient Beta)

		B	Beta	t	Sig.
Destructive Behavior					
N=370, R²=.090, F(2.115)=5.7325, p<.000	self-enhancement	.091	.061	0.972	.331
	self-transcendence	.059	.033	0.537	.591
Organizationally Beneficial Behavior					
N=370, R²=.022 F(2.297)=3.3996, p<.000	self-enhancement	.145	.151	2.413	**.016***
	self-transcendence	-.134	-.117	-1.869	.062

Notes. * - coefficient statistically significant, p<0,01

According to the linear regression analysis results in Table 1, Organizationally Beneficial Behavior is predicted by self-enhancement (R^2=.022, F(2.297)=3.3996, p<.000). Destructive behavior isn't predicted by self-enhancement and self-transcendence. The predictive power of these two variables is not so uniform. The determinant coefficients R^2 are calculated for the regression model including two values - self-enhancement and self-transcendence as independent variables.

Table 2. Two values - self-enhancement and self-transcendence predict LME factors – affect, loyalty and professional respect (according to standardised regression coefficient Beta)

		B	Beta	t	Sig.
LME factors					
Affect					
N=370, R²=.090, F(2.115)=5.7325, p<.000	self-enhancement	.444	.291	3.024	**.003***
	self-transcendence	.037	.022	0.233	.816
Loyalty					
N=370, R²=.038, F(2.115)=2.3330, p<.000	self-enhancement	.321	.202	2.046	**.043***
	self-transcendence	-.026	-.015	-0.154	.877
Professional respect					
N=370, R²=.074, F(2.115)=4.6065, p<.000	self-enhancement	.392	.239	2.460	**.015***
	self-transcendence	.120	.066	0.685	.494

Notes. * - coefficient statistically significant, p<0,01

According to the linear regression analysis results in Table 2, LME factor – affect is predicted by self-enhancement (R^2=.090, F(2.115)=5.7325, p<.000). Another LME factor – professional respect is predicted by self-enhancement (R^2=.074, F(2.115)=4.6065, p<.000). LME factor loyalty isn't predicted by self-enhancement and self-transcendence. The predictive power of these two variables is not so uniform. The determinant coefficients R^2 are calculated for the regression model including two values - self-enhancement and self-transcendence as independent variables.

Conclusions

The results of the current study indicate that one value - self-enhancement predicts organizationally beneficial behaviour and it also predicts LMX factors – affect and professional respect in Estonian organizations.

The propositions discussed at the beginning of the paper will now be re-evaluated.

P1. Values predict leader-member exchange**.** This proposition was partly supported by the findings. One value - self-enhancement predicts 2 LMX factors – affect and professional respect, but it doesn`t predict LMX factor - loyalty in Estonian organizations. Another value - self-transcendence doesn`t predict LMX factors – loyalty, affect and professional respect.

P2. Values predict upward influence. This proposition was partly supported by the findings. One value - self-enhancement predicts organizationally beneficial behaviour, but it doesn`t predict destructive behavior. Another value - self-transcendence doesn predict organizationally beneficial and destructive behaviors.

Our findings are consistent with following studies.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory suggests that leaders do not use the same style in dealing with all subordinates, but rather develop a different type of relationship or exchange with each subordinate (Liden & Graen, 1980).

Summarizing the above, one value - self-enhancement predicts organizationally beneficial behaviour and it also predicts LMX factors – affect and professional respect in Estonian organizations (Figure 1). Self-enhancement is natural human need and if it is satisfied persons behave organizationally beneficial way.

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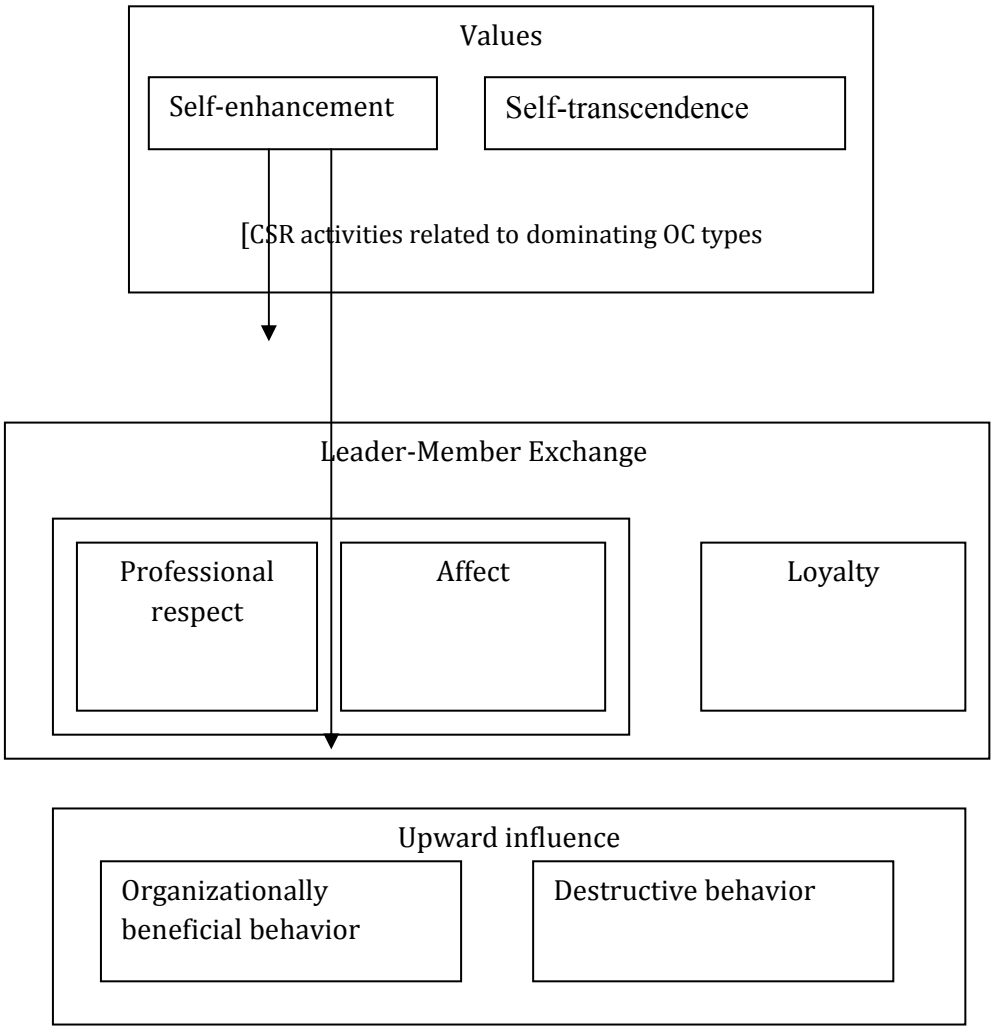
Figure 1. How do values predict leader-member exchange and upward influence



Work absence of Israeli school Teachers: An Organizational Deviance and Ethics Perspective

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Abstract

Two studies are presented with the purpose of investigating teacher absence in Israel from the theoretical perspectives of organizational deviance (Study 1) and organizational ethical climate (Study 2). Study 1 posited that absence may represent deviant behavior, and tested this major hypothesis by investigating temporal absence trends of the entire public teacher population around weekends, holidays, and days of heavy workload. Study 2 proposed that teachers' work absences are associated with school's ethical climate. Our results supported the hypotheses of both studies. We argue that the major import of the two studies, considered together, is to suggest that work absence is linked to organizational ethics, thereby enhancing our understanding of this organizational dysfunction.

Introduction

In the current study we define absenteeism as the failure to report for scheduled work (Johns, 1997; Rosenblatt & Shirom, 2005;2006), and we focus on the voluntary aspect of this failure. We borrow from the theoretical perspectives of organizational deviance and school ethics because schools constitute ethical environments (Starratt, 1991), where teachers are looked on as moral agents. Therefore we believed it would be particularly informative to investigate the extent teachers' absence represents organizational deviance that may affect school ethics, and on the other hand the extent teachers respond to school ethics with work absence. Accordingly, our study focuses on two research questions. The first is whether teachers' absenteeism in Israeli schools represents deviant behavior. Our Study I, described below, tackles this question. The second research question is whether teacher absence is related to the school's ethical environment. Our Study II below is an attempt to answer it.

STUDY I: WORK ABSENCE AS A DEVIANT WORK BEHAVIOR

Work absence, particularly voluntary, may be viewed as an organizational misbehavior. Vardi and Wietz (1994) defined organizational misbehavior as "any intentional action by members of organizations which defies and violates (a) shared organizational norms and expectations, and/or (b) core societal values, mores and standards of proper conduct." Tendency to misbehave may be triggered by negative emotions, feelings of frustration and job dissatisfaction. These are major affective forces that enhance people's intentions to engage in misconduct such as work absence (Spector, 1997).

In education, Alcázar et al. (2006), who studied teacher absence in several developing societies around the world, presented an unequivocal view of absence as deviant behavior.

Based on their findings of high absence rates in countries such as Papua New Guinea (15%), Zambia (17%) and Peru (5-21%), these authors referred to teacher absence as "opportunistic" and "shirking". Drawing on principal-agent theory, Alcázar et al. (2006) suggested that absence behavior be controlled by tight monitoring of "principals" such as school administration and strong parents.

Deviant behavior in the form of work absence may be explained by social exchange (Blau, 1964) mechanisms. Often, work absence seems to be a retaliatory behavior on the part of employees, responding to work frustrations. For example, Dalton and Mesch (1992) found that employees who were denied work transfers against their will were more likely to be absent after those decisions were made than those whose requests to be transferred were granted. Also, in a comparison of absence rates between Israeli employees who were promoted and those who were not, the latter proved to have higher absence rates (Schwarzwald, Koslowsky & Shalit, 1992). Klaas, Henneman and Olson (1991) showed that absenteeism of union employees rose after they filed policy-related grievances, signaling their perception of injustice on management's part. These studies indicate a high likelihood that attendance/absence behavior reflects more a response to employees' perception of the way they are treated than any real inability to show up for work.

In our study we tested the extent absence behavior reflects a form of deviant behavior by examining temporal trends of absence rates. These trends may reflect deviant behavior if they are not randomly distributed across a teacher's work week. We examined the possibility, suggested by the absenteeism literature (cf. Norton, 1998) that teachers tend to extend their weekends by timing absence days to precede or succeed official holidays and weekends. The above theoretical arguments and empirical evidence led us to formulate our first and second hypotheses:

> *H1. Absence trends will not be distributed evenly by weekly work days: Teachers will tend to be more absent in days adjacent to (before or after) weekend days.*

> *H2. Absence trends will not be distributed evenly by holiday vacations: Teachers will tend to be more absent on days adjacent to (before or after) holidays than on days not adjacent to holidays.*

Another theoretical approach to explaining organizational absenteeism focuses on work stress. Steers and Rhodes (1978) viewed stress as influencing an employee's motivation to attend, which in turn influenced actual attendance. Most models of work stress that regard absenteeism as a response to stress have based their theoretical arguments on Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional stress model, which views stress as arising from certain person-environment interactions. When employees appraise stressors as exceeding their coping resources, they will perceive them as representing threats. These threat appraisals are defined as stresses in transactional stress theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The theory posits that stresses could lead to psychological, physiological, and behavioral dysfunctions. Absence behavior represents a dysfunctional form of work behavior resulting from stress.

The accumulated evidence provides support for the following argument: work-related stresses could lead teachers to misuse their absence prerogatives. Previous studies showed that stress emanating from perceived heavy workload led employees to absence (Rauhala et al., 2007). Similarly, we argue that teachers will tend to avoid long working days more than short days, to avoid stress. That is, teachers, who as indicated above have some personal discretion in

using their absence allowance, may misuse it to accommodate their specific needs and interests. Following the above rationale, we hypothesize.

H3. Teachers will tend to be more absent on days characterized by heavier workload (in number of daily working hours) than on lighter-workload days.

Method of Study I

The study sample was 52,056 teachers in elementary and middle state school teachers in Israel. These were elementary and middle-level schools (Israeli secondary-level schools are predominantly run by local authorities). For the study reported here, the data base was composed of absence episodes, namely absence episodes were used as a unit of analysis (rows). The data included 314,557 absence episodes for the 2001-2002 school year, representing on average 6.04 absence episodes per teacher. The total number of absence days for the same year was 7,060,869. Our method of analysis was to link each absence episode with the weekly day or days on which it occurred and with individual personal working schedules. We report findings for the Jewish sector only, because this is the largest of all national sectors of Israeli schoolteachers (others being Arab or Druze,) covering approximately 80% of all teachers in Israel.

Results of Study I

Absence Trends by Weekly Days. Absence trends by days of the week were measured by examining the number of absence episodes that started on each of the week's working days (Sunday, Monday, etc.), in relation to absences ordinarily expected on that day. Results show that Sunday is the day preferred by Jewish teachers (who rest on one day – Saturday) to start an absence period (proportion 1.13, namely, 0.13 above the expected rate of absence starts). The next preferred day is Thursday, while Friday (a shorter working day than all the others in the week) is the least preferred for starting absence. These results suggest a tendency to "tag" absence to a formal rest day (Saturday), or to the shortest day (Friday). In other words, we observe a tendency on the part of teachers to prolong weekends.. It shows that absences that start on Sundays are the longest. These results partially support H1.

Absence Trends by Holidays. Analysis of absence days before and after holidays features the proportion of absences on specific days before and after holidays to the absences expected on these days of the week not adjacent to a holiday. Results show a clearly consistent tendency for Jewish teachers to be absent on days following holidays, at a rate higher than expected. This tendency is particularly obvious after Hanukka and Purim (which constitute relatively less "holy" holidays, where Israelis tend to go on vacations more than in the other "high holidays" – New Year (Rosh Hashana) and the Day of Atonement (Yom Kippur). By contrast, there is a lower tendency to be absent on days preceding holidays than on the respective days of the week. These results partially support H2.

Absence Trends by Day-of-the-Week Teaching Load. Day-of-the-week teaching load was measured by the number of personal working hours of a teacher each day. The average number in our study sample was 4.61. Note that Israeli teachers at the elementary and middle school levels are required to teach no more than 24 and 30 hours a month respectively, and are often exempt from some teaching load in exchange for administrative duties and special responsibilities. The number of personal working hours fluctuates greatly from day to day, depending on the individual daily work schedule of each teacher. This analysis aimed to examine whether absence episodes were linked to the number of a given day's working hours (workload), the hypothesis being that the number of absence episodes would not be evenly distributed each day, and would depend on the number of teaching hours scheduled that day of the week. Results of this analysis showed that H3 was largely supported. Teachers tended to be absent mainly in days characterized by daily workload of 6 and 7 working hours. The next preferred day to be absent was a 5-hour working day. The least preferred day was a 3-hour working day. This tendency clearly reflects teachers' avoidance of long working days. Yet this trend was not perfectly symmetrical (3-hour days were more attended than 1- and 2-hour days), but in all, teachers were least absent on all three shortest working days (1,2,3 hours; a factor of less than 1.00).

STUDY II: ABSENCE AS A RESPONSE TO ORGANIZATIONAL UNETHICAL WORKPLACE

In the present study we focus on ethical climate, a concept developed and tested in a variety of organizations in general (Victor & Cullen, 1987), and in educational institutions in particular (Rosenblatt & Peled, 2002). The purpose of Study 2 is to offer a conceptual framework that links voluntary absence with school's ethical climate and to test this theoretical model.

Victor and Cullen (1987) conceptualized ethical climate as the shared perceptions of what constitutes ethically correct organizational behavior, and how ethical issues should be handled, as defined by the organization. Their conceptualization of ethical climate was formed by the intersection of two dimensions. One dimension represents basic ethical approaches: egoism, benevolence, and principle. The second represents levels of analysis: individual, local, and cosmopolitan. This conceptualization was used to develop instruments that measured different dimensions of ethical climate (e.g., Weber, 1995). Here we focus on one such dimension – *caring,* which derives from a combination of egoism and benevolence. A caring ethical climate is one where employees have genuine interest in each other's welfare.

A number of studies point at the relationship between ethical climate and voluntary absence. Wimbush and Shepard (1994) showed that an unethical organizational climate was related to negative organizational outcomes, including absenteeism. In a study on schoolteachers, Hutchison, Sowa, Eisenberger, and Huntington (1986) suggested that when schools focus on high morality, schoolteachers respond by refraining from voluntary absences. Peterson (2002), who tested Victor and Cullen's (1987) ethical climate model, demonstrated that an organizational climate characterized by caring for employees was negatively related to their work absence. Based on these studies, we expect caring climate to be negatively related to teachers' voluntary absence. This brings us to our hypothesis:

H4. School caring ethical climate will be negatively related to teachers' work absence.

The present study, therefore, does not repeat these findings in specific hypotheses, but includes the above background variables – gender, age, seniority and organizational size – as control variables in the analyses testing H4.

Method of Study II

Participants were 1,016 teachers (67% response rate) from 35 schools belonging to a large technological high-school network (comprising 52 schools) throughout Israel. Data were collected via self-reported questionnaires.

Study Measures. Absence Behavior: Teachers were asked to record the total number of their absences in the preceding five-month period. Absenteeism was measured by frequency of incidents of absences (number of absence incidents over five months). Caring Ethical Climate (Victor and Cullen, 1987). Background characteristics: age, gender, school seniority and school size.

Results of Study II

Findings show that caring ethical climate was a relatively strong ($B=-.268$, $p<.001$) predictor of absence frequency (reverse relationship), supporting H4. Gender and age were also related to absence (unlike seniority and school size): women tended to be absent more than men, and older teachers were absent less frequently than younger teachers. Although seniority was not directly related to absence, an interaction analysis indicated that seniority influenced the relationship between caring climate and absence frequency. All five levels of seniority were included in the analysis. Results showed that on high levels of seniority (10 years and more) the negative relationship between caring ethical climate and absence frequency is weaker than on lower levels of seniority (5 years and fewer). No other interactions of ethical climate with any of the background variables were found.

Summary and Conclusions

We believe that the two studies presented here confirm the possibility that absence contains a deviant element, and that there is a link between work absence and workplace ethics. The results augment those of previous studies on a variety of occupations and in diverse countries, showing that absence behavior has a voluntary aspect (e.g., Sagie, 1998), and that absenteeism is sometimes a response to unethical work environment (e.g., De Boer, Bakker, Syroit, & Schaufeli, 2002). Together these studies provide some evidence for the relevance of using an organizational-deviance and ethical framework for the study of work absence.

This perspective may shed new light on our understanding of absence behavior, in particular the distinction between voluntary and involuntary absence. Our results raise the possibility of intentional and non-random absence, yet some previous studies question the voluntary/involuntary distinction (Avey et al., 2006). This leads to the need to discern the different sources of voluntary absence. While some voluntary absence may be partially legitimate and harmless (staying home because of emotional anxiety while arranging for a

replacement), other types of voluntary behavior may be deviant and destructive (being absent for an undeclared recreational reason, with no prior arrangements). Because of the high sensitivity of these behaviors, self-report data will be difficult to obtain, so studies akin to Study 1 above may indicate the existence and direction of deviance in such behaviors. This approach fine-tunes our methodological approach to the study of voluntary absence. However, additional methods should be triangulated to establish the absence-as-work-deviance argument.

Putting the two studies together, we believe that the results may point at a larger research framework, where organizational cues influence individual behavior, all explained by the interaction of organizational ethical environment, work stress, and organizational deviant behavior. An ethical climate that violates a basic value such as care of employee may lead to employees' perception of injustice and frustration. This may elevate work stress, which is then followed by avoidance behavior such as work absence. Thus, organizational-level predictors lead to individual-level predictors of work absence, creating a chain of influence factors.

This hypothetical model of absence predictors of both levels may be supported by literature on *absence culture*. Studies on work absence showed that absence is affected by individual differences, but also by the social context, including attendance norms (Bowers & McIver, 2001), collegial relations (Xie & Johns, 2000) and principals' supportive leadership style (Imants & Van Zoelen, 1995). Absence culture may direct and reflect individuals' voluntary absence, and moreover may legitimize it (Addae & Johns, 2002). We recommend that the potential reciprocal relationship between workplace ethical culture and individual absence deviance be investigated in future research.

Finally, we believe that the results of this study may provide practical guidelines on how teacher absence should be managed in schools. Results of Study I suggest that managerial intervention is needed to reduce the voluntary and intentional element in work absence. Examples may include programs that buy out unused absence days, improving teachers' work conditions, and individual attention to teachers who exhibit absence "proneness". Results of Study II suggest that a stronger focus on school ethical environment may lead to reduced teacher absence, or alternatively, containing teacher absence may contribute to higher school ethical standards. In conclusion, both studies point at the importance of understanding the intricacies of ethical climate and ethical school norms, in order to better understand employee absence.

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Chapter 8: Values and Ethics

Facing the Economic Downturn with Spiritual Values

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Abstract

Spirituality in the workplace centers on the role of spiritual values in organizations. In 2002, the International Center for Spirit at Work (ICSW) began recognizing exemplary applications of the ideals and values that most strongly represented the spiritual perspective of organizations. This paper revisits the 2002 honorees documenting their experiences during the current economic recession. The research relied on a content analysis methodology to analyze business articles to address the following question: To what extent did spiritual values continue to be expressed in the organization's behavior during the economic recession. The results suggest that these organizations have been able to find an effective balance to meet the economic challenges of a recession without abandoning their core ideals.

Introduction

Spirituality in the workplace has emerged as an added framework for the study of values in organizations. As a source of organizational values, spirituality in the workplace complements other perspectives of the role of values enriching what is known about the values-based behavior at the individual and institutional levels of the organization. Yet despite the enthusiasm with which spirituality in the workplace has been embraced and anticipation that it would potentially lead to a new business paradigm, evidence of a broad-based transformation of the core business model is at best difficult to identify. How organizations have responded to the current economic recession creates a unique opportunity to further explore whether spirituality in the workplace has indeed resulted in transformation of the core business model. In this exploratory research, this question is addressed by focusing on the experiences of companies that were previously recognized for the expression of spiritual values in the operations. This research addresses whether crisis forces spirituality and related values to the background or whether spiritual values serve as a beacon for the direction companies need to take in overcoming to maneuver successfully through the threats created by conditions in the business environment.

Literature Review

The key issue addressed in this paper is whether spirituality can continue to serve as a sustained source of core organizational values in times of economic hardship. Spirituality whether focused on the individual or organizational level, represents an orientation to the study of how values influence individual behaviour and organizational performance. While there is still no consensus on a definition of spirituality as manifested in the workplace, several conceptualizations seem to recur. At the individual level, spirituality has been described as a work feeling energizing behavior (Dehler & Welsh, 1994), an inner experiencing of a Beyond (McCormick, 1994), an urge to find ultimate purpose, meaning or

knowledge and behaving in accordance with these insights (Cavanaugh, 1999) and a life journey toward alignment, order or cohesiveness (King & Nicol, 1999). At the organizational level, spirituality has been described as a framework of organizational values associated with transcendental, connectedness outcomes for the individual (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). Two recurring themes describing how spirituality is manifested in organizations have been suggested by Groß (2010): transcendence, or the search for meaning in life, and community, the connection the organization provides to others

As a source of values, a spiritual orientation to the workplace can guide behaviour at both the individual level and practices at the organizational level. At the individual level, spirituality has been associated with values such as personal integrity, morality and humanity in managerial behaviors (Cavanaugh, 1999). At the organizational level, spirituality results in stronger trust and mutual respect within organizational cultures (Burack, 1999). Spirituality can also mediate the relationship between the individual and the organization by strengthening the alignment between individual and organizational values (Ashforth & Pratt, 2003) resulting in outcomes such as greater organizational commitment (Gull & Doh 2004; Kolodinsky, Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2008), with consequent benefits for both the individual and the organization.

Spirituality can be considered one approach to the study of values in organizations, complementing frameworks such as values-based management and corporate social responsibility. These three orientations share some themes in common. Values-based management emerged as an alternative to the traditional efficiency- and control-based model of organization management, reflecting a desire by stakeholders for a more holistic and ethical approach to management practices and activities (Pruzan, 1998). It has been associated with a number of positive outcomes, such as employee satisfaction (Ravlin & Richie, 2006) and organizational commitment (Abbott, White, & Charles, 2005). In classical corporate social responsibility (CSR) perspectives, economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic outputs were recognized as multiple organizational obligations to society (Carroll, 1999). Some scholars assign a particularly significant role for ethics in CSR (Garriga & Mele, 2004) and acknowledge that common ethical principles are rooted in the spiritual values of all major religious faiths (Sauser, 2005).

Another theme these three orientations share in common is their relationship to the financial performance of the organization. Values based management and CSR are both recognized for their strategic implications. As described earlier, values based management acknowledges the role of multiple stakeholders (Pruzan, 1998), while CSR is described as a stakeholder management intervention and threat mitigation (Godfrey, 2007). In keeping with a strategic orientation, the appropriate level of CSR activities may be subject to market supply-demand forces making such decisions economically driven (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). In the spirituality in the workplace literature, the recent emphasis has been on the positive influence spirituality can have on organizational outcomes such as productivity (Gull & Doh, 2004; Kolodinsky et al., 2008) and the resulting impact on profitability. These views suggest that a spiritual orientation to work and organization somehow strengthens or enhances existing processes leading to valued individual and organizational outcomes. Consequently, if spirituality in the workplace has become a strategic asset for the organization, what role will it play in times of economic recession when rapid and at times disruptive adjustments are necessary?

Methodology

An exploratory study was completed to address how spirituality affects organizational performance in times of economic crisis. The research examined the experiences of a sample of five companies that were recognized in 2002 for applying spiritual principles in their operations. To determine how these companies responded to economic recession, a sample of business press articles was reviewed using content analysis methodology to extract underlying themes.

The sample. In 2002, the International Center for Spirit at Work (ICSW) launched an annual award given to companies "…that have implemented specific policies, programs, or practices that explicitly nurture spirituality inside their organizations." A literature search found articles on 5 of the 7 companies honored in 2002, and these are described briefly below with excepts from the ICSW award fact sheet as found on the website, www.spiritatwork.org.

The Body Shop International sells natural cosmetic products in over 50 countries, embracing the spiritual principles expressed by founder Anita Roddick, as well adhering to the principles of social justice, socially responsible activism, volunteerism and environmental sustainability. Eileen Fisher, Inc., a women's fashion company, aims to simplify dressing while inspiring women to be themselves. Employee development includes nurturing through company values and a self-care benefit while vendors are nurtured through the company's commitment to international standards of social accountability.

Medtronic, Inc. a US $5.55 billion (in 2002) publicly held worldwide medical technology company, serves customers and patients in 120 countries and employs more than 25,000. Spiritual practices include the annual Holiday Party where the stories of at least six former patients whose lives were changed by the company's products and services are celebrated by over 1,600 employees attending the event and viewed by thousands of others via closed circuit television, and on video tape. In addition, every new employee worldwide is greeted personally by the founder or the CEO and given a desk-top medallion that serves as a reminder of the company's core principles and values. Telus Mobility, Inc. a Canadian telecommunications company providing digital wireless since 1994, conducts "Transformation Workshops" for call center employees with a focus on personal development resulting in a turnover rate of less than 2%. The company emphasizes employee wellness by conducting courses for integrating body-mind-spirit, including yoga, meditation, and tai chi, and a management merger-integration course that includes experiential spiritual practices. Wheaton Franciscan System Inc., operating more than 100 health and shelter service organizations in Colorado, Illinois, Iowa and Wisconsin, is sponsored by the Wheaton Franciscan Sisters. Specific spiritual practices include establishing the Spiritual Services Function, a department dedicated to spirituality in the workplace and holding an annual Corporate Retreat Experience focused on enriching the spiritual life of the organization's leaders.

Data collection. A literature search, entering the company corporate name in ABI-Inform all databases, and Lexis Nexis was conducted to generate articles referring to each of the companies in turn for the years 2007 to February 2010, covering the economic recession period. As listed in Table 1, 60 individual publications were returned including 5 scholarly journals. Articles that could not be retrieved in full text format were excluded from the sample. The Lexis Nexis search returned 700-1000 articles for some of the companies in the sample. In these cases, a random sample of 50 articles for each company was selected. Article properties are listed in Table 2.

Table 1. Publication Sources n=62 (*Scholarly Journals)

Africa News	Crain's Detroit Business	Institutional Investor	TelecomWorldWire
Barron's	Crain's NY Business	International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*	The Age
Bath Chronicle	Daily Deal	Journal of Business Ethics*	The Express
Belfast Telegraph	Daily Mail	Journal of Strategy and Management*	The International Herald Tribune
BIOMECHANICS	Daily News	M2 Europharma	The Philadelphia Inquirer
Biotech Business Week	Daily Post	Marketing Week	The Press
Biotech Equipment Update	Drug Week	Marketwire	The Straits Times
Bristol Evening Post	European Journal of Operational Research*	Modern Healthcare	Toronto Star
Business Day	Evening Times	Modern Physician	Toronto Sun
Business Insurance	Financial Advisor	Newsday	Training Journal
Business Strategy and the Environment*	Financial Post FP	Nursing Management*	USA Today
Chain Store Age	Financial Times	Pharma	Washington Post
Christian Science Monitor	Globe & Mail	RCR Wireless News	Western Daily Press
Computer Weekly	HR Magazine	Soap Perfumery & Cosmetics	Women's Wear Daily
Corporate IT Update	Newsweek	Strategic Direction*	Wall Street Journal Abstracts
Crain's Chicago Business	NY Times		

Table 2. Number of Articles by Publication Category (Average length in words)

	News	Trade	Magazine	Scholarly
Body Shop	22 (1103)	12 (563)	10 (523)]	5
Eileen Fisher	28 (836)	2 (1099)	1 (256)	
Medtronic	47(553)	3 (1067)	1 (142)	1
Telus	54(532	2 (552)	1 (1352)	
Wheaton		9 (558)	7 (873)	2

Results

The data were analyzed using NVivo8 coding article text to themes representing the constructs probed by the research question. As described in Kippendorff (2004), content analysis creates links between units of text, i.e., the data and inferences drawn from data-generated themes that address the issues raised by the research question while taking account of the contextual setting in which texts appear. The results for each of the themes are presented as follows.

Core Values. This first theme emerged from texts referring to four of the five companies. Following its acquisition by L'Oreal, the Body Shop expressed its commitment to its ethical principles and core founding belief that business can be a force for good. Texts addressed how values became the embedded in core operating principles and that while durable they were also dynamic and adaptable. Articles referred to the emphasis on social and

environmental change in the Body Shop's mission statement and the company's five basic values addressing animal testing, fair trade practices, human rights, protecting the planet and activating self-esteem. In addition, the founder's personal values, e.g., caring, honesty, fairness and respect were also described. In references to the company leadership, texts included the principle of stewardship, responsibility, respect and connecting stakeholders by creating a common future, justice and civic citizenship. These values were enacted in networking behaviours which, in turn, were closely aligned with female leadership behaviours. The core values theme was also supported by texts in the scholarly articles category with emphasis on leadership and values representative of the company. References to Eileen Fisher Inc., included text about monitoring humane conditions in factories, use of sustainable fabrics, employee involvement, social conscious management practices, eco-conscious practices and respect for human rights. In the case of Medtronics, text referred to leadership and innovation in extending life and alleviating pain, and covered sanctions by the company against a researcher who manipulated results, acting to withdraw a product where safety became a growing concern, but contesting consumer rights to common law claims against medical device manufacturers. Articles about Wheaton referred to promoting values-based behaviours, and to maintaining a values-based strategic course.

Relationship to community. This second theme emerged from texts that acknowledged a relationship to community. Texts referred to the Body Shop's history of committing significant resources to community activities, it's strong early identification with social issues and more recent evidence of corporate social responsibility activities directed toward building a responsible organization dedicated to the principle of community development. Other texts referred to various social causes such as poverty, child labour, amorality in business and helping the marginalized, embraced by the founder from the company's beginnings. In collaboration with other companies, the Body Shop has engaged in fund-raising and awareness programs related to HIV-AIDS. In the case of Wheaton, texts referred to the practice of providing care for uninsured or under-insured patients, providing free services such as prostate cancer screening, collaborating with community health coalitions, and maintaining relationships with other community based providers of addiction care. In the case of Eileen Fisher, text referred to the company's support for a scholarship program while Telus was acknowledged for its work in addressing school dropout rates through partnerships with other business sponsored foundations.

As a sub-theme of relationship to community, corporate social responsibility activities were also inferred from text descriptions of company initiatives. Texts, all of which came from the trade category described a Body Shop appointment to the position heading corporate responsibility, environment and sustainability and an Eileen Fisher appointment heading People and Culture, an area that included leadership development, learning and social consciousness among others. Text referred to Eileen Fisher's support for female artisans in South America working with organic fabrics and its distribution of grants to female entrepreneurs and nonprofits. Also described were Telus' explicit commitment to CSR through donations to environmental groups based on customers' choice of electronic billing or recycling unused mobile phones. Philanthropic corporate social responsibility was inferred from texts describing Eileen Fisher's consideration of nonprofit organizations as candidates for the company's grants program. Texts also reported how the Body shop, now a unit of L'Oreal, was introducing a hand cream with all sales proceeds designated to combating sex trafficking.

The third theme, an unusual way of doing business, emerged from text describing three core operating principles at the Body Shop, initiating change, avoiding traditional channels and appealing to a loyal clientele who identified with the company's values. Related text referred

to the company's dedication to social change and its intent to retain a core ethical stance as a L'Oreal subsidiary by promoting ethical consumption, being guided by its ethical imperative to include social responsibility as a feature of its corporate branding, its commitment to influencing legislation governing animal testing practices and its dedication to building consumer awareness on issues it supported. Text also revealed how the company was recognized for its efforts in describing a Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals award received for its commitment to animal welfare. In the case of Eileen Fisher, text referred to the company's collaborative leadership style, specifically described as the opposite of traditional top-down management systems.

Other activities related to this theme included the Body Shop's efforts to educate consumers on the benefits of a natural lifestyle and the use of natural ingredients and recyclable containers. A new well-being line was expected to strongly reflect the Body Shop's reputation as a producer of ethical products. Text also referred to practices such as de-emphasizing advertising, the use of modest packaging and full disclosure of ingredients and franchising opportunities.

The fourth next theme, managing in the recession, dealt with organizational performance and emerged from texts describing management and governance practices. Text described Eileen Fisher's rejection of a proposal to take the company public, deciding instead to continue with an employee stock ownership plan. It was noted that growth in ESOPs seemed to be driven by aging entrepreneurs who wanted to cash in some of the value of the company. Another reference to Eileen Fisher noted that the company had reason to celebrate even as the industry was engaged in cost cutting initiatives. Text referred to Wheaton's buy out of other partners in a heart hospital, subsequently converting it to a not-for-profit. One sub-theme of economic performance was products, such as Medtronic's process of gaining premarket approval for a new coronary stent.

Related to managing in the recession, texts referred to the implementation of job cuts. At the Body Shop, a planned reorganization might result in the potential loss of almost 300 jobs. At Medtronic the CEO's plans to manage the company as a mature enterprise would entail rationalizing the manufacturing function to capitalize on economies of scale. Texts also referred to the impact such initiatives would have on employees. At the Body Shop, the reorganization initiative followed a survey of worldwide employees and was to be implemented by re-assigning displaced employees in appropriate new positions and where this was not possible, supporting departing employees in their transition to new opportunities.

Discussion

In content analysis of texts, the context must be considered in determining the inferences to be drawn from the data (Krippendorff, 2004). The context for these texts includes both the economic recession and the audience that would normally read the types of articles included in the sample. These publications do not specifically or explicitly emphasize communicate about values or spirituality in the workplace. Considering the content these publications would choose to feature in articles about these organizations, an orientation that emphasizes values or spirituality might not be expected. The results suggest that within the economic recession period following the award of the ICSW, these organizations continued to be recognized for operational and managerial practices that were consistent with a strong emphasis on values, closely aligned with spirituality in the workplace. Indeed, the descriptions of the practices of these organizations suggest that values were acknowledged by

the publications as deserving of mention in the articles. Inferences can also be drawn about the readers' interest in receiving information about how values continue to be associated with these organizations even during the economic recession. A final inference concerns how these organizations responded operationally to the economic crisis. There was no evidence that the values which were the basis for the ICSW award had been abandoned or given lesser importance. Particularly striking was the description of the Body Shop's planned reorganization and how it would address displaced employees. The company's original values reflecting horizontal and vertical transcendence (Groß, 2010) were clearly evident in its plans. By far the most references in the data from the greatest number of sources were related to economic performance. These references covered all five companies but were concentrated on Medtronics, Wheaton and Telus. This suggests that, although values were not entirely ignored, in the vast majority of articles about these companies during the recession period, economic performance appeared to be of greater interest to readers.

Conclusions

According to Meehan, Meehan & Richards, (2006), the organizational orientation of the Chicago School and its fundamentally economic model continue to dominate management. Part of the difficulty in moving away from this model is the failure of management research to provide concepts that adequately reflect the efficacy of alternative approaches. In this paper, evidence has been presented that suggests an alternative orientation which acknowledges and builds on the role of values and spirituality in the workplace is capable of receiving attention in the practitioner community even during a period of economic recession. Although the research has limitations in terms of generalizability, the exploratory findings suggest that further analysis of additional organizations fitting the same criteria could strengthen the support for the conclusions described. At the very least, the evidence suggests that values and spirituality in the workplace discourse and the discourse base on the Chicago School economic model do not necessarily have to take place independently.

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Associations between Ethics and Cultural Dimensions: Similarities and differences concerning ethics in Brazil, China and Estonia

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to identify similarities and differences in ethics, cultural values and practices across Estonian, Brazilian and Chinese organizations and verify whether such differences in ethics seem to be related with national culture. National culture was measured with secondary data from the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004). Data for ethics was collected with a questionnaire developed by Schlenker and Forsyth (1977) and Forsyth (1980). The final sample comprises 236 Estonian, 56 Brazilian and 61 Chinese organizations. Preliminary results from correlation analysis indicate that there seems to be some association between national culture and values, practices and ethics.

Introduction

The main aim of the study is to identify similarities and differences in the evaluation of ethics, cultural values and practices across different countries and verify whether there seems to be some association between those differences and national culture.

The following section will provide the theoretical background for the present study by presenting an overview of the literature on ethics and national culture. Research methods will be presented next and will be followed by a brief discussion of the similarities and differences in Estonia, China and Brazil concerning ethics. Then empirical results will be presented followed by concluding remarks.

Theoretical Background

Ethics

According to Spence and Van Heekeren (2005), ethics can simply be defined as a set of prescriptive rules, principles, values and virtues of character that inform and guide interpersonal and intrapersonal conduct: that is, the conduct of people toward each other and the conduct of people toward themselves. Ferrell and Fraedrich (1997) pointed out that ethical issues are problems, situations or opportunities that require a person or organization to choose among several actions that must be evaluated as right or wrong. Gini (2004) considers that ethics is about the assessment and evaluation of values, because all of life is value-laden.

It is usually acknowledged that there are two dominant types of theoretical ethical systems – Deontological ethics and Teleological (Utilitarianism) ethics, while several scholar also refer to a third system – virtue-based ethics. Theories that emphasize the nature of the act are called deontological (from the Greek word for "duty"). These theories hold that something is inherently right or good about such acts as truth telling and promise keeping and inherently wrong or bad about such acts as lying and promise breaking (Pojman, 2002). Focusing on duties, obligations and principles, deontologists base their decisions about what is right on broad abstract universal principles such as honesty, promise keeping, fairness, rights (to safety, privacy, etc.), justice and respect for people and property (Trevino and Katherine, 1999). This system is expressed as the No-Harm Principle (Michalos, 1995): one ought to act so that one's actions tend not to harm anyone else. The basic moral objective of this approach is to carry out one's duty irrespective of the consequence, or end, of any action (McEwan, 2001).

Teleological ethics focus primarily on consequences in determining moral rightness and wrongness (Pojman, 2002). Utilitarianism is considered as the dominant version of teleological ethics (Trevino & Katherine, 1999; Pojman, 2002). Michalos (1995) states that this system follows the Beneficence Principle: one ought to act so that one's actions tend to impartially improve the quality of life. Utilitarianism leads one to do what is most likely to have the best consequences overall – to do that which will produce the greatest happiness for the greatest number of people (Pojman, 2002).

As Trevino and Katherine (1999) point out, a deontologist focuses on doing what is "right" (based on moral principles such as honesty), whereas a utilitarian focuses on the consequences and what would expectedly maximise societal welfare.

Pojman (2002) considers virtue-based ethical systems, sometimes called aretaic ethics, as the third theoretical ethical system. According to virtue-based ethics it is important not only to do the right thing, but also to have the requisite dispositions, motivations and emotions in being good and doing right. Obviously, the virtue ethics approach focuses more on the integrity of the moral actor than on the moral act itself (Trevino & Katherine, 1999). Fisher and Lovell (2003) argue that virtue ethics is not a system of rules, but rather a set of personal characteristics that, if practiced, will ensure that the individual is likely to make the 'right' choice in any ethically complex situation.

A related concept – ethical relativism – should be considered also. Highly ethical relativistic individuals tend to believe that what would be considered moral behaviors depend on the nature of the situation and that universal moral principles (of what is right or wrong) could be rejected (Forsyth, 1992).

National culture: values and practices

According to Cameron and Quinn (1999) there are many kinds or levels of culture that affect individual and organisational behaviour. At the broadest level, a global culture, such as a world religion`s culture or the culture of the Eastern hemisphere. Cameron and Quinn (1999) state that culture defines the core values, assumptions, interpretations and approaches that characterise an organisation.

Hofstede (1980) and Tromperaars (1992) have reported marked differences across countries based on certain key dimensions. For example, culture can be characterised on the basis of universalism versus particularism, individualism versus collectivism, neutrality versus emotionality, specificity versus diffuseness, focus on achievement versus ascription, focus on past versus present versus future, and an internal focus versus an external focus

(Tromperaars, 1992); or in terms of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity and long-term orientation (Hofstede, 1997).

Social scientists use the term culture to mark a set of parameters for collectives that differentiate each social group in a meaningful way. In the GLOBE study, culture is defined as shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences among members of collectives that are transmitted across generations (House et al., 2004). According to House et al. (2004), there are nine core cultural dimensions in the GLOBE project: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation and humane orientation. There are two sets of questions for each dimension, one measuring actual practices in societies and for the other measuring values — the way people would like things to be. According to McEwan (2001) values represent the deepest level of culture.

Research question and propositions

Understanding the relationship between national culture and values, practices and ethics may help people to apply appropriate ethical standards and to adopt corresponding ethical understanding when dealing with ethical issues and handling ethical crises, especially in a country different from his/her own. This brings the authors to the following research question:

Are ethics evaluated similarly or differently across national cultures, specifically in Estonia, China and Brazil?

Based on the relevant literature, authors developed the following general propositions:

P1. Values and practices are differently evaluated in Estonia, Brazil and China.

P2. Ethics are differently evaluated in Estonia, Brazil and China.

Data and Methods

Three countries from three different continents were selected to conduct the investigation. These. In 2008–2009, 356 questionnaires were answered in Brazil, China and Estonia. Among the entire sample 59 of the respondents were Brazilian, 236 were Chinese and 61 were Estonian. The respondents were vey diverse in terms of industries and work experience.

National culture was characterised by secondary data form the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004). As one of the most comprehensive studies of national cultures, the GLOBE study provides worldwide, multiphase, multi-method cross-cultural research data. It involves 170 social scientists and management scholars from 62 cultures that represent all major regions of the world.

In order to measure values, practices and ethics we employed a questionnaire developed by Schlenker and Forsyth (1977) and Forsyth (1980). The questionnaire consisted of the questions about Ethics Position Questionnaire. Each respondent answered the questionnaire independently and anonymously. The questionnaire contained 20 ethical statements. Each statement was followed by a 5-point Likert scale. The questionnaire, originally available in English, was translated into Chinese and Estonian languages in order to conduct the research

in these countries. Retranslation was done back into English to make sure that the translation was accurate. In Brazil an English questionnaire was passed out.

Similarities and differences among values, practices and ethics across the two countries were described. Correlation analysis was used to check for possible connections between cultural dimensions and ethics.

Principal components analysis with VARIMAX rotation led to the identification of two dimensions of ethics, which were called Ethical Relativism (ER; Cronbach's alpha = .749) and No-Harm Principle (NH; Cronbach's alpha = .705). The first scale was formed out of five items, which in the original questionnaire belonged to the ethical relativism scale and the second scale was composed of four items belonging to the scale called ethical idealism. On current study the second scale is called No-Harm Principle.

The first scale, *Ethical Relativism,* suggests that ethical variety exists in different situations and societies. What one person considers to be moral may be judged to be immoral by another person, and different types of morality cannot be treated in terms of "right" or "wrong" because what is moral may depend on the particular situation. The second scale, *No-Harm Principle*, suggests that one should never psychologically or physically harm another person, and one should not perform an action that might threaten the dignity and welfare of another individual.

In order to evaluate similarities of cultural practices and values in different countries method called 'metrics' (Marczewski & Steinhaus, 1958) was used. In order to find statistically significant differences between countries ANOVA test was used. Pearson Correlation analysis was used in order to find statistically significant correlation between values, practices and ethics and cultural dimensions.

Results

We compared **cultural practices and values** in Appendix 1 by using 'metrics'. As a rule, study results of value judgements compose of the list of estimated things and their corresponding numeric estimations. It is possible to compose orders that express importance for respondents from different countries originated from the values of numeric estimations (Marczewski & Steinhaus, 1958). From the number theory it is known that a binary relation is a set of ordered pairs (Kuratowski, Mostowski 1967). Therefore, if we wish to evaluate how similar or dissimilar some orders are, then we have to evaluate how similar or dissimilar the sets of corresponding ordered pairs are. According to this method in each country it is possible to create 36 pairs of values and 36 pairs of practices and calculate distances between pairs between countries. The most similar are Brazil and Estonia, they have the largest number of common pairs and the shortest distance between values (Table 1).

Table 1. Values in Brazil, China and Estonia

	Values Common pairs	Values Distance	Practices Common pairs	Practices Distance
Brazil-China	22	0.56	25	0.46
Brazil-Estonia	31	0.24	29	0.32
China-Estonia	23	0.53	24	0.50

Ethics scales were differently evaluated in three countruies. For Ethical Relativism, a statistically significant difference between at least two *countries* was found ($F(2; 349) = 3.997$, $p = .019$). Ethics was most relative for Estonian respondents (n = 61, mean = 4.371), then for Chinese respondents (n = 236, m = 4.113) and Brazilian respondents (n = 59, mean = 4.112). Statistically significant differences were not found in the No-Harm Principle scale ($F(2; 353) = 2.974$, $p = .052$). Estonian respondents (m = 3.800) were least likely to harm others, next came the Chinese respondents (m = 3.613), while the respondents from Brazil (m = 3.522) support the No-Harm Principle the least. Both scales show the highest scores in Estonia, then in China and the lowest scores were in Brazil (table 2). To summarize, Brazil and China are close, Estonia differs more.

Table 2. The results of ethics scales based on country difference

Country		**Ethical Relativism**	**No-Harm Principle**
Brazil	N=59	4.112	3.522
China	N=236	4.113	3.613
Estonia	N=61	4.371	3.800

Correlations between scales of ethics and cultural practices and values

The Pearson Correlation analysis results indicate that a statistically significant correlation existed for Relative Ethics, ($p < .05$, 2-tailed) in 6 core cultural dimensions of the Practices manifestation. Relative Ethics was negatively related to In-Group Collectivism, Institutional Collectivism, Humane Orientation, and Performance Orientation. Relative Ethics was positively correlated with Future Orientation and Gender Egalitarianism ($r = .116$). In the Values manifestation, statistically significant negative connections existed in 2 dimensions: In-Group Collectivism and Uncertainty Avoidance. Regarding the No-Harm Principle, there was one dimension with a statistically significant correlation in the cultural values – In-Group Collectivism was negatively correlated. On Figure in Appendix 2 the connections between Ethical Relativism and cultural dimensions are shown.

Conclusions

This paper analyses similarities and differences across Estonian, Chinese and Brazilian organizations concerning ethical relativism and the no-harm principle.

The national culture where an organization operates seems to influence an organisations' ethics. The results of the current study indicate that cultural values and practices have distinct levels in Estonia, Brazil and China.

The propositions discussed at the beginning of the paper will now be re-evaluated.

P1. Values and practices are differently evaluated in Estonia, Brazil and China. This proposition was partly supported by the findings. Both cultural values and practices were evaluated most similarly in Brazil and Estonia. There were 31 common pairs concerning values and 29 common pairs concerning practice. In Brazil and China there were 22 common pairs concerning values and 25 common pairs concerning practice. In China and Estonia there were 23 common pairs concerning values and 24 common pairs concerning practice.

P2. Ethics are differently evaluated in Estonia, Brazil and China. This proposition was supported by findings. Both ethical relativism and no-harm principle are most highly evaluated in Estonia and most lowly evaluated in Brazil.

Results indicate that cultural practices have more impact on ethics than cultural values. Relative Ethics were related to national cultures, and especially to cultural practices. In societies with higher In-Group Collectivism, Institutional Collectivism, Humane Orientation and Performance Orientation in cultural practices, ethics is less relative. At the same time, members of societies with higher Future Orientation and Gender Egalitarianism in cultural practices put more emphasis on situational factors when deciding what is right and what is wrong.

When looking at cultural values, only In-Group Collectivism and Uncertainty Avoidance had any impact on ethics. In societies with higher In-Group Collectivism and Uncertainty Avoidance, Relative Ethics was found to be less related to cultural values.

To conclude, some association between national culture and ethics were found. Paying attention to the following cultural dimensions when doing business in different cultures could be useful: In-Group Collectivism, Institutional Collectivism, Humane Orientation, Performance Orientation, Future Orientation and Gender Egalitarianism.

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Appendix 1. Cultural dimensions in the Globe study

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Brazil	Practices	4,25	3,94	5,16	3,90	3,44	3,76	4,11	5,24	3,74
	Values	3,06	5,57	5,17	5,60	4,91	5,52	5,98	2,59	5,00
China	Practices	3,77	4,67	5,86	3,68	3,03	4,29	4,37	5,02	4,81
	Values	5,52	4,52	5,12	4,70	3,73	5,34	5,72	3,01	5,34
Estonia	Practices	4,04	3,71	4,79	4,20	3,60	3,39	3,87	5,16	4,01
	Values	3,90	4,33	4,95	5,04	4,73	5,36	5,68	2,87	4,31

1 – Assertiveness

2 – Institutional Collectivism

3 – In-Group Collectivism

4 - Future Orientation

5 - Gender Egalitarianism

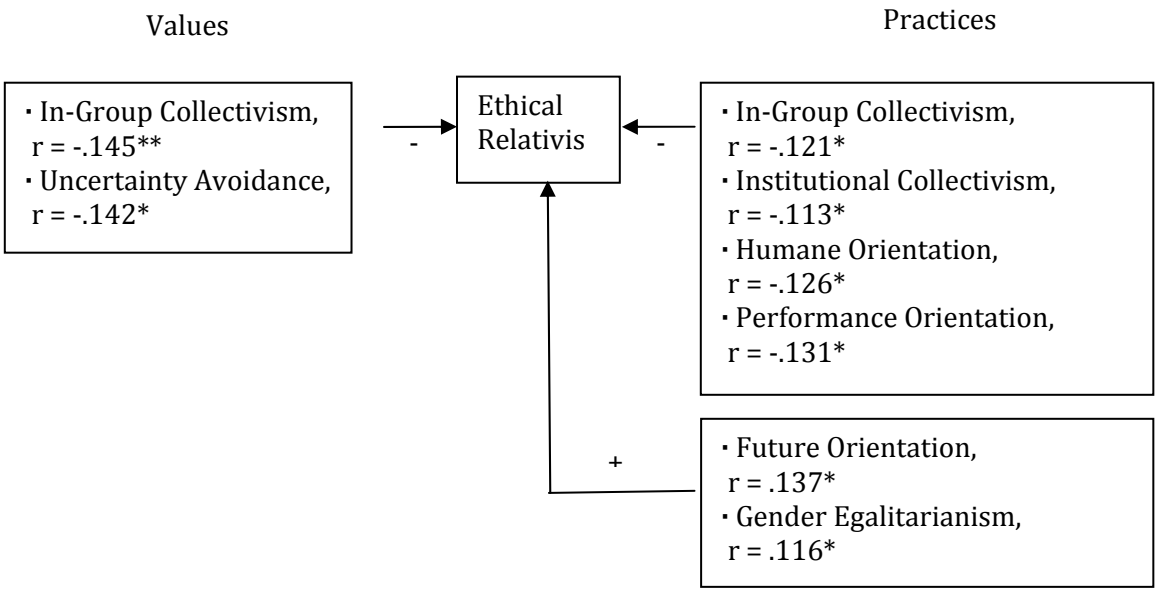
6 - Humane Orientation

7 - Performance Orientation

8 - Power Distance

9 - Uncertainty Avoidance

Appendix 2. Connection between Ethical Relativism and Cultural Dimensions



Note: 1. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). 2. ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). 3. The analysis was conducted via the Pearson Correlation test, N=352.

Predictive Validity of Overt Integrity tests: Experimental Study Using the PolliMeter Scale

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to examine the predictive validity of an overt integrity test by an experimental study setup using the PolliMeter scale. An empirical examination was conducted among 99 participants. They were asked to respond to an overt integrity test. After the test, each participant was intentionally overpaid for his participation. The findings showed that 40 participants out of the total of 99 returned the overpaid money. The overpaid money was returned by 50% of the 48 males against only 31% of the 51 females. The scores of all five factors for the group that returned the money were lower than the group that kept the money. All the differences were significant, except for one factor.

Introduction

Many employers are turning to pre-employment testing as a way to improve their workforces. While cognitive ability tests are the most commonly used, personality tests are being used more and more frequently. Personality tests are self-report measures of traits, temperaments, or dispositions.

Integrity Tests

Perhaps the most commonly used personality tests are honesty or integrity tests. Integrity tests are used to select employees with reduced probability of counterproductive job behaviors, such as drinking or drugs on the job, fighting on the job, stealing from the employer or from the customers, sabotaging equipment, and other undesired behaviors (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). They are used very often in the retail and financial services industries in settings where employees have unsupervised access to money or merchandise.

Workplace misbehavior could be referred to as counterproductive, dysfunctional, deviant, disruptive, antisocial, non-compliant, unconventional, or as wrongdoing (Sagie, Stashevsky, & Koslowsky, 2003). The prevalence of the various types of work misbehavior is surprisingly high, as attested by the fact that approximately 70% of employees have engaged in some form of destructive deviant behavior (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). In the year 2000, work violence, including assaults and suicides, accounted for 16% of all work related fatal occupational injuries in the USA (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2001). Violent acts are among the top three causes of workplace fatalities for workers. Furthermore, misbehavior costs organizations more than most managers dare believe. For example, the costs to American businesses associated with just one type of misbehavior, employee theft, have been estimated to be more than $200 billion annually (Govoni, 1992). Therefore, employers are interested in any device or technique that could detect or prevent employee theft.

Overt integrity tests

Overt integrity tests were specifically designed to predict the predisposition of job applicants to engage in on-the-job theft and other counterproductive job behavior. They measure attitudes related to one or more of the following psychological constructs: tolerance for others who steal, projection about the extent of theft by others, acceptance of rationalizations for theft, antisocial beliefs and behaviors, and admissions of theft-related activities. These tests typically consist of two sections. The first is a measure of theft attitudes, and includes questions about beliefs concerning the frequency and extent of theft, thoughts about theft, and assessments of one's own honesty. The second involves requests for admissions regarding theft and other wrongdoing. Applicants are asked to describe the frequency and amount of theft and other illegal or counterproductive activity.

Predictive validity of overt integrity tests

Predictive validity of a selection method is the ability to predict future job performance or job-related issues. It is the most important property of a personnel assessment method from the practical point of view. Schmidt & Hunter (1998) summarized 85 years of research findings in personnel selection and concluded that the integrity tests also predict evaluations of overall job performance and performance in training programs. Integrity tests were also found to be correlated with some personality traits: conscientiousness and some components of agreeableness and emotional stability (Ones, 1993).

Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, (1993) conducted a comprehensive meta-analysis of integrity test validities based on 665 validity coefficients across 576,460 data points. They found that integrity test validities are substantial for predicting job performance and counterproductive behaviors on the job, such as theft, disciplinary problems, and absenteeism.

An experimental study for checking the predictive validity of an integrity test on dishonest behavior was performed by Cunningham, Wong, & Barbee (1994). Participants were asked to respond to the Reid Report Integrity Attitude Inventory (Ash, 1971) as if they seriously wanted a job. After the test, each participant was overpaid for the participation. The integrity test scores were found to be significantly correlated with returning versus retaining the money.

Differences on overt integrity tests

Ones, & Viswesvaran (1998) examined group differences on overt integrity tests. Gender, age, and race differences were investigated using 724,806 job applicants. The findings show that women scored higher on overt integrity tests than men (0.16 standard deviation units), meaning that integrity tests find women to be more honest than men. Only very small differences were found between older job applicants (40 and above) versus the younger ones (0.08 standard deviation units). Finally, there were negligible racial differences.

Integrity tests can differ in terms of surface content, and, yet assess the same underlying constructs (Wanek, Sackett, & Ones, 2006).

Study Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the predictive validity of an overt integrity test by an experimental study setup using the PolliMeter scale. The PolliMeter scale is a continuous

color scale yielding a numerical scale of values ranging from 0 to 100 not visible to the respondent, replacing the Likert scale. This scale is a computerized one and much more sensitive than the Likert scale. The sensitivity of the measurement scale is very important in identifying even slight differences in the responses of participants in overt integrity tests.

Method

Sample Characteristics

The sample consisted of 99 participants of which 49% were males with a mean age of 24 (ranging from 19 to 38). Work experience: 42% were working at the time the experiment was held, and 84% have worked before. The family status of the participants was: 77% single, 21% married, and 2% divorced.

Research Procedure

The study participants were invited to participate in the experiment for a promised compensation of 30 NIS. They were told that the purpose of the study was to check new computerized software for psychological tests. Each participant received a card with his/her participant number to be used for receiving the payment. The participants were asked to respond to an overt integrity test and to several other measures using the PolliMeter measurement scale. After the test, each participant was instructed to go to a table near the exit, take the envelope with his/her participant number containing the payment, and sign a form confirming that he/she received the envelope with the payment. Each envelope contained an overpayment of 5 NIS. This was done in a discrete environment, so that both the experimenter and the other participants could not see him/her. Some participants approached the experimenter and returned the extra payment. This procedure was done in privacy in order not to influence the other participants.

Measurement Scale

The measurement scale used for study was the computerized PolliMeter scale.

The respondent indicates his/her reaction to a certain statement or question, with or without additional stimuli, by moving one's position on a colored bar divided equally between two colored areas: One representing one type of reaction e.g. agreement, and the other, representing another type of reaction e.g. disagreement. The answer is indicated by expanding or by narrowing one of the colored areas which causes the proportion between the agreement and disagreement zones to vary.

Measures

The overt integrity test was composed of the following 5 variables:

Major Dishonest Behavior – 30 items
Minor Dishonest Behavior – 17 items
Cynicism – 7 items
Misbehavior Norms – 6 items
Risk Taking – 4 items

There was a total of 64 items in the overt integrity test.

Each item contained two sentences and the respondent had to designate the sentence with which he/she agreed more and to what extent. The answer scale for these 64 items was the PolliMeter scale that results in a continuous number ranging from 0 to 100.

Examples of one item for each one of the variables are hereby presented:

Major Dishonest Behavior –
1. When I was young, it occurred that I stole something valuable.
2. It never occurred to me that I stole something valuable.

Minor Dishonest Behavior –
1. Sometimes I invested a lot of time taking care of my personal issues at the expense of work.
2. I never took care of my personal issues at the expense of work.

Cynicism –
1. The only reason people obey rules is that they are afraid to be caught.
2. The reason that most people obey rules is that they understand their importance to form a well-run society.

Misbehavior Norms –
1. It is allowed sometimes to "bend" some rules or procedures in order to succeed in life.
2. It is forbidden to "bend" rules or procedures.

Risk Taking –
1. I am a person that likes to take risks.
2. I am a careful person that avoids unnecessary risks.

The additional variables examined in the study were:

Return money: 0= the overpaid money was not returned by the participant, 1= the overpaid money was returned. Gender: 1=male, 2=female.

Data Analysis

The statistical package used in this study was SPSS. Factor analysis was applied to assess the degree to which the overt integrity test items reflected their intended constructs – the 5 study variables. We performed a Principle Component Analysis (PCA), followed by a Varimax and Kaiser normalization rotation. Then, descriptive statistics and correlation analysis were applied in order to get initial insights. We then tested our hypotheses using independent samples T-tests.

Results

Validation of the constructs measuring the overt integrity test items

Five factors were obtained explaining the majority of the total variance among the overt integrity test 64 items. The factors were: Major Dishonest Behavior (30 items), Minor

Dishonest Behavior (17 items), Cynicism (7 items), Misbehavior Norms (6 items), and Risk Taking (4 items).

Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study variables are presented in Table 1. Among other things, Table 1 shows that the correlations between the money return and the 5 variables of the overt integrity test are all significant, except for the risk taking which is close to being significant (P=.07), and the highest correlation coefficient is with minor dishonesty. The correlation between the money return and gender was found to be very close to being significant (with P=.06). The lowest mean score of the 5 variables of the overt integrity test is 10.5 (in the scale from 0 to 100) and it belongs to major dishonesty, while the highest score is 47 of the cynicism variable. The highest standard deviation divided by the mean is of the major dishonesty variable. The highest correlation coefficient in the table is .69 of misbehavior norms with minor dishonesty.

Table 1: Means, Standard deviation, and Pearson Correlation Coefficients (N=99)

			Pearson Correlation Coefficients						
	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Money Return	.40	.49	1						
2. Gender	1.51	.50	-.19	1					
3. Risk Taking	36.07	19.51	-.18	.15	1				
4. Misbehavior Norms	24.73	17.55	-.20*	-.07	.32**	1			
5. Cynicism	46.98	16.11	-.25*	.24*	.21*	.45**	1		
6.Minor Dishonesty	27.72	19.01	-.28**	.08	.29**	.69**	.49**	1	
7. Major Dishonesty	10.50	13.09	-.23*	-.15	.22*	.56**	.32**	.59**	1

Money Return: 0= No return, 1= Return; Gender: 1=Male, 2= Female. * = Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ** = Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Bivariate Hypotheses Tests

Table 2 and Figure 1 describe the average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for participants that returned vs. not returned the overpaid money for the entire sample. Forty participants returned the money versus 59 that didn't return the money. Participants that returned the overpaid money had lower scores in all the five variables. The differences of means were found significant for the following four variables: Misbehavior Norms (Beta= 2.01, P<0.05), Cynicism (Beta= 2.53, P<0.05), Minor Dishonesty (Beta= 2.86, P<0.01), and Major Dishonesty (Beta= 2.36, P<0.05). Only the differences of means for the Risk Taking variable were not found significant (Beta= 1.80, P= 0.07 n.s.).

Table 2: Average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for participants that returned vs. not returned the overpaid money for the entire sample (N=99)

All sample	Risk Taking	Misbehavior Norms	Cynicism	Minor Dishonesty	Major Dishonesty
No return 59	38.9	27.6	50.3	32.1	13.0
Return 40	31.8	20.5	42.1	21.3	6.8
Total 99	36.1	24.7	47.0	27.7	10.5

Figure 1: Average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for participants that returned vs. not returned the overpaid money for the entire sample (N=99)

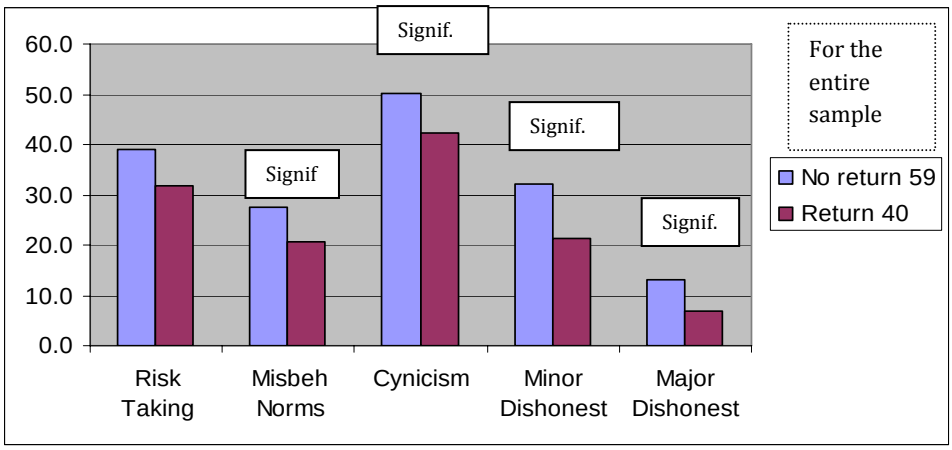


Table 3 and Figure 2 describe the average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for participants that returned vs. not returned the overpaid money for females. Participants that returned the overpaid money had lower scores in all the five variables. The differences of means were found significant for the following three variables: Cynicism (Beta= 2.38, P<0.05), Minor Dishonesty (Beta= 2.59, P<0.05), and Major Dishonesty (Beta= 2.18, P<0.05).

Table 3: Average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for participants that returned vs. not returned the overpaid money for females (N=51)

For Females	Risk Taking	Misbehavior Norms	Cynicism	Minor Dishonesty	Major Dishonesty
No return 35	41.2	25.9	53.5	33.5	10.5
Return 16	33.9	18.4	44.7	19.7	4.6
Total 51	38.9	23.5	50.8	29.2	8.6

Figure 2: Average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for participants that returned vs. not returned the overpaid money for females (N=51)

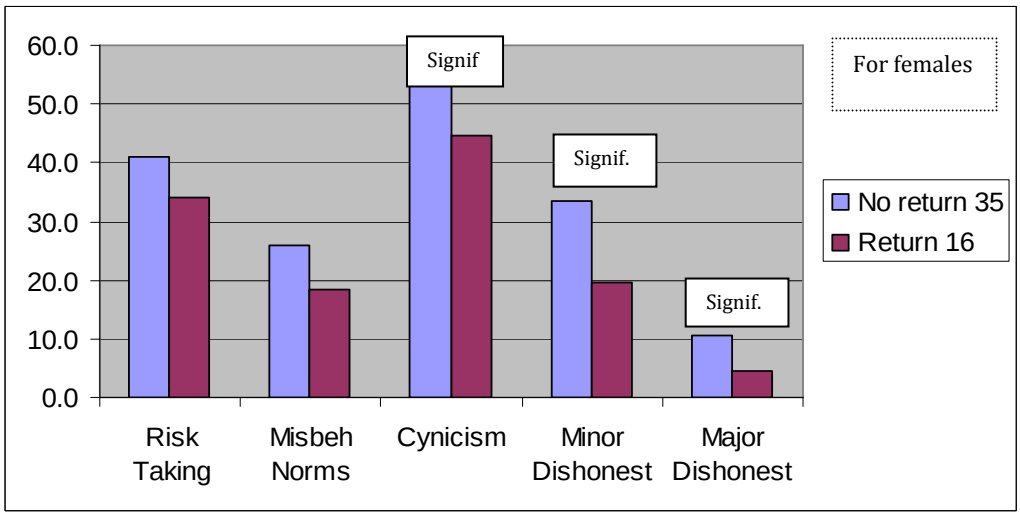


Table 4 and Figure 3 describe the average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for participants that returned vs. not returned the overpaid money for males. Participants that returned the overpaid money had lower scores in all the five variables. The differences of means were not found significant for all the variables.

Table 4: Average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for participants that returned vs. not returned the overpaid money for males (N=48)

For Males	Risk Taking	Misbehavior Norms	Cynicism	Minor Dishonesty	Major Dishonesty
No return 24	35.7	30.1	45.5	30.0	16.7
Return 24	30.4	21.9	40.4	22.4	8.3
Total 48	33.1	26.0	43.0	26.2	12.5

Figure 3: Average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for participants that returned vs. not returned the overpaid money for males (N=48)

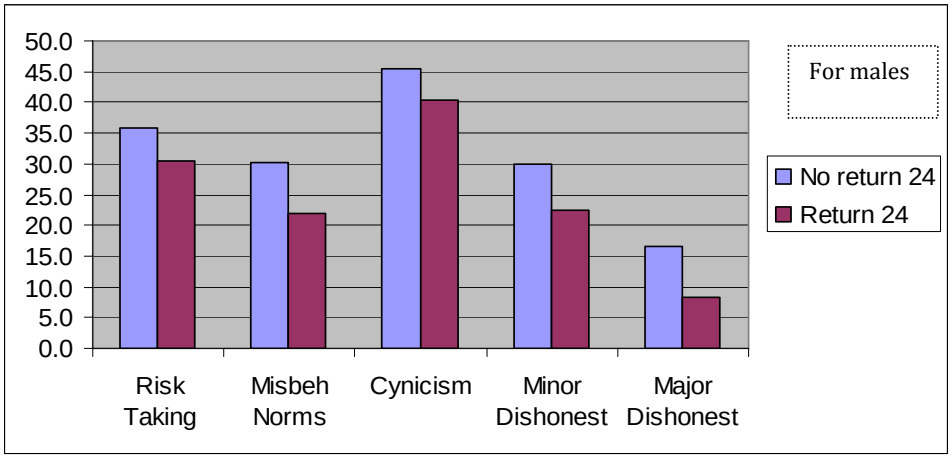
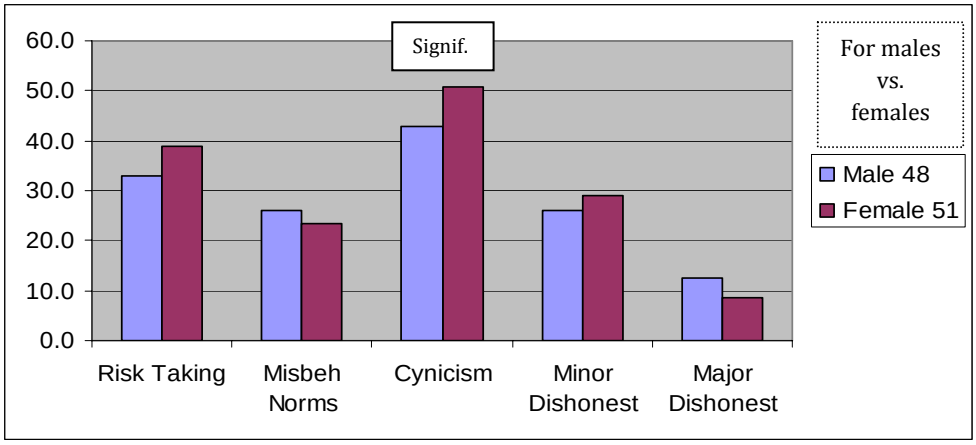


Table 5 and Figure 4 describe the average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for males and females. Females had higher scores in Risk Taking, Cynicism, and Minor Dishonesty, while males had higher scores in Misbehavior norms and Major Dishonesty. The differences of means were found significant only for the cynicism variable (Beta= -2.48, $P<0.05$).

Table 5: Average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for males vs. females (N=99)

Gender	Risk Taking	Misbehavior Norms	Cynicism	Minor Dishonesty	Major Dishonesty
Male 48	33.1	26.0	43.0	26.2	12.5
Female 51	38.9	23.5	50.8	29.2	8.6
Total 99	36.1	24.7	47.0	27.7	10.5

Figure 4: Average scores of the 5 overt integrity test variables for males vs. females (N=99)



Discussion

The purpose of the study was to examine the predictive validity of an overt integrity test by an experimental study setup using the PolliMeter scale. The PolliMeter scale is a color scale yielding a 0 to 100 continuous scale replacing the Likert scale.

An empirical examination was conducted among 99 participants. They were asked to respond to an overt integrity test and to several other measures. After the test, each participant was intentionally overpaid for his participation. Factor analysis was applied to the integrity test items and 5 factors were obtained: Major dishonesty, minor dishonesty, cynicism, misbehavior norms, and risk taking. The findings showed that 40 participants out of the total of 99 returned the overpaid money. The overpaid money was returned by 50% of the 48 males against only 31% of the 51 females. The scores of all five factors for the group that returned the money were lower than the group that kept the money. All the differences were significant, except for the risk taking factor.

The experiment provided an opportunity to test a form of monetary theft with little likelihood of detection. The study results suggest that the overt integrity test does possess predictive validity and that gender also plays a role.

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Pressure Felt by Employees to Compromise Ethical & Legal Standards – Some Empirical Evidences from Portuguese Companies

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Abstract

The paper presents results on the frequency of pressure felt by Portuguese workers to compromise ethical/legal standards. The results come from a survey carried out in Portugal in 2004 on a convenience sample. The frequency of pressure felt by employees, from four internal and three external groups was analyzed in the light of the impact of selected independent (individual and institutional) variables. The main results point out that some groups (like supervisors, peers/colleagues and clients) are felt as exerting more frequent pressure on employees and that there are significant differences in pressure frequency felt by the employees depending on a variety of different variables (sex, hierarchical level, level of education, size of the firm, sector of activity and financial-economic situation).

Introduction

In unstable times, such as economic recession or simply situations of restructuring or transition in a company, employees observe misconduct more frequently and feel high levels of pressure, as shown in the results of the National Business Ethics Surveys (NBES) conducted by Ethics Resource Center in the USA (Joseph, 2000, 2003). Thus, at these times, ethical principles practiced in the workplace by top management, supervisors and coworkers (reinforced by coherent elements of formal ethics) contribute to feeling less pressure and less misconduct being observed (Joseph, 2000). However, at the same time employees excuse ethical malpractices, showing respect for those who achieve success by using them (Joseph, 2003); and the higher the level of education is, the more tolerance towards improper behavior increases (Swiatkiewicz, 2006, 2009). The pressure felt by employees suppresses moral agency and raises the level of ethical inertia (Lovell, 2002, 2002a).

In organizations people who embrace diverse levels of organizational responsibility are daily subject to different internal and/or external pressures which may compromise ethical and legal standards: the board of directors of a company may pressure middle management; middle management may also pressure their subordinates (non-management employees); the three groups (board of directors, middle management and employees) may be object of various pressures exerted by the clients of the company (distributers/intermediates or consumers). “Middle managers may be subject to particularly intense pressure to perform and increase profits” (Ferrell & Fraedrich, 1997, p. 141). Joseph (2003) comes to a similar conclusion, after the analysis of the empirical data of the North American survey: “Among the employee groups most «at-risk» to feel pressure are first-line supervisors and younger employees with little tenure in their organizations” (p. 33).

The most frequent internal pressures, whose opposition brings major risks for the employee (insubordination which as a result and ultimately may lead to dismissal), comes from

immediate hierarchical superiors: “Top management and supervisors play crucial roles in developing the environment that influences ethical decisions” (Ferrell & Fraedrich, 1997, p. 142). “Managers convey ethical standards directly, by what they say and by the personal example they give of a desirable behaviour, and indirectly by exercising a decisive influence on the company’s culture” (Lewicka-Strzalecka, 1999, p. 198). According to Namie (2000), the majority of victims of oppression at work (workplace bullying or mobbing), who answered the on-line survey, were the object of oppression exerted either by their supervisors or by upper-level managers. As Joseph (2003) states “Employees who observe ethical actions more frequently among top management, supervisors and coworkers in their organizations tend to feel less pressure to compromise ethics standards” (p. 33).

“Internal organizational pressure stemming from role-set relationships and differential association is a major predictor of unethical behavior. Although individuals can overcome this pressure they may risk losing their jobs” (Ferrell & Fraedrich, 1997, pp. 141-142).

Aimed at preventing the occurrence of this kind of behavior, as well as encouraging workers to report it in order to safeguard both the reputation and the image of the organization, many companies, mainly North American ones, build up and put into practice programs of formal ethics or ethical principles: they write ethical codes, they create ethical offices, they set up ethics officers or ombudsmen, they display telephone lines which people, who are subject to these kinds of pressure, can call and report the occurrence anonymously without the fear of suffering retaliation (Ferrell & Fraedrich, 1997; Buchholz & Rosenthal, 1998; Lewicka-Strzalecka, 1999; Moreira, 1999; Joseph, 2003). When there are no such instruments or when they work in a defective way (Doig & Wilson, 1998; Moreira, 1999; Aguiar, 2000; Nijhof, Fisscher & Looise, 2000; Palazzo, 2002; Lovell, 2002, 2002a; Gasparski et al., 2002; Carr, 2003) many people, in perfectly normal circumstances, when facing the threat of losing their job or other consequences, try to re-categorize the situation by suppressing moral agency (Lovell, 2002, 2002a), whereas only a few people are able to resort to external communication (media, court, etc.).

Knowing when, how and to whom one should report pressure to compromise ethical standards is a delicate and difficult issue. This problem is directly related to the question of whistle blowing. According to Joseph (2003), the previous detection of risk groups subject to these kinds of pressure must be a concern for corporate managers since it may help prevent the occurrence of much more serious problems. Therefore, the aim of the present study was to examine the main groups that could be felt by employees as exerting pressure to compromise ethical and legal standards, the frequency of this pressure felt by employees and the impact of some independent variables on the frequency of pressure felt by employees.

Reviewing empirical data from other studies

In accordance with results of Goodell’s (1994) and Joseph’s (2000, 2003) surveys, the percentage of North American workers who were the target of pressure to infringe ethical norms in their organizations was 29%, 13% and 10% respectively in these studies. Joseph (2003) attributes the cause of decrease in the pressure felt by the workers during these three years of studies to the development of formal ethical programs in North American organizations. The results obtained by Joseph (2003) in NBES point out mainly the following aspects: first-line supervisors and workers, who do not perform management functions, feel significantly stronger pressure than workers who fulfil other functions (administrative workers, professional/technical workers, senior managers and middle managers); workers,

who observe top management and/or their supervisors and/or their peers (colleagues) acting ethically, feel significantly less pressure to compromise ethical norms; workers belonging to the largest companies (>500 workers) feel significantly less pressure when their organization possesses more elements of an ethical program. The workers, who in the North American survey (Joseph, 2000) declared feeling pressured to compromise ethical standards, had observed significantly more frequent non-ethical conduct at work than their colleagues who were not the target of pressures. Workers who perform the functions of top management (senior managers) and middle management declared feeling less pressure to compromise ethical norms than workers belonging to lower hierarchical levels (Goodell, 1994; Joseph, 2000); however, this tendency was not observed in Joseph's survey (2003). The situation of transition in an organization (acquisitions, mergers and restructuring) is associated with an increase in the pressure felt by workers to compromise ethical standards (Joseph, 2000, 2003). Significant differences in the pressure felt by workers, depending on the size of the organization, were not found (Joseph 2000, 2003). According to Joseph (2000), three out of five North American respondents who feel pressure to compromise ethical standards, attribute it to internal sources (supervisors, top management and colleagues/peers/coworkers), whereas two out of five do not attribute the cause to any of the internal sources analyzed in the mentioned studies.

In the surveys carried out by Joseph (2000, 2003) the influence of external sources (clients, suppliers and distributors) was not analyzed. Workers, who work more years in the company (longer tenure), feel significantly more pressure exerted by top management than workers who possess shorter tenure (Joseph, 2000). However, in a more recent study, Joseph (2003) states that pressure felt by workers was not related to their age or tenure, when they did not perform management functions, whereas younger managers with little tenure in the company felt significantly more pressure than other groups of workers.

In the Portuguese sample one expects to find a higher frequency of pressure attributed to supervisors and peers/colleagues/coworkers, as far as internal sources are concerned and attributed to clients as far as external sources are concerned – daily experience and common sense set forth the latest hypothesis.

Considering the distinction established by Katz & Kahn (as cited in Emler & Hogan, 1991) of three levels of leadership, in which each person fulfils different moral functions (the lowest levels having the responsibility of administrating the established rules and watching over justice; the intermediate level being responsible for the subordinates' welfare and for the solution of conflicts and the top management, since it has a global and strategic perspective, being responsible for ensuring the survival of the organization) and considering the results of the studies carried out by Joseph (2000, 2003) which show higher levels of pressure felt by workers, in association with a situation of organizational transition/change, in the Portuguese sample one expects to obtain significantly higher levels of pressure exerted by the top management, on workers of companies which are found in a situation of decline (trying to overcome problems) and in a situation of development (rapid development) than on workers of companies which are in a stable situation (a balanced state).

Methodology

The study of the pressure felt by employees to compromise ethical and legal standards constituted only a part of a broader survey/investigation.

The empirical data for the study were collected by means of a questionnaire, that included, among others, a question related to the problem of the frequency of pressure felt by employees. The whole questionnaire consisted of a more extensive version, adapted to the Portuguese reality, of the questionnaire used by Lewicka-Strzałecka (1999), in the Polish survey in 1997, and two questionnaires developed by the Ethics Resource Center and used in the USA surveys (Goodell, 1994; Joseph, 2000, 2003). The expression of opinion of respondents to the question on the frequency of pressure felt by employees to compromise ethical and legal standards resulted from the response to one closed question, whose content and scale were presented on table 1.

The questionnaire was anonymous and self-administered by respondents. The data were collected during the first half of the year 2004, except for a small part of the sample, which served as test of consistency of the instrument and was collected in November and December of the previous year. A total of 653 questionnaires were collected, but only N=640 constituted a convenience sample that was used in the subsequent statistical analysis. Thirteen cases were excluded due to the lack of information on demographic variables. With regard to the convenience sample, 70% of respondents to the survey were working students studying on Professional courses, Bachelor degree courses, Postgraduate courses and Master degree courses, whereas 30% of the data were collected directly in companies as a result of the snowball procedure. The survey, in geographical terms, included urban areas such as Setúbal, Lisbon, Faro, Loulé, Évora, Amadora, Sintra, Leiria and Oporto, but not in the same proportions. To be eligible for the survey respondents had to be employed in a profit seeking organization with more than one employee.

The data were analyzed in terms of influence of independent (individual and institutional) variables (sex; age; level of education; tenure; hierarchical level; actual and future sense of security of employment and career development; property and capital origin of the company; its size, age, sector and financial-economic situation).

In statistical analysis of the data on frequency of pressure felt by employees influenced by independent variables, tests of equality/difference of means in groups (t-test, F-test of One-way ANOVA were used, and, in the cases of lack of homogeneity of variances, the Welch's test. The threshold for reporting differences as statistically significant was set at $p=\alpha\leq 0{,}10$.

Pressure felt by employees to infringe norms of ethical conduct in companies in Portugal (2004)

In the questionnaire there was a question about the pressure exerted by four internal groups (top management, supervisors, peers/colleagues/coworkers and subordinates) and by three external groups (clients, distributors and suppliers) on the respondents themselves to infringe ethical or legal norms (principles) in order to achieve company's or business goals. As one can observe in table 1, supervisors and, after them, clients and peers/colleagues/coworkers are the groups that more frequently exert pressure on the respondents to break ethical and legal norms. Some respondents have abstained from answering part of the question and have still added a note saying that the role of the suppliers and distributors in their activity or in the activity of their companies is marginal or nonexistent.

Table 1. Respondents' opinion on frequency of pressure exerted by different groups to compromise ethical or legal standards

How frequently did you feel pressured by following groups to infringe ethical or legal norms (principles) in order to achieve company's or business goals?	Results in %				
	Frequently	Sometimes	Never	Don't know	N=
Top management	6	21	69	5	617
Superviors	8	30	59	4	616
Peers/colleagues/coworkers	3	32	62	4	609
Subordinates	1	11	80	7	592
Clients	6	28	61	5	605
Distributors	2	12	77	9	595
Suppliers	2	18	71	9	575

Analyzing the influence of individual and institutional variables on the respondents' opinions about the pressure exerted on themselves to infringe ethical or legal norms, significant differences in the pressure exerted by certain groups were found, depending on three of the individual variables (sex, level of education and hierarchical level in the company), as well as depending on three of the institutional variables (size, sector of activity and financial-economic situation of the company). The remaining individual variables (age, tenure in the company and sense of security of employment) and institutional ones (property/capital origin and age of the company) do not differentiate significantly the respondents' opinions about the pressure exerted by the analyzed groups in order to achieve the goals of the company or the business.

The respondents' opinions about the frequency of the pressure exerted by all the analyzed groups differ, depending on the respondents' sex. It is possible to state that men feel pressured significantly more frequently by these groups than women, which can be observed in table 2.

Table 2. Respondents' opinion on frequency of pressure exerted by different groups to compromise ethical or legal standards, depending on respondents' sex

How frequently did you feel pressured by following groups to infringe ethical or legal norms (principles) in order to achieve company's or business goals?	Aggregated index of frequency*					
	Male	N=	Female	N=	*t*=	*p*<
Top management	2,61	312	2,72	275	-2,481	0,05
Supervisors	2,43	319	2,64	272	-4,006	0,001
Peers/colleagues/coworkers	2,55	313	2,68	271	-2,836	0,005
Subordinates	2,81	292	2,9	257	-2,92	0,005
Clients	2,53	305	2,63	267	-1,966	0,05
Distributors	2,76	289	2,9	250	-3,892	0,001
Suppliers	2,69	284	2,84	238	-3,894	0,001
*Ponderation: 1-frequently; 2-sometimes; 3-never						

The respondents' opinions about the frequency of pressure exerted by two of the analyzed groups (top management and supervisors) differ, depending on the level of education of the respondents. One can observe a linear negative trend between the pressure felt and the level of education of the respondent, i.e., the higher the level of education is, the lower is the frequency of pressure exerted by the top management and by the supervisors to infringe ethical or legal norms, as one can observe in table 3.

Table 3. Respondents' opinion on the pressure exerted by several groups to infringe ethical or legal norms, depending on the level of education of the respondents

How frequently did you feel pressured by following groups to infringe ethical or legal norms (principles) in order to achieve company's or business goals?	Aggregated index of frequency*									
	Less than high school graduate	N=	Attendance of higer education	N=	Higher education degree	N=	*F*=	*p*<	*Welch*=	*p*<
Top management	2,55°[a]	108	2,7°	253	2,7[a]	211	3,026	0,05	2,476	0,1
Supervisors	2,38°	110	2,55	258	2,57°	209	3,517	0,05	2,827	0,1
*Ponderation: 1-frequently; 2-sometimes; 3-never										
°[a]Groups with significant differences between pairs of means (p<0,10) in post-hoc test										

The respondents' opinions on the frequency of the pressure exerted by suppliers differ, depending on the hierarchical level in the company, as one can observe in table 4. Board of directors (managing directors, directors and top management) feel the pressure exerted by suppliers significantly more frequently than non-management employees or hourly (temporary employment) workers.

Table 4. Respondents' opinion on the pressure exerted by several groups to infringe ethical or legal norms, depending on the hierarchical level occupied by the respondents in the company

How frequently did you feel pressured by following groups to infringe ethical or legal norms (principles) in order to achieve company's or business goals?	Aggregated index of frequency*													
	Owner, associate, partner	N=	Managing director director, top management	N=	Middle management, Supervisor	N=	Non-management employee	N=	Hourly, temporary employment	N=	*F*=	*p*<	*Welch*=	*p*<
Suppliers	2,67	39	2,58°[a]	59	2,73	111	2,82°	235	2,82[a]	71	4,032	0,005	3,35	0,05
*Ponderation: 1-frequently; 2-sometimes; 3-never														
°[a]Groups with significant differences between pairs of means (°p<0,05;[a]p<0,10) in post-hoc tests														

The respondents' opinion on the frequency of pressure exerted by supervisors and suppliers differ, depending on the size of the company where the respondents work. There is also a linear positive trend between the two variables, as one can observe in table 5. The frequency of pressure exerted by supervisors and suppliers on respondents in order to infringe ethical or legal norms rises with the expansion of the size of the company (number of employees).

Table 5. Respondents' opinion on pressure exerted by several groups to infringe ethical or legal norms, depending on the size of the respondents' company

How frequently did you feel pressured by following groups to infringe ethical or legal norms (principles) in order to achieve company's or business goals?	Aggregated index of frequency*									
	Until 20 persons	N=	21-500	N=	500 or more	N=	*F*=	*p*<	*Welch*=	*p*<
Supervisors	2,65°	175	2,58[a]	203	2,38°[a]	139	7,731	0,001	7,049	0,001
Suppliers	2,82[a]	166	2,77	172	2,66[a]	118	3,971	0,05	3,538	0,05
*Ponderation: 1-frequently; 2-sometimes; 3-never										
°[a]Groups with significant differences between pairs of means (°p<0,001;[a]p<0,05) in post-hoc tests										

The respondents' opinions on the frequency of pressure exerted by clients differ, depending on the sector of activity of the company where the respondents work, as one can observe in table 6. The frequency of pressure exerted by clients to infringe ethical or legal norms in order to achieve the goals of the company or the business is higher among workers belonging to the bank and insurance sector than workers belonging to the other analyzed sectors, whereas among all sectors this pressure is felt least by industry workers.

Table 6. Respondents'opinion on the pressure exerted by the several groups to infringe ethical or legal norms, depending on the sector of activity of the respondents' company

How frequently did you feel pressured by following groups to infringe ethical or legal norms (principles) in order to achieve company's or business goals?	Aggregated index of frequency*													
	Industry	N=	Services	N=	Bulding construction	N=	Commerce	N=	Banking and insurance	N=	*F*=	*p*<	*Welch*=	*p*<
Clients	2,84$^{oa''}$	68	2,58^{o1}	277	2,64^{2}	45	2,54''	71	2,3^{a12}	60	6,886	0,001	8,565	0,001
*Ponderation: 1-frequently; 2-sometimes; 3-never														
$^{oa''12}$Groups with significant differences between pairs of means (^{oa}p<0,001;''p<0,01;^{1}p<0,05;^{2}p<0,10) in post-hoc tests														

The respondents' opinions on the frequency of the pressure exerted by the top management, by clients and by distributors differ, depending on the financial-economic situation of the company where the respondents work, as one can observe in table 7. The pressure exerted by the top management of the company, by clients and distributors to infringe ethical or legal norms in order to achieve the goals of the company or the business is more frequently felt by workers of companies that are in a situation of decline (trying to overcome problems) or in a situation of development than by those respondents who work in companies which are in a stable (balanced) situation.

Table 7. Respondents' opinion on the pressure exerted by several groups to infringe ethical and legal norms, depending on the financial-economic situation of the respondents' company

How frequently did you feel pressured by following groups to infringe ethical or legal norms (principles) in order to achieve company's or business goals?	Aggregated index of frequency*									
	Decline	N=	Stable, balanced	N=	In developement	N=	*F*=	*p*<	*Welch*=	*p*<
Top management	2,54^{a}	147	2,71^{a}	261	2,67	163	4,043	0,05	3,351	0,05
Clients	2,47°	139	2,67^{oa}	254	2,51^{a}	160	6,191	0,005	6,323	0,005
Distributors	2,76^{1}	135	2,88^{1}	241	2,79	147	3,461	0,05	3,482	0,05
*Ponderation: 1-frequently; 2-sometimes; 3-never										
^{oa1}Groups with significant differences between pairs of means (°p<0,01;^{a}p<0,05;^{1}p<0,10) in post-hoc tests										

Final remarks and conclusions

Portuguese employees indicate supervisors (38%), colleagues/peers/coworkers (35%) and clients (34%) as those groups which most frequently exerted pressure on them to transgress

ethical or legal standards in order to achieve the goals of the company or the business. The first two results confirm empirical evidence found in the USA NBES (Joseph, 2000), whereas the third one confirms day-to-day observations and common sense.

Men feel by all seven groups (top management, supervisors, peers, subordinates, clients, suppliers and distributors) significantly more frequently pressured than women. This could be explained, for example, by Groot's & Brink's (as cited in Kirchler & Holtzl, 2003) findings, that "men report stress more frequently than women" (p. 58). The frequency of pressure exerted by top management and supervisors diminishes significantly as the level of education of respondents rises, however, as concluded in another part of a broader study by Swiatkiewicz (2006; 2009), the higher the level of education is, the more tolerance towards improper behavior rises. The two groups from the top of organizational hierarchy (owners, associates, partners and managing directors, directors, top management) feel pressured significantly more frequently by suppliers than non-management employees and hourly (temporary employment) workers. The frequency of pressure exerted by supervisors and by suppliers rises significantly as the size of the company increases. This result is contrary to that observed by Joseph (2003) in the North American sample, probably due to the non-existence of the main elements of formal ethics (codes of ethics, coherent ethical trainings, ethical offices, ethics officers and/or telephone lines where an employee can get advice about business ethics issues or communicate, in a confidential way, improper conduct) or an apparent functioning of these elements in major companies in Portugal. Another possible explanation for the result mentioned above can be found in Kahneman's et al. study (as cited in Kirchler & Holtzl, 2003) where "respondents were less inclined to judge the behavior of a commercial company harshly when the company was identified with an individual than when it was large and anonymous" (p. 57). The respondents from the bank & insurance sector feel pressured significantly more frequently by clients than do respondents from companies from other sectors of activity. Furthermore, respondents from industrial companies feel pressured significantly less by clients than respondents from companies in other sectors of activity. Workers from companies that are found in a stable (balanced) financial-economic situation feel significantly less pressured by top management, clients and distributors than workers from companies that are trying to overcome problems (decline) or are found in a situation of development. This result confirms, at least partially, the empirical evidences of the studies carried out by Joseph (2000, 2003), in which he stated that processes of organizational change/transition are associated with the highest levels of pressure felt by workers to compromise ethical norms. The last result presented, at least partially, seems to confirm Carr's (2003) statement about an unspoken assumption in Business Ethics "that ethical business practice is something that firms can only afford when economic times are good and is likely to be sacrificed if the bottom line requires it" (p. 10).

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Organizational Values Integrity: A New Concept of Value Congruence

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Abstract

This study builds on Simon's (2002) concept of 'Behavioral Integrity': employees' perceptions of how well their managers' words and deeds align. It proposes a similar concept at the organizational level, termed "organizational values integrity" (OVI). The research objective was to define the OVI construct and examine its relationships with various employee attitudes and behaviors. Two surveys were administered, two-to-three weeks apart, to stratified samples of hospital employees in Singapore (Total n= 301). Exploratory factor analysis identified a 5-item OVI factor. Structural equation modeling revealed significant pathways between OVI and organizational commitment, organizational identification, and citizenship behaviors directed towards the organization. These findings suggest that OVI has both theoretical value and practical implications for managing-by-values.

Introduction

Value congruence refers to the perceived fit or match between an individual's own values and those of the organization he/she works for (Edwards & Cable, 2009). The greater the match between individual and organizational values, the more positive is the experience of working in that environment for the employee (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). In contrast, when an individual perceives conflict between their own values and those of their working environment, they are more likely to experience negative outcomes (Bouckenooghe, Fontaine & Vanderheyden, 2005).

There is controversy about the measurement of value congruence, because survey respondents can struggle to identify (or rate or rank order) their own values (Piasentin & Chapman, 2006). A more direct way to measure employees' perceptions of organizational values might be to consider their reactions to stated organizational values. Employees want their organization to act in accordance with its stated values (Finegan & Theriault, 1997). Organizational actions or practices are often viewed as tangible indicators of an organization's real values (Schein, 1985). Thus, if employees perceive a match between organizational actions and the organization's stated values, they will believe the stated values are reflective of the true values of the organization. It follows that organizational values-action consistency is an important type of value congruence.

Simons (2002) coined the term 'Behavioral Integrity' (BI) to mean the employees' perceptions of how well their managers' actions match their words, including espoused principles. Simons, Friedman, Liu and Parks (2007) found that BI impacts on employee attitudes such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intent-to-stay with the organization. Simons and colleagues (2007) claim that poor BI is the perception of mis-alignment between managers' words and deeds and it leads to negative employee responses.

At the organizational level, the values-based management approach includes the idea that an organization's mission, strategy, policies, and practices are aligned to its core values (Dolan, Garcia & Richley, 2006). Such alignment is important for positive employee responses towards their organization. Conversely, Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly (2003) capture the notion of mis-alignment of words and deeds at the organizational level when examining 'cognitive organizational cynicism'. They found that cognitive organizational cynicism mediated the negative relationship between psychological contract breach and job satisfaction.

Therefore, the concept of organizational values integrity is based on employee perceptions that their organization's actions match its words. In this case, the actions can mean any organization-wide procedures or practices and the behavior of senior managers acting on behalf of the organization (as opposed to their individual behavior, which is captured in the notion of BI). The words are the espoused organizational values. The values may be espoused in variety of ways, including formal values statements, leaders' oral and written communications, and references to the values in staff newsletters, brochures, in-house training, and external communications. Previous qualitative studies undertaken by the author suggest that employee perceptions of, and reactions to, organizational values-action consistency vary considerably in different contexts. Therefore, this concept deserves further examination.

Hypotheses

Various measures of value congruence are positively related to various employee attitudes, including organizational commitment and organizational identification (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Piasentin & Chapman, 2006). Therefore, OVI should also impact on these attitudes.

Hypothesis 1: The perceived match between an organization's actions and its stated organizational values ("OVI") will have a positive impact on organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2: OVI will have a positive impact on organizational identification.

Further predictions rely on consideration of two theories. Firstly, organizational support theory suggests that employees respond favorably to perceptions of support from their organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). OVI can be considered a form of organizational support, because employees turn to an organization's values for guidance in ambiguous situations (Dolan et al., 2006). Secondly, the psychological contract literature (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro, 2002) shows that when people feel that the organization has fulfilled its obligations to them as employees, they feel a sense of obligation to reciprocate and they engage more in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). Arguably, OVI is an element of psychological contract because of employee expectations that their organization will act in accordance with its stated values (Finegan & Theriault, 1997). By both theories discussed above, OVI will lead to individual behaviors that are beneficial to the organization but are voluntarily conducted, without expectation of reward. Therefore,

Hypothesis 3: OVI will have a direct positive impact on the tendency to engage in OCBs.

Furthermore, as organizational commitment has a direct effect on OCBs (Lavelle et al., 2009), and Hypothesis 1 predicts OVI will impact on organizational commitment, it is expected that:

Hypothesis 4. OVI will have an indirect effect on OCBs, through its effect on organizational commitment.

Method

Organizational context and procedure

Singapore is a healthcare hub in South East Asia, providing world class services that are affordable to both the local population and people from neighboring countries. Many of the healthcare professionals have qualifications and clinical experience from western countries. Singaporean hospitals are known to be well-funded, well-organized, and efficient. Two hospitals were chosen as research sites because they are representative of the Singapore hospital system.

At each hospital, a stratified sampling technique was used. That is, about 25% of the staff in all targeted departments and the full range of job types (both clinical and non-clinical) were randomly selected from the Human Resource database. These employees were sent e-mail invitations to participate. In order to encourage a good response rate, participants were given a choice of two methods of completing the survey. Firstly, surveys were sent by internal mail with reply paid envelopes (addressed to the researcher's university). Secondly, employees were invited to attend one of several survey sessions held at different times on different days and nights in seminar rooms in the hospital (times chosen to maximize availability of staff on different shifts). Only the researcher was involved in the administration of the survey, and no hospital administrators were present. As one means of minimizing common method variance in the survey responses, two surveys were conducted in order to separate the measurement of independent and dependent variables. Two to three weeks after the first survey sessions, a second survey was administered the same way for all those who had responded to the initial e-mail. Survey 1 had a unique identifier number on the front cover. Participants were encouraged to keep this number and write it on the second survey.

Sample

In one hospital, 220 employees were invited to participate in the research. Of these, 171 (78%) returned both surveys. In the other hospital, where 250 employees were targeted, 156 (62%) returned both surveys. In total, 301 respondents for survey 2 had provided their identifiers so that their data could be matched with the data for survey 1. This represents a high overall response rate of 64%, attributable to the rigorous survey distribution and collection process.

T test analyses revealed that the samples from the two hospitals did not differ significantly in their representations of gender, job type, or profession. Survey respondents from one hospital showed a significantly higher mean age, job tenure and profession tenure than those from the other hospital. Overall, the use of two research sites with slightly different profiles was considered to provide more external validity to the results. Furthermore, Hotelling's two sample T^2 test was non-significant for the final set of variables for the hypothesized model, indicating that the hospital samples could be combined for model testing. Thus, the sample size for examining the theoretical model and the relationships between variables was n=301.

Measures

Independent variable: Organizational Values Integrity

As this is a new concept, items were adapted from several sources in order to identify the best measure. Although the concept is based on Simon's (2002) concept of Behavioral Integrity,

the measurement of BI (Simons et al., 2007) involves items that focus on individual managers (for example, "my manager does what he/she says he/she will do"). Similar items that relate to organizational word-action alignment (and mis-alignment) were sourced from Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly's (2003) 5-item measure of cognitive organizational cynicism (with appropriate consideration of negative wording). The word 'organization' was changed to 'hospital' for the current study. These items include "I believe that the hospital always does what it says it will do" and "I see little similarity between what the hospital says it will do, and what it actually does".

In addition, OVI is based on the managing-by-values principle that organization-wide procedures should be aligned to the organization's values. Five items were developed to reflect Blanchard and O'Connor's (1997) description of how organizational values should drive management practices. They include "The hospital's policies and procedures are aligned to its core values" and "The HR practices here (e.g., recruitment, training) are aligned to the hospital's core values".

Organizational values integrity is a type of value congruence. Yet, it is supposed to encompass organizational values-action alignment rather than the congruence between two sets of values. Therefore, a measure of value congruence was included to evaluate whether or not organizational values integrity is a separate construct. Bouckengooghe and colleagues' (2005) three-item 'values conflict' scale ($\alpha = .74$) measures the perceived mis-match of organizational values and the employee's own values. Items were adapted for the hospital context and included: "My personal values sometimes conflict with the hospital's values" and "I must compromise my personal values at work sometimes".

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on thirteen items from the sources referred to above. The maximum likelihood method was used to extract factors, supposing that the assumption of multivariate normality is not too severely violated (Fabrigar, Wegener, McCallum & Strahan, 1999). The scree test was used to identify the number of factors, as recommended by Costello and Osborne (2005). An unrotated two-factor solution accounted for accounted for 58.8% of the common variance. As the factors were expected to be correlated, oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was conducted in order to get a better idea of how the variance was shared between the two factors. In the final solution, the first factor accounted for 31.5% of the variance, and a second factor accounted for 28.1% of the variance. The results of the exploratory factor analysis are presented in Table 1.

Five items loaded heavily (>0.50) on the first factor. Three of these items were from the cynicism subscale (e.g., "When the hospital says that it is going to do something, I know that it will really happen") and two items were values-based management items (e.g., "The hospital's policies and procedures are aligned to its core values"). The factor appears to capture the essence of the perceived consistency between the actions and values espoused by the organization. Thus, this 5-item factor represents what I have called 'organizational values integrity' (OVI). Its internal consistency is acceptable at $\alpha = 0.61$. The other factor in the solution was the three-item values conflict scale from Bouckengooghe et al. (2005). This appears to be a separate concept to OVI. Furthermore, there was a moderate negative correlation between OVI and Values Conflict ($r = -.14$, $P<.05$), suggesting that, though related, the measures are not simply the inverse of each other. The Values Conflict factor was not used in any further analysis.

Table 1: Exploratory Factor Structure for Organizational Values Integrity

Factor Loadings		
Item	**Organizational Values Integrity (α = .61)**	**Values Conflict (α = .76)**
I believe that the hospital always does what it says it will do	**.81**	-.21
When the hospital says that it is going to do something, I know that it will really happen	**.78**	-.07
I see little similarity between what the hospital says it will do, and what it actually does (Reverse coded)	**.61**	-.11
The hospital's policies and procedures are aligned to its core values	**.54**	.03
The hospital's mission and strategy are aligned to its core values	**.52**	.06
My personal values sometimes conflict with the hospital's values	-.25	**.79**
My personal values sometimes conflict with the values in my job	-.10	**.74**
I must compromise my personal values at work sometimes	-. 15	**.66**

NB: Only those items with single loadings above 0.50 are shown.

Dependent variables

Measures of organizational commitment and organizational identification were adapted from existing, well-established scales. Confirmatory factor analysis indicated a 4-item measure of organizational commitment (α = .73), containing items such as "I feel very loyal to this hospital" and "I really care about the fate of this hospital". A 6-item measure of organizational identification (α = .76) contained items such as "The hospital's successes are my successes" and "When someone criticizes my hospital, it feels like a personal insult".

Organizational citizenship behaviors were measured by many items, including some developed specifically for this study (see Arnold, 2010). These behaviors were self-rated according to the extent respondents felt they were voluntary, not formally rewarded, and of benefit to the hospital (i.e., "true OCBs"). Exploratory factor analyses revealed a two factor solution. One 12-item factor (α = .82) included behaviors such as "I volunteer for extra duties that an unusual situation will require". Thus, it reflected OCBs directed towards the organization (OCB-O). The other factor (α = .85) consisted of 11 items, including "I give gifts to staff as personal rewards". It reflected OCBs directed towards individuals at work (OCB-I).

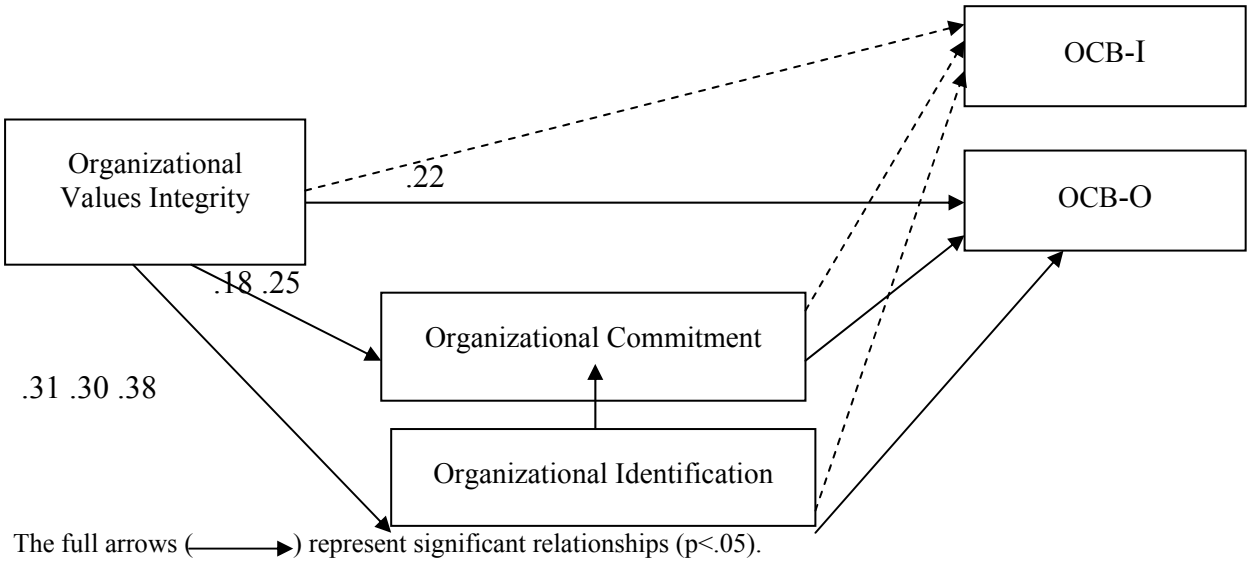
Results

In order to test the hypotheses through structural equation modeling, the LISREL 8 program was used. This program examines the survey items as indicators of latent variables. Samples sizes of n>200 are recommended and, ideally, 5-6 latent variables are each measured by 3-4 indicators (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006). In order to better meet these conditions for the OCB variables, item parceling was used in order to reduce the number of indicators for these latent variables (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). The 12 items measuring OCB-O were grouped

into four parcels and the 11 items measuring OCB-I were grouped into three parcels. Thus, the overall measurement model contained five latent variables and 22 indicators.

Because OVI is a new concept, several variations on the proposed model were tested. However, the structural model with best fit indices is represented in Figure 1. The model is a good fit to the data as suggested by the statistics: Comparative Fit Index =.94; Nonnormed Fit Index 93; and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation =.07 (with 90% confidence interval: .046 to .095). The ratio of Chi Square to degrees of freedom ($\chi 2/df = 1.64$) is relatively low. This is considered a better indicator of fit than the Chi Square statistic itself (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006).

Figure 1. The Structural Model of OVI Influences on Employee Attitudes and OCBs



The full arrows (——→) represent significant relationships (p<.05).
The dashed arrows (- - - - - - →) represent non-significant relationships.
Standardized regression coefficients are shown only for the significant paths.

The final structural model is a hybrid model containing direct and mediated paths from OVI to OCB-O. Six of the nine paths were significant at p<.05. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported because there were significant relationships between OVI and organizational commitment ($\beta = .18$, p<.05), and OVI and organizational identification ($\beta = .31$, p<.01). Hypothesis 3 was partly supported. OVI had a direct positive impact on OCB-O ($\beta = .22$, p<.01), although it did not predict OCB-I. In addition, hypothesis 4 was partly supported, because of the significant path between OVI and organizational commitment and between organizational commitment and OCB-O ($\beta = .25$, p<.01). Furthermore, although there was no prediction about it, there was a significant path between organizational identification and OCB-O ($\beta = .38$, p<.01). Interestingly, none of the three paths to OCB-I were significant.

Discussion and concluding remarks

This study examined a new concept of value congruence, which is termed "Organizational Values Integrity" (OVI). The modeling of OVI and related variables in this study extends the work of Simons and colleagues (2007) who found that BI impacts on various employee attitudes. The current study found significant relationships between OVI and organizational

commitment, organizational identification and OCB-Os. Firstly, OVI was related to OCB-O both directly and through organizational commitment. Secondly, OVI had a positive association with organizational identification which, in turn, influenced OCB-O. In fact, the results suggest that OVI has stronger effects on organizational identification than organizational commitment. This is consistent with the notion that identification is a stronger feeling of attachment to an organization than commitment (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) and thus is more strongly influenced by employee perceptions of organizational values-action alignment. In addition, the current results reveal that OVI impacts on OCB-O rather than OCB-I. This is consistent with Lavelle and colleagues' (2009) demonstration of the 'target similarity effect'. They found that antecedents at the organizational level (e.g., organizational commitment) are more positively related to OCB-O, whereas antecedents at the individual level (e.g., commitment to workgroup members) relate more to OCB-I. Thus, we would expect OVI to have more influence on OCB-O whereas BI should impact on OCB-I; this is an area for future study.

Apart from the general limitations of being a cross-sectional study in a single location, the main limitation of the current study relates to measurement of the OVI construct. Arguably, the OVI variable used here does not only measure organizational values-action consistency. It includes items from a cynicism scale that reflect the idea of the organization keeping (or not keeping) its promises. This notion is an integral part of Simon et al.'s (2007) measure of BI, which focuses on the perceptions of managers' word-deed alignment. Therefore, perhaps the OVI variable relates to organizational words in general. As a counter argument, statements of organizational values are part of a whole package of internal documents and publicly promoted 'words' that signify the espoused values of an organization (Kabanoff, Waldersee & Cohen, 1995). Thus, a survey item such as "I believe that the hospital always does what it says it will do" might imply the hospital acts in accord with its values-base. From this perspective, OVI *does* measure employee perceptions of how well the stated organizational values are enacted. In either case, the study confirms that the stated values or words promoted by an organization affect employee perceptions, attitudes and behaviors. One implication of this finding is that organizations should regularly assess (e.g., through staff survey) how well employees perceive the stated values are enacted. If employees perceive the values are not enacted, their attitudes and behaviors may be detrimental to the organization. In this case, the organization could opt to do a complete values audit and attempt to align the organizational practices and the values. Alternatively, it may be advisable to simply downplay the stated values or emphasize them as ideals to strive towards (Dalton, 2006).

In conclusion, the OVI construct is a preliminary one that requires further investigation, particularly to identify differences between words-deed alignment and values-action consistency. The results of this study suggest that organizations which espouse values, or use words to imply values, must ensure that organizational actions are perceived to be consistent with those values.

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Chapter 9: Leaders' Values

Managerial Values as Determinants of Human Resource Decision-making: A Comparative Study

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Abstract

This paper contains analysis and conclusions from a number of comparative studies that explored relationship between managerial values and human resource decisions made by managers concerning health and safety, training and development, performance based compensation, performance evaluation and employment equity. These comparative studies included managers from Bangladesh, Australia, Canada, Czech Republic, Hong Kong, India, Nepal, Pakistan, and Russia. The combined researches conducted by the author in collaboration with many scholars from those countries have revealed many interesting similarities and differences in beliefs, values, and human resource decisions. These studies have found evidence of "convergence and divergence" in managerial values and managerial decision-making. Managerial values had also been found to be determinants of human resource decisions made by managers. The paper discusses the implications of the findings.

Introduction

A series of studies conducted by different scholars over the past several decades show that managers in different countries hold different managerial values and attitudes. We, however, found that, despite a significant understanding of value differences among managers from different countries, the impact of value differences upon specific managerial behaviors (e.g., human resource decisions) had been inadequately explored. Why do managers from different countries attach different degrees of importance to such vital HR issues as training and development, health and safety, pay for performance, subordinate attitude and performance, and employment equity issues? For example, Canadian managers do regard investment in health and safety, training and development as extremely important while managers from some other countries investigated by us pay almost lip service to issues of work health, safety and employee development. There is also a wide divergence in terms of how women and minorities are treated in employment situation. One could possibly argue that financial, legal and other political factors were the reasons behind the type of human resource decisions. While we recognize the value of those factors, we argue that managerial values would explain a great deal the differences in human resource decisions made by managers. We investigated linkage between individual managerial values and HR decisions because decisions to hire and fire pay or not pay somebody were usually made by individual managers.

Literature review

Past research show that managers in different countries hold different managerial values and attitudes (Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter, 1966; Cummings and Schmidt, 1972; England, 1978;

Redding, 1977; Negandhi, 1979; Hofstede, 1980; Ouchi, 1981; Child, 1981; Doktor, 1983; Maruyama, 1984; Maurice et al., 1986; Bond, 1984; Pucik, Hanada, and Fifield, 1989; Tung and Miller, 1990; Ralston, Gustafson, Cheung, and Terpstra, 1993, Brewster, 1995, and 1999). Also, the importance of investigating specific socio-cultural, political and economic forces that influence managerial decision-making in different countries has been stressed by many scholars including McDonald and Gandz (1991), O'Donnell, Garavan and McCarthy (2000), and Shenkar (1995). Commenting upon the current state of the art in international management, McDonald and Gandz (1991: 233) noted, "Managers and HR professionals have not had exposure to the vocabulary necessary to move their discussions beyond vague ill-defined generalities". In a similar vein, Shenkar (1993), echoing Maurice et al. (1986), argued "to a great extent, we are still unfamiliar with the influence exerted by major sectors of (the) environment over management. Cultural, political, social, economic, and technological sectors of the environment are still insufficiently explored in terms of their potential impact on HRM practices". In other words, we need to make specific determinations of how value differences, along with other organizational and environmental factors, impact upon managerial decision-making in specific countries and sectors.

There is some work that attempts to link managerial values to managerial behaviour. Punnett (1989), for example, has made a significant contribution by explaining how cultural values shape managerial practices. Marquardt and Engel (1993), based upon case studies, also show how cultural values may impact upon human resource development practices. They found that trainers and trainees in Canada and US may jointly set training objectives and programs, while in China and other East Asian countries "the trainer is omniscient and therefore should know what the trainees need to learn..." Tung and Miller (1990) suggested that we should explore the managerial implications of cultural values in more concrete and specific terms. They said that managers of US companies had been slow to perceive the need to consider cultural differences. Similarly, Ralston and his associates (1993) suggested that understanding managers' values was critical in a global economy. Adler and Graham (1989) and Punnett and Ping (1990) showed the adverse consequences of a lack of understanding of value differences in international HRM. Recent work by Adler (1997) presented an integrated conceptual framework for understanding and managing international dimensions of organizational behaviour. She analysed the impact of culture on organisations in a global business environment and stressed the importance of effective management of cultural dimensions. Values are central to this cultural dimension. Saha (1989) presented a model for international human resource management hypothesizing that human resource practices in a given country would be influenced by managerial values and attitudes, among many other environmental and organizational factors. This conceptual framework has provided directions to several studies conducted by Saha and his co-investigators from different countries. We present a synopsis of these studies after a brief description of methodology used in these investigations.

Methodology

Studies being reviewed in this paper were conducted following a similar but not identical methodology. A questionnaire was designed by the author in 1991 to conduct surveys of managerial values and human resource decisions. Respondents were mainly working managers; in some cases senior business schools students having work experiences were also allowed to participate in the investigations. They were from a cross section of different industries... The questionnaire was translated into Russian and Czech languages for collecting

data from Russia and Czech Republic; in all the other studies English was used for data collection since the respondents were found to be reasonably fluent in English language.

The questionnaire was entitled," Critical Incidents for Managerial Decisions" containing three parts in the questionnaire. Part 1 contained several items relating to human resource decision-making. These critical incidents described hypothetical decision situations with respect to human resource management issues such as health and safety, training, employment equity, compensation and performance evaluation. Using the critical incident methodology, it was possible to make the HR issues very clear and specific as opposed to being a theoretical construct or concept.

Once the respondents read the case incidents, they were to record their decisions and explain the reasons behind their decisions. For example, the incident on health and safety described a specific safety situation and asked a respondent as to how he/she was going to deal with it (i.e., would they allocate funds for improving health and safety?). Managers from all of these countries were asked to rate the importance of each of the above mentioned HR issues on a seven point Likert-type rating scales, 7 being extremely important to 1 being not important at all.

Part 2 of the questionnaire was entitled, "Managerial Values" comprising of twenty-five 5-point Likert-type scales on family, spirituality, work ethics, fatalism, religion, equity, teamwork, and other workplace beliefs and values. The reliability of the value scales was tested and was found to be acceptable. Reliability scores (e.g., Cronbach's Alpha) ranged from 0.71 to 0.87. Managerial value scales used in these studies were not taken from any existing instrument; they were developed by the author to measure managerial beliefs and values concerning family, morality, work-ethics, participative management, teamwork. We were guided by the existing literature that focuses upon managerial beliefs and values. We factor analyzed the twenty five items in the questionnaire and found four factors that we called, "Being self-reliant", "importance of family", "participation and team work", and "human and social concerns". Our objective in the factor analysis was to find commonality among the twenty five items and to test if the value factors were associated with HR decisions.

The final part of the questionnaire elicited demographic information concerning age, education, sex, marital status, and nature of employment of the respondents. This instrument was selected for use in this research for the following reasons: a) the questionnaire was written in clear language and was easily understandable. A pilot testing of the questionnaire had indicated that most participants experienced no difficulty completing it. Problems of distribution and monitoring were substantially reduced, since the instrument was self-administered and could be distributed through normal and electronic mails. The questionnaire was scrutinized and passed by a Committee for Ethics in Research in one of the universities involved in this project. Data were analyzed by using the SPSS package. Frequencies, Cross-tab, Chi-square, Correlation, and Factor analysis.

Highlights of the comparative studies

Canada and Hong Kong: This study was conducted by Saha (1995) to reveal similarities and differences in managerial values and human resource decision-making between Canadian (n=108) and Hong Kong (n=136) managers. The study was inspired by Ralston, Gustafson, Cheung and Terpstra (1993) who explored the concepts of divergence, convergence and

crosvergence despite the fact that the study was not designed to test their hypotheses. Data were collected by the author following a methodology that has been described in the previous section of this paper.

Findings from this study included the following: Canadian and Hong Kong managers were similar in values concerning self-reliance, participative management, trusting other people and changing things within one's own family. The study observed also some differences in managerial values. Hong Kong and Canadian managers were significantly different from each other on the following beliefs and values: work ethics, equality within a group, pleasing the boss, socializing at work, importance of family, luck moral attitudes, family in society, respecting lineage, and belief in God.

On health and safety, training and development, Canadian managers not only attached significantly more importance to the HR Issues, they also decided to spend more money on these matters. No difference was found between Canadian and Hong Kong managers regarding the decision on pay for performance, dismissal for poor attitude and /or poor performance. An important objective of the study was to find out if managerial values were associated with HR decisions made by the Canadian and Hong Kong managers. When we did co-relational analysis between the four value factors (described in the methodology section) and HR decisions, we found that "family" values, "participation and teamwork" values, and "human and social" values were related to managerial decisions for health and safety and training and development. Our hypothesis was, thus, partially supported.

Canada and Pakistan: This study was done by Saha (1997) based on a sample of managers and MBA students from Pakistan (n=116) and Canada (n=109). Data were collected by following the methodology described earlier. The following research questions were investigated: How important were HR issues like health and safety, training and development, pay for performance, employee performance and employee attitude to these managers? What would managers' actual decision be if they were to make a decision on the above HR Issues? What was the nature of beliefs and values held by Canadian and Pakistani managers? Were those beliefs and values associated with HR decisions made by them?

Results indicated that both Pakistani and Canadian managers rated all five HR issues as important; Canadian managers, however, scored significantly higher than Pakistan managers on all areas of HR excepting training and development. When asked to make an actual decision on the five HR issues, a higher percentage of Canadian managers decided to provide full funding for health and safety, while significantly higher number of Pakistani managers decided to fund training and development proposals. On other three HR issues, no significant differences were found between the two samples.

Pakistani and Canadian managers were similar with respect to the following beliefs and values: family, subordinate autonomy, respect for lineage, being part of a group, equality in a group, and spirituality. However, on items such as work ethics, self and external control, belief in astrology and God, trusting people, socializing at work and importance of union as an organization, the two samples were significantly different. As mentioned above value items were factor analyzed producing four value dimensions: "family orientation", "equality and participation", "human and social values" and "being self-reliant". Managers having family orientation values were found to provide funding for health and safety, and training and development; they also considered that employee attitude was more important than employee performance. Being self reliant was associated with pay for performance decisions. Similarly, equality and participation, and human and social values were associated with

funding decision for health and safety. We, thus, found good support to the hypothesis that managerial values were responsible for the kind of HR decisions managers made.

***Canada and Czech Republic**:* In 1999, Dr. Ivan Fisera of the Czech Management Centre and Sudhir Saha undertook an investigation of managerial values and HR decision-making of a sample of Czech managers (n=130). Data collected from the Czech Republic were then compared with the data collected from a sample of Canadian managers (n=106). The questionnaire was translated to Czech language by Dr. Fisera and it was tested for meaningfulness, reliability and validity. Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha) of the twenty four value scales ranged from .69 to .81. We also conducted factor analysis of the items and found the same four factors as described previously.

On perceived importance of HR issues like health and safety, training and development, pay for performance, importance of employee attitude and performance, Saha and Fisera (1999) found that the Czech and Canadian managers were significantly different from each other on all five HR issues excepting training and development. It was noted that managers from both countries rated the HR Issues as important; and the difference between them was simply a matter of degree. When it came down to making HR decisions, Canadian managers were big spenders for health and safety, while the Czech managers decided to spend more money on training and development. Czech managers were also willing to grant pay raise more than the Canadian managers. Czech managers fired subordinates only when attitude and performance were deficient while Canadian managers were more restrained in these matters.

There were similarities and differences found in managerial values. No significant differences were found between the two samples on equality, change, and self-control. Czech managers were more sceptical about work ethics of people, less convinced of the importance of moral attitudes, and preferred friendly workplaces. Canadian managers expressed mixed sentiments on family values but believed in subordinate autonomy. In order to test relationship between managerial values and HR decisions, four separate multiple regressions were run taking each of the above mentioned value factors. We found that being self reliant were related to decisions on pay for performance and investment in health and safety. "Equality and participation" and "human and social" value factors were related to only pay for performance. In this study, we found weak support to the hypothesis that HR decisions were related to managerial values.

***Canada and India**:* In the summer of 2000, Mr. Shubhadeep Chaudhury from India, and the author conducted a comparative study of managerial values and human resource decisions between two samples of managers, one from India and the other from Canada. Approximately 148 questionnaires were e-mailed to managers from a cross-section of organizations in India but only ninety seven completed and usable questionnaires were received. Data received from India were compared with Canadian data (n=106) collected earlier. Managers from India indicated a significantly greater concern regarding training and development than Canadian managers; contrary to our expectation; managers from both countries had a similar rating for the importance of health and safety and employee attitude. Canadian managers rated the importance of pay for performance and employee performance higher than Indian managers. When these managers were asked to make decisions for funding health and safety and training and development, a significantly higher percentage of Canadian managers provided full funding than Indian managers. Similar percentage of managers from the two countries agreed to fund training and development. HR decisions

made by the managers, in this case, showed that what these managers said were important was not followed through when it came down to actually investing money. Indian managers were less willing to put up with poor subordinate attitude while Canadian managers were less willing to let a subordinate go for poor attitude and performance. Similarities between Canadian and Indian managers included respect for parents and trust in people, enjoying group work, spirituality, and belief in astrology. Indian and Canadian managers was different in their beliefs and values that concern work ethics, self control, subordinate autonomy, equality in a group, and workplace socializing.

***Canada and Russia**:* Saha (2004) compared managerial values and HR decisions of Canadian and Russian managers. Data collection from Russia involved several steps: First, a professor who taught Russian language translated the questionnaire into Russian. Once the translation process was complete, a research assistant well versed in Russian language checked the questionnaire for meaningfulness and adequacy. The research assistant also assisted in data collection, and translation of opinions of Russian managers into English. Russian managers were chosen on a convenience basis from a cross-section of private and public sector organizations from Moscow, Tomsk, Omsk, Novosibirsk, Barnaul, Biysk and Novokuznetsk. Data were collected from managers who were knowledgeable about HR practices of their organizations. The respondents held managerial jobs ranging from first level to the executive level; they were chosen based upon their knowledge of human resource practices in their respective organization. Complete responses were received from ninety-three Russian and one hundred and fifty Canadian managers. Data were collected from the two countries utilizing similar data collection procedures.

Managers from Russia indicated a significantly greater concern for pay for performance, and employee attitude. Canadian managers, on their part, showed more concern for health and safety and employment equity. Russian managers expressed higher concern for training and development. No statistical difference was found in the opinion of managers from both countries on the importance of employee performance.

Significantly fewer Russian managers were willing to provide funding for improvement of health and safety; Canadian managers, on their part, did approve full/partial funding in much greater number. The study found no statistically significant difference between the two sample concerning HR issues of pay for performance and merit pay. Both Russian and Canadian managers were overwhelmingly in favour of investment in training. Results also indicated that an overwhelming majority (79.6 percent) of Russian managers decided to hire a female over male to deal with a hiring gap between men and women. Russian managers were less forgiving of their subordinates who showed performance and/or attitude problems.

Canadian managers, as compared to Russian managers, attached less importance to family as an institution, and were also less sure of their ability to control situations in their workplaces and personal life. On workplace issues like “enjoy being part of a group”, “equality in a group”, and “participative leadership”, Canadian managers were less favorably predisposed to these ideas as compared to the Russian managers. Canadian managers also showed less trust in people and in the work ethics of their workers. Russian managers, on the other hand, cared less about pleasing the boss and socializing at work. They also considered themselves ambitious. They believed less in the idea of selecting employees on the basis of their performance in selection tests and were more agreeable to the idea of affirmative action. Russian managers put more value in union membership as compared to Canadian managers. They were also stronger believers on spirituality over material possessions. Both samples, however, were similar in their “faith in God” (i.e., low faith). On the subject of employment

equity both samples agreed that they were unfair. Both samples also thought there were "poor work ethics in people". Canadian and Russian managers were both neutral about the idea of "giving priority to the needs of others". The study also found that, while managers in these countries held different managerial values, these values were associated with their decisions regarding HR matters.

In addition to the above studies described in the paper, there had been a few other investigations that have demonstrated the linkage between managerial values and human resource management. For example, a comparative study between managers from Bangladesh and Canada conducted by Saha, Ali, and Hossain (1999) revealed that managerial values were associated with HR decisions made by the managers. Saha, O'Donnell, Garavan, and Mensik (2001) found that HR decisions made by Australian, Canadian, and Irish managers were associated with their beliefs and values. Similar results were obtained when Saha, Adhikari, and Pokhrel (2004) conducted a comparative study of Nepalese and Canadian managers. Mcguire, Garavan, Saha, and O'Donnell (2006) conducted a study of line managers and found that individual values of these managers did impact upon human resource decision-making.

Discussion and Conclusion

Our journey to compare managerial values and human resource decision-making across some chosen countries began two decades ago. We have presented in this paper a summary of data collection methods and major findings from these studies. References are provided in the paper for any reader who would like to get more details on these studies. There were indeed many strengths and weaknesses in each of these studies. But, they had gathered enough evidence to suggest that individual values of these managers did prompt them to deal with human resource issues in one way or the other. Too often policy makers in the government and industry formulate programs and policies to promote a specific human resource management cause without realizing that a successful implementation of these policies will depend on the beliefs and values of managers. If the rank and file managers do not believe in the merit of a human resource policy or program, they will find a way to defeat the purpose of the program. A good example of this is how employment equity policies formulated by both the public and private sectors about fifty years ago have yet to see some good results. Two practical implications of the findings are: a) top management of local, national, and especially multinational organizations must investigate and understand the beliefs and values of their rank and file managers who actually implement their human resource policies and objectives; and b) training and development of managers on cross-cultural values are a must if managers from different countries were to work together co-operatively and successfully.

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Note: The above is a partial list of references. For a complete list email sksaha@mun.ca

The Influence of Top Management's Social Capital on the Development of Competitive Intelligence: the Case of French SMBs

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Abstract

This paper aims at studying and measuring the influence of SMEs' top decision makers' social capital on competitive intelligence practices. To do so, a literature review of both competitive intelligence and social capital fields led us to construct a conceptual model based on four hypotheses. Methodological details of the test model using a PLS approach are outlined Data from 193 questionnaires filled out by high-tech French SMEs, are analysed through a PLS regression. A re-sampling procedure with the construct level change option and 250 re-samples is run. The results provide support for the four hypotheses and so contribute toward improving efficiency of competitive intelligence practices in four fields.

Introduction

While the functions and the operational dimensions of intelligence networks in corporate competitive intelligence practices have been clearly defined and distinctly explained in management literature, the relationship between the social capital of top managers and the level of development of said practices has never been dealt with as a research topic in its own right. Starting from this observation, the aim of this paper is to fill this gap by studying the influence of top management's social capital on the development of competitive intelligence (CI) practices in SMBs. The interest of this study is to scientifically corroborate or refute the decisive role, which has until now only been intuitively asserted, of top managers' social capital in the development of CI in their firms.

To do this, we will start with an overview of literature on CI and social capital before defining a theoretical model correlated around four hypotheses. Secondly, the field of study and the sample designed to test the hypotheses are presented. The methods used to test the model are based on a PLS approach with particular attention devoted to defining the epistemic relation between constructs and their items, the methods used to confirm measurement instruments and the test protocol for the structural equations model. Finally, a third section is devoted to results confirming the model, based on a sample of ninety-three SMBs in the west of France. These results are presented and discussed in terms of their contributions and limitations, as well as avenues for further exploration.

Competitive intelligence within SMBs: from a structured paradigm to versatile and plural practices

While CI is traditionally defined in the literature in reference to practices in large companies (Bournois & Romani, 2000), that is to say, as a full-fledged approach based on the structured

organization of three functions - scanning of the environment, protection of intangible corporate assets and influence on the environment - recent research concerning CI in SMBs (De La Robertie & Lebrument 2008, 2009, 2010) reveals that top managers in SMBs are aware of the stakes and contributions of competitive intelligence in increasing their firms' performance and competitive edge. This awareness goes hand in hand with the absence of a structured approach, i.e. formal processes coordinated by and around a central system ensuring control. Thus SMBs develop and update a mix of disparate CI "practices", a hodgepodge of surveillance activities, lobbying, protection and security procedures and influence initiatives that are more or less coordinated and involve more or less all employees. Indeed, CI practices in SMBs are not partial but versatile in that they can serve several purposes depending on the processes involved and where they are deployed (De La Robertie & Lebrument 2008, 2009). In this sense, we have observed that the CI practices studied seem to extend well beyond the conceptual field in which theory would confine or even deform them.

While the literature on CI (Larivet, 2004; El Mabrouki, 2007) insists on the important role played by information networks within the firm - to the extent they contribute to the intelligence and influence process - the place and role of managers' social resources in the context of an organization's CI practices remains to be explained. Indeed, these studies confer a distinctly significant role to managers' social resources in the development and updating of these practices, specifically in the context of intelligence and influence processes. Organised around the development axes of the firm, the manager's social networks constitute both a means of collecting various sorts of information – eventually transmitted internally to all the persons concerned or interested - and directly or indirectly relaying lobbying initiatives aimed at serving the organization's interests. In SMBs, the social capital of top managers therefore appears to work like a catalyst, triggering certain CI practices. Thus, it is important to review the notion of social capital.

The social capital of top managers: an explanatory factor behind the development of CI practices in SMBs?

While definitely present, implicitly, in Weber's *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* (1905), theorization of the concept of social capital was initiated at the start of the 80s by Bourdieu (1980) and Lin (1982). Although the concept of social capital was first produced through work in the field of social sciences and anthropology, its object - relational networks and resources – seems relevant when we try to understand how, and in which conditions, an economic player takes advantage of resources offered by means of social networks (Chung, 2000; Arrègle et al., 2004; Comet, 2006; Barlatier and Thomas, 2007).

In keeping with the work of Baron and Markham (2000), it is possible to define social capital as the "actual and potential resources individuals obtain from knowing others, being part of a social network with them, or merely from being known to them and having a good reputation" (Arrègle et al., 2004). Nevertheless, a manager's social resources can only generate useful social capital for the firm in certain circumstances. Indeed, a manager's social network can only produce social capital for the firm if he is capable of collecting information with high added value that is useful in making decisions or influencing decisions that further the interests of the business.

Moreover, in the sense demonstrated by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998), the social networks of managers have a direct impact on the intellectual capital of a given SMB, i.e. its knowledge,

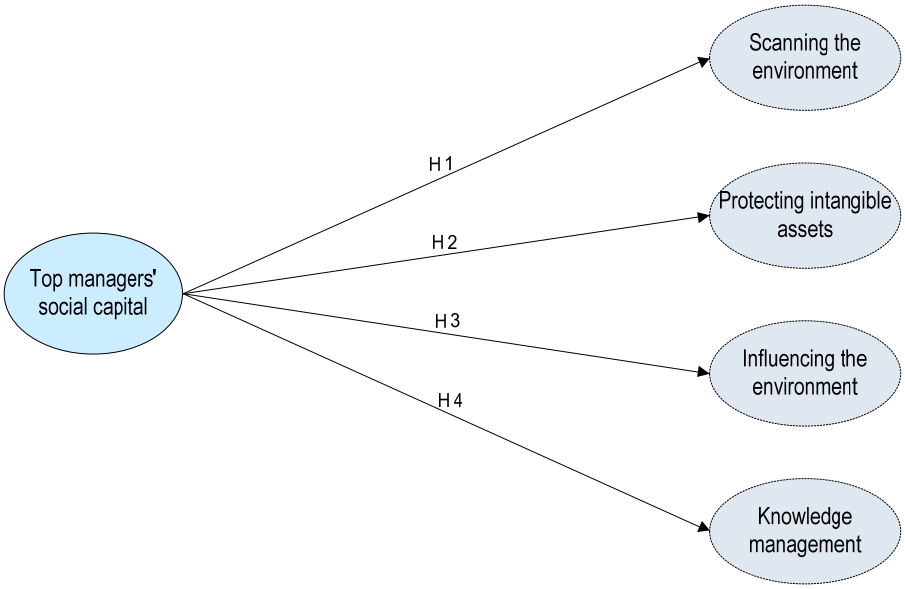
skills and capacities to learn, which "is explained by the fact that intellectual capital is created through two organizational mechanisms: combination and exchange", with "inter and intra group links" playing "a fundamental role in these two dimensions"(Arrègle et al., 2000). The advantages SMB managers derive from participation in social networks fall into two categories of social capital benefits identified by Biggart and Castanias (2001) and Adler and Kwon (2002) which are increased efficiency in searching for and acquiring information at lower costs and influencing certain members of the network so that they act in a way that furthers their goals (Arrègle et al., 2004).

Social networks used by managers of SMBs can therefore be understood as intangible strategic assets to the extent they meet the different criteria used by Barney (1991, 2001) to define a strategic resource: valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable and non-substitutable (VRIN). By establishing the plurality of institutional, economic and political relations which the firm maintains with its immediate environment, the roots of SMB managers' social networks transform their social capital into a strategic resource that conditions the development of CI practices.

Theoretical model and underlying hypotheses

While the literature emphasizes that the social capital of managers is embedded in CI practices, it fails to specify or measure its causal role in their development. Based on the distinction of four practices – scanning the environment, protecting intangible assets, influencing the environment and knowledge management - contrasted through a review of the literature, the aim of this article is to test a theoretical model designed to measure the explanatory influence of SMB managers' social networks on the level of development of CI practices within their firms. Thus, the theoretical model integrates four hypotheses aimed at assessing the effects of four explanatory variables on the level of development of CI practices as shown in the figure below:

Figure 1: Theoretical model based on four hypotheses



Our cardinal hypothesis consists in considering the social capital of an SMB's top managers as a determinant in development of the firm's CI practices. Starting with this point, we want to test the following four hypotheses linked to the relation between the managers' social capital and the level of development of CI practices:

- **Hypothesis 1:** ***The social capital of top managers positively influences the development of environmental scanning practices***
- **Hypothesis 2:** ***The social capital of top managers positively influences the development of practices designed to protect intangible assets***
- **Hypothesis 3:** ***The social capital of top managers positively influences the development of practices to influence the environment***
- **Hypothesis 4:** ***The social capital of top managers positively influences the development of knowledge management practices***

Research methodology : Data collection

Using the MEITO directory[1], we were able to access a list of 881 firms doing business in western France as well as the names of their CEOs and top managers. For each firm listed in MEITO we checked, using Diane, headcounts and turnover based on annual reports for the 2007 fiscal year. Among the 881 firms listed, 757 qualified as micro, small and mid-sized businesses as defined in European Commission Recommendation 2003/361/EC. Our initial sample therefore consists in 757 SMBs, distributed in the following manner according to their total workforce and turnover in 2007.

Data was collected via an online questionnaire addressed to top managers of the 757 firms in the initial sample. The online questionnaire was administered with the help of LimeSurvey open source software. In the end, 221 questionnaires were completed, which corresponds to a response rate of 29.2%. Among these 221 questionnaires, 28 could not be exploited because too many items were left blank, leaving 193 questionnaires that could actually be used –or 25.5% Furthermore, the final sample appears to be fairly representative of the initial sample.

Epistemological principles governing the operationalization of concepts

Before studying the indicators that are supposed to measure the theoretical construct, it is necessary to specify the nature of the epistemic relation between said construct and the indicators measuring it, i.e. between the latent variable and its associated manifest variables. Indeed, two types of relation can be observed between a latent variable and its manifest variables (Jarvis et al, 2004; Crié, 2005):

- the construct is reflected in the indicators that measure it: it is therefore a reflexive variable
- the construct is first formed by the indicators that measure it: it is therefore a formative variable

[1] MEITO is a French association created in 1984 that is supported and financed by the Brittany Region and several local communities. Its purpose is to stimulate and develop the Electronics, IT, Telecoms, Imagery and Multimedia sectors.

In the case of a reflexive relation, the latent variable is the cause of manifest variables, while in the case of a formative relation, the manifest variables are the cause of the latent variable (Picot-Coupey, 2006). Thus, in order to clarify the terms used in future developments, we will borrow the terminological distinction used by Bollen and Lennox (1991) in which a scale is constituted of multi-item measurements based on reflexive variables, while an index is defined by the formative relation between a construct and its different measurement indicators. While the distinction between the reflexive and formative approaches means, in practice, the reasoned decision to assign the causal principle of the measurement either to a latent variable or the manifest variables, correlatively it has significant consequences in terms of operationalization of constructs as well as validation of measurement instruments. To succeed, when specifying the variables we applied the decision criteria of Jarvis, Mackenzie and Podsakoff (2004) to determine if a construct was formative or reflexive. All of the model's constructs were operationalized using variables from a review of the literature in Strategies, Organization Theory, but also Sociology.

The nature of measurement instruments and associated items

Top management's social capital is defined as all the interpersonal assets a manager can put to use within, or outside, the context of his professional duties. In order to measure the social capital of top managers, we have defined and selected three dimensions –"relational assets", "participation assets" and "trust assets" – that assess, respectively, the nature and intensity of participation in networks and associations, through a structural approach, and the importance of reciprocal trust in successful business transactions, through a cognitive approach (Uphoff , 2000). Therefore this is a formative construct and constitutes an index.

Since there is no methodological approach that is considered both valid (recognize by all) and reliable (constant results with a variety of samples) and that could be used to confirm an index, our approach is based on recommendations and advice in several studies that have been formalized and structured to create a methodological protocol by Picot-Coupey (2006). The theoretical model was therefore refined by eliminating items step-by-step, which enabled measurement, for each purified item, of the consequences of its elimination for the global model and the other items in the construct. Stability of results was checked after each step where items were eliminated (only one item per step and per latent variable).

Results and discussion : Validation of the structural model

Five latent formative variables make up the model for assessing:

- top managers' social capital
- environmental scanning processes
- practices designed to protect intangible assets
- initiatives to influence the professional environment
- knowledge management practices

The choice of estimation parameters was based on the analyses, recommendations and proposals in literature on the PLS approach (Tenenhaus , 1998)

The model was estimated using SmartPLS 2.0 M3 software with the estimation parameters detailed above.

The exploratory model of the strategic versatility of CI practices is estimated by appreciating, on the one hand, the percentage of explained variance (R^2) for each of the latent variables explained and, on the other hand, the value of path coefficients. In order to ensure the stability of these estimations, t stats produced through bootstrap resampling were examined. All the results of the model are presented in Table 6 and then are more specifically detailed for each of the model's hypotheses.

Table 1: Table summarizing results of estimations of the influence of social capital on CI practices

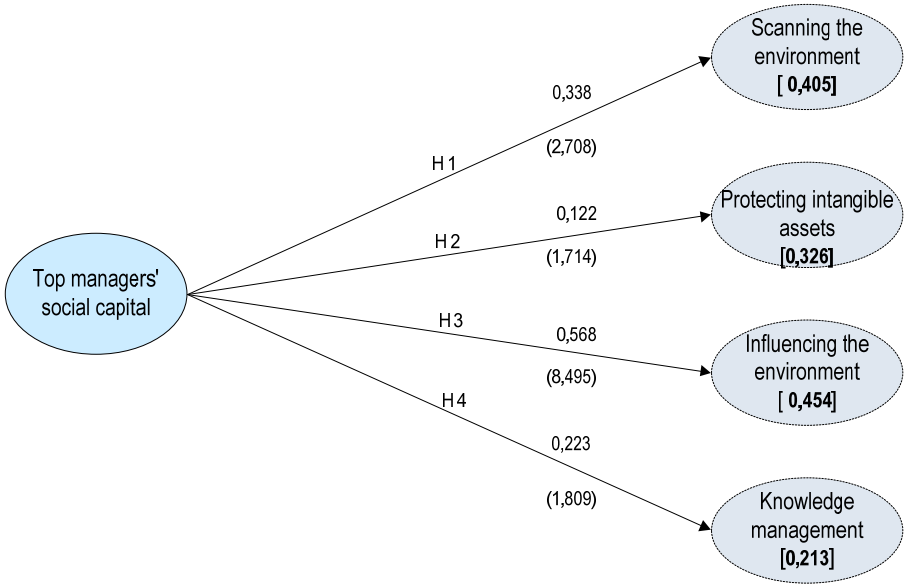
Hypothesis	R^2	Path coefficient	Level of significance	Conclusion for the hypothesis
Positive effect on environmental scanning practices: Of the top managers' social capital (H1)	**0.405**	0.338	0.00	Confirmed
Positive effect on practices designed to protect intangible assets: Of the top managers' social capital (H2)	**0.326**	0.122	0.04	Confirmed
Positive effect on initiatives to influence the environment: Of the top managers' social capital (H3)	**0.454**	0.568	0.00	Confirmed
Positive effect on knowledge management practices: Of the top managers' social capital (H4)	**0.213**	0.223	0.03	Confirmed

Considering the results presented in Table 1, the percentage of explained variance for each of the model's variables is satisfactory. Moreover, the four hypotheses tested have been confirmed:

- ✓ **H1 is confirmed**[1]: ***The social capital of top managers positively influences the development of environmental scanning practices (Student's t-test \|2.708\|).***
- ✓ **H2 is confirmed**: ***The social capital of top managers positively influences the development of practices designed to protect intangible assets (Student's t-test \|1.714\|).***
- ✓ **H3 is confirmed**: ***The social capital of top managers positively influences the development of practices designed to influence the environment (Student's t-test \|8.495\|).***
- ✓ **H4 is confirmed**: ***The social capital of top managers positively influences the development of knowledge management practices (Student's t-test \|1.809\|).***

[1] We confirm the hypotheses at a significance level of 5% - a threshold of significance at 10% could have been used, but would have made the conclusions produced by the results less robust.

Figure 2: Explanatory effect of top managers' social capital on the development of CI practices (*path coefficient and t value; [R^2]*)



Contributions

Our study reveals that the social capital of top managers explains the development of CI practices in SMBs. While the literature agrees on the importance of relational assets in developing CI practices (Bulinge, 2002; Larivet, 2004; El Mabrouki, 2007), the interest of our work lies in, on the one hand, explaining, specifying and confirming that the social capital of top managers, understood as a global set of relational, participation and trust assets, directly intervenes in the development of intelligence gathering practices. This element therefore means that information collected by top managers through participation in networks feeds the CI processes of their organizations.

The social capital of top managers in SMBs directly influences the development of practices intended to influence the environment. The results distinctly show that the social capital of top managers serves the influence strategies and initiatives of SMBs. They pinpoint and corroborate the determinants of influence practices in the specific case of SMBs (Larivet, 2009; Le Roy and Salvetat, 2008), and concretely illustrate how, and in which conditions, a corporate manager takes advantage of the resources offered practically and immediately by social networks (Chung, 2000; Arrègle et al., 2004; Comet, 2006; Barlatier et Thomas, 2007).

In view of tests of the model, knowledge management practices in SMBs are influenced by the social capital of top managers. It significantly affects the development of knowledge management practices. Indeed, while managers use their social networks to acquire new knowledge and skills through relations with managers of other firms in the same business sector or related fields, they simultaneously perform real transfers of capitalization practices and knowledge management within their organizations. Transfers of practices contribute to a learning dynamic within the firm by integrating, via adjustment and modification, knowledge management practices that have already been set up.

Limits

Since this study concerns competitive intelligence, its first limitation is conceptual and concerns the empirical boundaries of these practices. Our review of the literature indicates that previous research does not offer or refer to a theoretical model of competitive intelligence. This aspect therefore induces a limited generalization of the results obtained.

The second limitation concerns access to and cooperation of top managers of SMBs which is difficult to obtain due to their distrust of questions concerning their CI practices. This major drawback meant estimating a theoretical model based exclusively on a single data set, since it was impossible to collect several samples. This limitation therefore means that, despite the satisfactory results obtained when testing the model, the use of the measurement instruments in other fields would require that their quality be confirmed again.

The third limitation of this study is directly linked to the field of application in SMBs in IT, electronics, telecoms, imagery and multimedia. Indeed, SMBs in these sectors have, due to the nature of their business, an ICT culture that works well with certain CI practices, particularly scanning and knowledge management. Consequently, the results of this study are only valid for SMBs in this sector. Similarly, our field of application is limited to CI practices in SMBs. The results obtained cannot be generalized to all types of firm.

Furthermore, a fourth limitation of this research concerns the choice of a PLS approach to estimate and test the associated structural equations model. This method of estimating structural models is still not widely used in research concerning strategy, which meant that the researcher was perhaps less objective in his choice of validation procedures and the means of applying the PLS approach.Thus the validity of the results obtained must be put in perspective in light of a method that, despite its recent developments, is not completely stable. More specifically, the overall quality of the model of the strategic versatility of CI practices has not been estimated.

Conclusion

This paper aims to corroborate the influence of SMB managers' social capital on the development of CI practices through an empirical study conducted with top managers of 193 SMBs in western France. The test of the theoretical model confirms the explanatory influence of social capital on each type of CI practice we have indentified via an analysis of the existing literature. The social networks of top managers, as well as their means of development and longevity, are the basis of a plurality of institutional, economic and political relationships maintained between an SMB and its direct environment. The social fabric of SMB managers therefore constitutes a strategic resource in and of itself that is conditioned and updated through the CI practices of their organizations.

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Power, Responsibility & Wisdom: Exploring the Issues at the Core of Ethical Decision-Making and Leadership

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Abstract

All decision-making inevitably, involves moral / ethical choices. Also, comments defined as Wisdom are essentially concerned with the relationship between people, or their relationship with society, or universe as a whole; in essence these statements are about the relationship between Power and Responsibility. These statements are generally globally recognised as relatively timeless insights that help us provide meaning to the world about us. Yet this link is almost totally ignored in Futurist, Strategy, Knowledge Management, and even Ethics, literature. We appear to spend more time focused on learning facts, with a relatively short shelf life, and less time on knowledge that overlaps with Wisdom, with a long shelf life. Why is that? What can we do about it?

Introduction

The objective is simple: 'Better decision-making'. The only issue is that there are so many different views over what we mean by 'better'. At the core of all decision-making is the need to balance Power with Responsibility, as the vehicle for resolving the 'better' dilemma. This article explores why that is so difficult? It also argues that exploring the concept of Wisdom can provide invaluable insights into how to achieve the most effective balance between Power and Responsibility, which is central to what our values mean in practice, as well as how we incorporate ethics into our decision-making.

Power and Responsibility

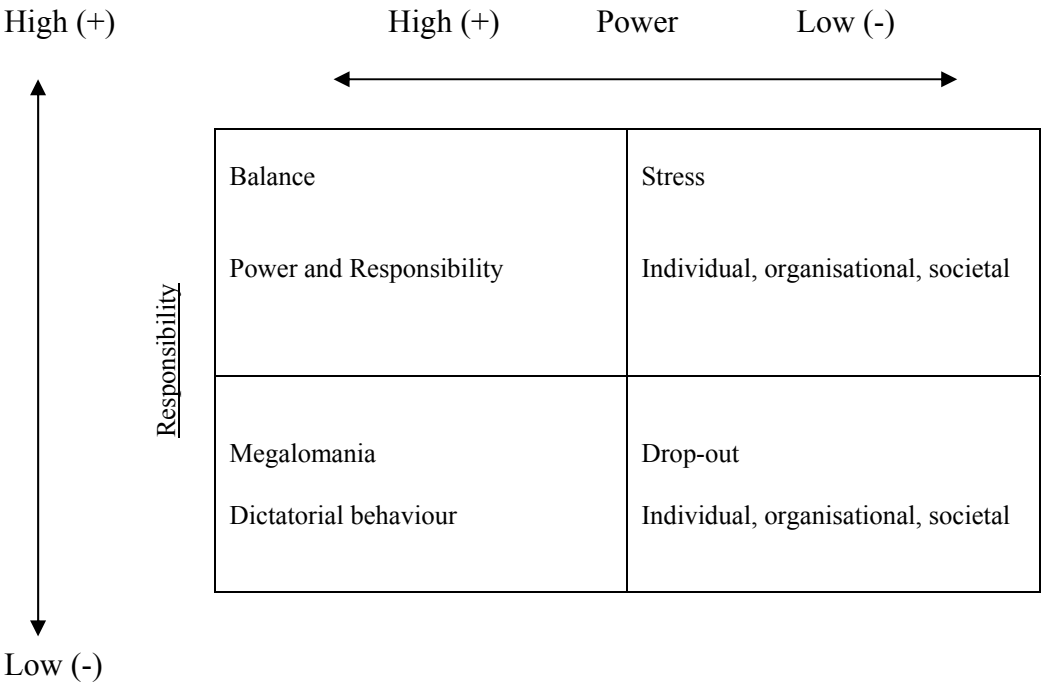
Western sociological and management/leadership literature is full of references to Power. How to get it? How to keep it? And How to prevent it being taken away? In parallel, but rarely in the same studies, there is also an enormous amount of literature on the concept of Responsibility.

While Power is the ability to make things happen, Responsibility is driven by attempting to answer the question: 'In whose interest is the Power being used?' Yet the two concepts of Power and Responsibility are simply different sides of the same coin; they are the Ying and Yang of our behaviour; they are how we balance our relations with ourselves with the interests of others, which is at the core of what we mean by our values. Power makes things happen, but it is the exercise of an appropriate balance between Power and Responsibility that helps ensure as many 'good' things happen as possible.

This critical relationship between Power and Responsibility is reinforced by examining how these two concepts interact in practice, through a variety of different management dimensions.

First, it is useful to visualise a two-by-two (Boston) box (see diagram below), with Power (+&-) along the horizontal axis, and Responsibility (+&-) along the vertical. In one square, where there is a strong Power-driven (+) culture, combined with little sense of Responsibility (-), there is a high probability of megalomaniac or dictatorial behaviour. While another square would combine a high degree of Responsibility (+), with little Power (-), which is a classic recipe for stress. In fact, this is a major cause of relatively unaddressed individual, organizational and societal stress, reinforced by many empowerment programmes, that are more concerned with giving individuals more Responsibility than giving them more real authority (ie: Power). A further square has low levels of both Power (-) and Responsibility (-) producing the net result of 'drop-outs', whether individual, organisational or societal. This category is often viewed as an attractive option when individuals consider it relative to the alternative to the stress, which is all too often associated with situations where the feeling of impotence is associated with the feeling of Responsibility. The ideal is to work towards the final square where there is an appropriate balance between Power and Responsibility (+/+). Although this compartmentalisation is an inevitable simplification, it does show how the underlying pattern of Power <> Responsibility relationships influence individual behaviour, which is particularly critical in areas related to ethical decision making.

Power – Responsibility Relationships



This basic relationship between Power and Responsibility is confirmed from experience in several other organisation/societal dimensions:

1. Organisational culture can be considered as either one that encourages the sharing of information, as opposed to a 'Knowledge is Power' culture. (Although I consider it is more appropriate to use the word Information, rather than Knowledge, for reasons that are discussed in more detail later.) Almost all management techniques (Total Quality Management, Learning Organisations, and Knowledge Management, to name but three) are based on the assumption of a sharing knowledge culture and these techniques are

unlikely to be effective within a 'knowledge is power' culture. Teams, and virtually all other management techniques, flourish best under a Responsibility-driven culture. In addition, as we move further into a knowledge economy, the effective sharing of information/knowledge will become even more critical for all our decision-making whether as individuals, within organisations, or for society as a whole.

2. It is often argued that people oppose change, when the underlying problem is, in fact, that there is a difference of opinion on how to define progress - or what we mean by 'better'. In a culture where those affected by change are either in control, or they trust those driving the change, there is usually general agreement on how progress is defined, and there is little opposition to any change initiatives. The greater the trust levels, the easier it will be to undertake change, simply because there is general agreement that the change will be equated with progress. Despite all the talk of the need for change in many situations, what is really required is the need for greater emphasis on the concept of progress. Unfortunately, it is very rarely the case that all change can be equated with progress. This difference between change and progress is at the heart of most organisational difficulties in this area, partly because the vast majority of change is still top down driven, and this is, unfortunately, combined with the widespread existence of a Power-driven culture, which has fostered a breakdown in trust in far too many situations.
3. Another important dimension of the Power-Responsibility relationship arises in many organisations where they experience the damaging effects of bullying, corruption, as well as sexism and racism. These problem behaviours are, essentially, in the vast majority of cases, essentially little more than the 'Abuse of Power'. If individuals took a more Responsible-driven (ie; 'others focused') approach to their personal relationships, there would be an enormous reduction in these harmful anti-social behaviours.
4. The issues considered above are also reflected in the language we use to discuss them. Phrases, such as 'Corridors of Power', 'Power Struggles', even 'Lusting after Power', are widely used, but would not attitudes and behaviours be different if the language used was more focused on using phrases such as 'Corridors of Responsibility'. Why do we never hear about 'Responsibility Struggles'? There are very few, if any, examples of people being accused of 'Lusting after Responsibility'. Why not? If Power and Responsibility are two sides of the same coin, shouldn't the words Power and Responsibility be virtually interchangeable?

The greater the level of a Responsibility-driven decision-making culture, the more effective and sustainable will be the consequences of that process; and the less regulation will be required to manage the inter-relationship between the various stakeholders. In contrast, more and more regulations will be needed in an attempt to regulate Power-driven cultures, where those regulations are designed, in theory, as an attempt to make the decision-making processes more accountable, and so encourage more responsible behaviour. If we all behaved more responsibly in our relationship with each other, there would be much less pressure for more and more regulation and legislation.

Rights and Responsibilities

In addition, it can be argued that it was a pity that there has been such an emphasis on 'Rights' during the twentieth century (The UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the

European Declaration of Human Rights, etc.), rather than emphasising a combination of Rights with Responsibilities. In almost all current ethical debates (as well as legal and other regulatory structures), the ultimate objective is to try to achieve the appropriate balance of Rights and Responsibilities. If individuals behaved more Responsibly and ethically towards each other, it would be much more likely that the net result would be a higher standard of ethical decision making overall. This is a classic case where the outcome and process are closely inter-linked.

In the context of the above comments, it is worth mentioning that probably 90% of violent behaviour arises because there is an imbalance, or discontinuity, between Power (self-focused), and our sense of Responsibility (others-focused), which leads to a breakdown in the ability to communicate effectively between those involved. This breakdown becomes even more acute, and problematic, if it is combined with an inability to undertake a constructive dialogue in the first place.

Leadership is nothing more than the 'well informed, Responsible, use of Power'. The more the leadership related decisions are Responsibility-driven (ie, the more they are genuinely concerned with the wider interest), not only will they be better informed decisions, but the results are much more likely to be genuinely reflect the long term interests of all concerned, which also happens to be a sound foundation for improving their ethical quality.

Wisdom

In essence, the above leadership definition is exactly what could also be called 'Wise Leadership'. In this context the concepts of leader, leading and leadership are used interchangeably, although it could be argued that leaders are individuals (including their intentions, beliefs, assumptions, etc.), while leading is their action actions in relation to others, and leadership is the whole system of individual and social relationships that result in efforts to create change/progress. However, the above definition, can be used to cover the integrated inter-relationship of those three dimensions.

There is an enormous amount of literature that explores Wisdom, and this can provide useful insights into what works and what doesn't? However, partly because, for various reasons, the word Wisdom has been widely misused and misunderstood, it might be useful to explain how I got involved in exploring this generally neglected dimension of thinking about how people, organisations and society work well in practice.

Wisdom Definition

But what do we really mean by Wisdom?

According to the *Wikipedia* (5/8/05) entry for Wisdom:

"Wisdom is often meant as the ability and desire to make choices that can gain approval in a long-term examination by many people. In this sense, to label a choice 'wise' implies that the action or inaction was strategically correct when judged by widely-held values ….

… Insights and acts that many people agree are wise tend to:

- *arise from a viewpoint compatible with many ethical systems,*

- *serve life, public goods or other impersonal values, not narrow self-interest*
- *be grounded in but not limited by past experience or history and yet anticipate future likely consequences*
- *be informed by multiple forms of intelligence – reason, intuition, heart, spirit, etc."*

More briefly Wisdom can be considered as: *'Making the best use of knowledge ... by exercising good judgement' .... 'the capacity to realise what is of value in life for oneself and others' ....* Or as *'the end point of a process that encompasses the idea of making sound judgements in the face of uncertainty.'*

Of course, Wisdom is one thing, 'being wise' is quite another. Being wise is certainly more than the ability to recycle Wisdom. In essence, 'being wise' involves the ability to apply wisdom effectively in practice.

Wisdom Statements

Wisdom statements are those that appear to be useful in helping us all make the world a better place in the future. They are not absolute statements; they are simply statements that reflect our understanding of behaviour patterns that appear to work in a positive, sustainable, direction. But a statement of Wisdom is only useful if it also checks out with our own experience.

Our values/Wisdom define the limits of what are considered acceptable choices in the first place and those decisions determine our knowledge/action priorities. These priorities then determine what information is required, in order to try to ensure that the decision is as well informed as possible. In turn that information need determines what further questions have to be asked about what additional data is required. It also needs to be recognised that the way the word (/concept) Wisdom, has been used in the past has not always helped this process.

We need to start with Wisdom (/our values) as our base, which provide the framework within which to manage knowledge, and so on through the pyramid to information and data. Consequently, without a sound base at one level, it is difficult to manage effectively the next layer up (or down). Knowledge as information in use, and Wisdom as the integration of knowledge and values to produce wise action. This is confirmed by the comments below:

"Wisdom is the power that enables us to use our knowledge for the benefit of ourselves and others."

(Thomas J. Watson)

"Knowledge is not wisdom, unless used wisely."

(J.D. Anderson)

Many of the important messages about the state and future of the Human Race were made over a thousand years ago, in China, the Middle East and other early sophisticated societies. In fact, Wisdom insights are very similar irrespective of which part of the world identified as their source, because they consist of statements about relationships between people, either

individually or collectively in societal context, or about our relationship with the universe as a whole, that they have ‘stood the test of time’.

Learning

Wisdom is by far the most *sustainable* dimension of the information/knowledge industry. But is it teachable? It is learned somehow, and as far as I know, there is no ‘values’/Wisdom gene. Consequently, there are things that we can all do to help manage the learning processes more effectively, although detailed consideration of these are outside the scope of this paper.

We need to recognise that the more change that is going on in society, the more important it is that we make sure that our learning is as effective as possible. That is the only way we have any chance of being able to equate change with progress. If we want to have a better future the first - and most important - thing that we have to do is improve the quality and effectiveness of our learning.

We are trying to improve things. We are trying to make progress. Of course, the concepts behind the words: 'improve', 'better' and 'progress' are powerfully values-driven. Organisations and individuals don’t have a problem with change, only with how we perceive progress. Our success in this area is critically dependent on the quality of our dialogue as discussed earlier. Unfortunately, it is not easy to be optimistic about current trends, when the media is so focused on sensationalism and confrontation.

Wisdom Insights

Some examples of statements about Wisdom that not only reflect the points made above, but provide additional insights into the meaning and usefulness of the word, would include:

"Knowledge is a process of piling up facts; Wisdom lies in their simplification."

(Martin H. Fisher)

“Wisdom is the intelligence of the system as a whole.”

(Anon)

“ Wise people through all laws were abolished would lead the same life.”

(Aristophanes)

And some of the general Wisdom messages that we might like to pass onto future generations might include:

"By doubting, we come to examine, and by examining, so we perceive the truth." (Peter Abelard)

"If you won't be better tomorrow than you were today then what do you need tomorrow for?"

(Rabbi Nahman of Bratslav (1772-1811))

"You must be the change you want to see in the world."

(Mahatma Gandhi (1869-1948))

"The purpose of studying history is not to deride human action, not to weep over it or to hate it, but to understand it -- and then to learn from it as we contemplate our future."

(Nelson Mandela)

"Concern for others is the best form of self interest"

(Desmond Tutu)

What are the implications of these ideas for us all?

A Wise Society

In recent years we have seen considerable effort to move people from the idea of 'Working Harder' to 'Working Smarter'. But what is really needed is to move beyond 'Working Smarter' to 'Working Wiser'. We need to move from 'The Knowledge Society' to 'The Wise Society'. And, the more we move along that progression, the more we need to recognise that we are moving to a situation where the important issues primarily reflect the quality of our values, rather than the quantity of our physical effort. If we want to improve the quality of our decision making, the focus needs not only to be on the quality of our information but, perhaps even more importantly, on the 'right' use of that information, hence the importance of improving the dialogue related issues mentioned earlier.

Stakeholder analysis can help understand the map of the Power/Responsibility relationships within decision-making processes. All decisions require trade-offs and this involves judgement between the interests of the various stakeholders, within a framework of a genuine concern for the long term - and the wider interest. It is also the case that where there is no common agreement over objectives, values are invariably the dominant agenda in any discussion. It is here that Wisdom reflected in both content, and process, can be critical. How often do we seem to be either obsessed with technology - or so focused on the experience of the here-and-now - that the issue of Wisdom appears to be virtually ignored? Are we really focused on what is important, rather than on just what is easy to measure?

One reason for the recent obsession with an information based approach is because that provides a relatively easy framework within which to get agreement of decisions. Any focus on the values dimension can make decision-making much more problematic. There are two answers to such a view: First, values are implicitly involved in all decision-making and all we are doing is making the discussions about the values dimension more explicit, a process that is, after all, at the core of Knowledge Management. It is also through making information/knowledge more explicit that we can improve the effectiveness of our learning processes. Secondly the evidence suggests that there is much more agreement across all cultures and religions about fundamental human values (and Wisdom) then is generally recognised.

Finally I come back to the point made at the beginning. Why are we interested in Ethics and the Future? The answer is, simply that we are concerned with trying to make the world a 'better' place. But for whom? And how? To answer both questions we need to re-ask fundamental questions: Why do we not spend more time to ensure that the important messages that we have learned in the past ('Wisdom') can be passed on to future generations? How do we ensure these messages are learned more effectively? These are critical strategy questions, as well as being at the very foundation of anything we might want to call 'The

Knowledge Economy', although what is really needed is to focus on trying to move towards a concept closer to 'The Wise Economy'. This focus naturally overlaps with the greater attention recently being given to values/ethical related issues and 'the search for meaning' in management/leadership literature.

Overall, Wisdom is a very practical body of sustainable knowledge (/information) that has an incredibly useful contribution to our understanding of our world. Such an approach would enable us all take 'better' (/wiser) decisions, lead 'better' lives and experience wiser leadership, particularly in areas that involve explicit, or implicit, ethics and values related issues which are themselves closely linked to establishing more appropriate relationships between Power and Responsibility.

If we cannot take Wisdom seriously we will pay a very high price for this neglect. We need to foster greater respect for other people, particularly those who have views, or reflect values, that we do not agree with. This requires us to develop our capacity to have constructive conversations about the issues that divide us and that, of itself, would go along way to ensure that we improve the quality of our decision-making for the benefit of all in the long term.

Finally, it hardly needs mentioning that the rehabilitation of the concept, combined with encouraging the use, of Wisdom would be an invaluable way to help us better manage the apparent paradox of competing values in today's increasingly uncertain environment.

References

You may contact the author of the paper for a detailed biography.

Family-to-Work Enhancement and Work Outcomes: A Moderated Mediation Model of Work Engagement and Supportive Supervision

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Abstract

Underpinned by role expansionist theory or perspective, this study examined why and how family-to-work enhancement is related to work engagement leading to an improvement in organizational commitment and organizational-based self-esteem (OBSE) in a sample of employed parents in Ghana (N = 174). Controlling for job autonomy, the results revealed that consistent with our predictions, work engagement partially mediated the relationship between family-to-work enhancement and organizational commitment and fully mediated the relationship between family-to-work enhancement and OBSE. The results also revealed that supervisor support moderated the enhancement-work engagement linkage.

Introduction

While much of the extant research on work-family interface in the past has focused on conflict perspective that the demands from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some aspects (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999), there is a growing recognition that an individual is able to acquire resources or experiences from his or her life domain (e.g. either work or family domain) to promote the positive consequences of work and family interfaces (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Ruderman et al., 2002).

Graves and his colleagues (2007: 45) defined family-to-work enhancement as "interrole facilitation that occurs when the individual's family life improves his or her energy or mood at work, provides opportunities to obtain instrumental or social support concerning work-related issues, or contributes to the development of work-relevant skills". In other words, family-to-work enhancement occurs when family resources can be used to benefit work domain. Research in the literature has consistently shown that social support from the family (i.e. family-to-work enhancement) could generate better work performance (Friedman and Greenhaus, 2000; Frone, Yardley, and Markel, 1997; Frone, 2003). Graves and others (2007) also found that family-to-work enhancement could improve one's work performance. However, what is currently lacking in the literature is the theoretically relevant mediators of the relationship between family-to-work enhancement and work outcomes. Underpinned by expansionist perspective, this study conceptualized family-to-work enhancement as a resource gain and examined (i) the mediating influence of work engagement between the relationship of family-to-work enhancement and the work outcomes of organizational commitment and organizational-based self-esteem (OBSE), and (ii) the moderating influence of supervisor support on the relationship between family-to-work enhancement and work engagement.

Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

In contrast to conflict perspective, the expansionist perspective argued that participation in multiple roles can bring more advantages than disadvantages to individuals (Sieber, 1974), thereby providing more resources for one to use in other roles leading to inter-role enhancement. This theory posits that individuals taking up several life roles can accrue benefits (e.g. role privileges and status security) which lead to greater role gratification rather than role stress. Abundant energy rather feeling tired or stress has been found for roles to which an individual is committed. More strengths or energies are not impossible to generate when taking up multiple roles (Marks, 1977). In summary, participating in multiple roles can produce enriching outcomes when individuals have adequate resources (through role accumulation) for meeting environmental demands (Sieber, 1974; Marks, 1977).

Underpinned by expansionist perspective or theories of role accumulation (Sieber, 1974; Marks, 1977), we conceptualized family-to-work enhancement as a resource gain which provides more resources for individuals to meet with their work demands. To account for the mediating influence of work-engagement between the linkage of family-to-work enhancement and work outcomes (i.e. organizational commitment and organizational-based self-esteem), we posit that the experience of family-to-work enhancement could improve one's positive emotional response which in turn enhance one's work engagement (Rothbard, 2001). This argument is consistent with Kahn's (1990) grounded theory of personal engagement which states that when one is more psychologically available (as a result of having enough resources to deal with life roles), one is more likely to engage in the life roles. We further posit that work engagement could provide positive and enriching work experiences to an individual, leading to an increase of a sense of commitment and self-worth (i.e. organizational commitment and organizational-based self-esteem). We finally posit that supervisor support constitutes an important physical, emotional or psychological resource in the work environment which could intensify or enhance the positive influence of family-to-work enhancement on work engagement.

The Mediating Influence of Work Engagement

Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli (2006: 497) defined work resources as assets that "(1) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, (2) are functional in achieving work goals, and (2) stimulate personal growth, learning, and development". Kahn (1990: 700) defined work engagement as "the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional) and active, full performances". It thus refers to one's psychological presence in or focus on work activities. The idea to posit that family-to-work engagement enhances one's engagement at work is based in part on both role expansionist perspective (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974) and conservation of resources (Hofboll, 1989). The expansionist perspective suggests that family-to-work enhancement will enable one to generate resources from one's family life which can be used in one's work life. When one receives more work resources, one is likely to "retain, protect, and build resources" (Hobfoll, 1989: 516) in work domain leading to better work engagement. This argument can be understood in two ways: i) resources compel individuals to engage in work domain and they reinforce continued engagement because individuals seek to acquire and maintain valued

resources (Hobfoll, 1998), and ii) resources which set family-to-work enhancement into motion by influencing individuals' work engagement are likely to be greater for individuals in a resource-rich environment than for comparable individuals with comparable levels of engagement in a resource-poor environment (Hobfoll, 1998). Therefore, family-to-work enhancement is related to one's work engagement.

Research has shown that one can generate resources from family domain to benefit work domain, thereby creating family-to-work enhancement (Rothbard, 2001; Ruderman et al., 2002). With obtaining more work resources through family-to-work enhancement, according to Hofboll's (1989 & 1998) conservation of resources theory, one should be engaged in work domain as one has to prevent the loss of these work resources. In support with our contention, Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001) and Salanova, Agut and Peiró (2005) found that the availability of work resources can predict one's work engagement.

We also posit that work engagement is related to organizational commitment and OBSE. In this study, we focused on affective rather than the continuance and normative forms of organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is defined as the relative strength of an employee's psychological attachment to the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Meyer and Allen (1991) reported that when an organization provides work experiences that could match with an individual's expectations and satisfy an individual's basic needs, the individual will be more attached to the organization (i.e. organizational commitment). On the other hand, organizational-based self-esteem (OBSE) is defined as one's self-perceived value and worthiness that one has placed on oneself within an organization (Brutus, Ruderman, Ohlott and McCauley, 2000; Pierce and Gardener, 2004). Gardner and Pierce (1998 & 2001) reported that one's successful work experiences are more likely to enhance one's OBSE. Therefore it is believed that when employees are engaged at their work, they are fully involved in and behave more proactively at their work. With this argument, we expect that the engaged employees are more likely to commit themselves to the organizations and to be succeeded at their work leading to higher organizational commitment and OBSE. In support with our contention, Hakanen, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2006) found that work engagement can predict organizational commitment while Thoits (1991) suggested that one's engagement is related to one's self-esteem.

Hypothesis 1. Work engagement will mediate the relationship between family-to-work enhancement and the work outcomes of organizational commitment and OBSE.

Moderating Influence of Supervisor Support

Supervisor support refers to the attitudes of a supervisor whether he or she is supportive or not to help the employees to balance between work and family responsibilities (Thomas and Ganster, 1995). Being able to improve one's family life will lead towards better family experiences resulting in more family resources that increase one's opportunity to experience family-to-work enhancement, leading to enlarge the positive effects of family-to-work enhancement on work engagement. In contrast, low supervisor support provides no such positive impact on the employee's family life. Consequently, in a low supervisor support environment, the employees are unable to gather more family (or work) resources fostered by

supervisor support which would enhance the positive effects of family-to-work enhancement on work engagement. On the basis of the above discussion, we suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2. Supervisor support will moderate the relationship between family-to-work enhancement and work engagement such that high levels of supervisor support expand the positive effects of family-work enhancement on work engagement.

Methods

Three hospitals in Ghana participated in the study. Attached to each questionnaire was a cover letter that explained the objectives of the survey and assured respondents of the confidentiality of their responses and the voluntary nature of participating in the survey. Of the 350 questionnaires distributed, 206 were returned. However, after deletion of cases with respondents who were not parents, the final sample was 174 representing a response rate of 49.7%.

Results

The results of the CFA showed that our hypothesized 5-factor model fit the data better than each of the alternative models suggesting support for the distinctiveness of our variables. Table 1 presents the results of the regression analysis that examined the mediating influence of work engagement on the relationship between family-to-work enhancement and the work outcomes of organizational commitment and OBSE. As shown in the table (Model 1), family-to-work enhancement was related to work engagement ($\beta = .13$, $p<.05$) satisfying the first condition for mediation (Kenny et al., 1998). The regression results in Model 2 and Model 3 indicate that work engagement was related to organizational commitment ($\beta = .65$, $p<.001$) and OBSE ($\beta = .41$, $p<.001$). When considering the mediating influence of work engagement, family-to-work enhancement continued to be significantly related to organizational commitment albeit at a reduced magnitude ($\beta = .19$, $p<.05$) in Model 2, but it was not significantly related to OBSE ($\beta = .02$, p= n.s.) in Model 3. Following Kenny et al. (1998), the pattern of these results suggested that work engagement partially mediated the relationship between family-to-work enhancement and organizational commitment but fully mediated the relationship between family-to-work enhancement and OBSE. We subsequently used Sobel's (1982) test for indirect effects (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). Results showed a significant indirect effect of family-to-work enhancement on organizational commitment (Sobel = 2.05, $p<.05$), and family-to-work enhancement on OBSE (Sobel = 2.05, $p<.05$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Results of Regression Analysis for Mediation

Variable:	Model 1 Work Engagement	Model 2 Organizational Commitment	Model 3 OBSE
Controls:			
Gender	.05	-.13	-.01
Age	.01	.02*	-.01
Tenure	-.01	-.01	.01
Job Autonomy	.09*	.08	.09*
Direct effects:			
Family-to-work Enhancement	.13*	.28**	.07
ΔR^2	.03*	.04**	.01
Mediating effects:			
Family-to-work Enhancement		.19*	.02
Work Engagement		.65***	.41***
ΔR^2		.12***	.13***
Overall R^2	.08	.24	.17
Overall model F	2.74*	8.80***	5.84***

*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

The results of moderated regression analysis are presented in Table 2. As shown in that table, the two-way interaction of family-to-work enhancement and supervisor support significantly predicted work engagement ($\beta = .14$, $p<.05$). Consistent with Cohen and Cohen (1983), the high and low values were defined by plus and minus one standard deviation from the mean. Results showed that family-work enhancement was more strongly related to work engagement when supervisor support was high than low.

Results of Moderated Regression Analysis

Model	Variables	B	s.e.	ΔR^2
1	Control			.07
	Gender	.07	.09	
	Age	.02	.01	
	Tenure	-.01	.01	
	Job Autonomy	.11*	.05	
2	Main effects			.06*
	Family-to-work Enhancement	.18**	.07	
	Supervisor Support	.05	.05	
3	Interaction effect			.03*
	Family-to-work Enhancement * Supervisor Support	.14*	.07	

*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Discussion

There is limited understanding how and why family-to-work enhancement makes an influence on work outcomes (Graves et al., 2007). A theoretical mediator is lacking to link up the relationship in the literature. Underpinned by the integrated approach of role expansionist perspective and conservation of resources theory, the findings of this study revealed that work engagement mediates the relationship between family-to-work engagement and the work outcomes of organizational commitment and OBSE. Research in the literature is in line to support these findings that the consequences of work engagement are related to positive outcomes such as turnover intention and organizational commitment (e.g. Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Research has also shown that engagement in a role can provide positive and enriching experiences (such as role privileges and status) to an individual (Rothbard, 2001; Thoits, 1991). The results also revealed supervisor support as a moderator of the relationship between family-to-work enhancement and work engagement. Consistent with this argument, Rothbard (2001) found that a positive emotional response from one role can increase one's engagement in another role.

The findings of this study make several contributions to the literature. First, while family-to-work enhancement has been shown to be related to positive outcomes (Graves et al, 2007; Rothbard, 2001), this study has used a theoretically sound mediator, work engagement, to examine the processes explaining the effects of family-to-work enhancement on the work outcomes of organizational commitment and OBSE, thereby enhancing our understanding of the process of family-to-work enhancement to work outcomes. Second, the concept of work engagement is rather new and has rarely been researched (Mauno et al., 2007). This study has made an attempt to extend this concept to work-family research and enhance our understanding how work resources can be expanded through family-to-work enhancement. Lastly, results of the moderated regression revealed that supervisor support enhance the positive influence of family-to-work enhancement on work engagement. By further implementing the result, we believe that the supportive environment in the work domain or family domain can also provide a positive influence on the effects of work-to-family enhancement towards family engagement.

Conclusion

The results of this study suggest that helping employees to balance their work-family responsibilities could improve their family experiences which in turn make them more engaged in their work role. Given the positive consequences of work engagement, organizations should focus on ways or polices that could help the employees to obtain more positive family experiences.

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Leadership Behavior and Work Values in a Changing Environment

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Abstract

The National Institute of Industrial Property - INPI in Brazil is a public organization in deeply changing process. Changes have occurred in all areas of the organization including technology, structure, new employees and new activities to diffuse the culture of Industrial Property. To deal with these changes the INPI has focused to improve the managers' capability.

In 2007 INPI has started an Organizational Project to improve the quality and results in the management level. The initial results were presented by Marcelo Fernandes at 11th Bi-Annual Conference of the International Society for the Study of Work and Organizational Values (2008), in the paper Managers Perception in a Changing Process in the Public Organization.

This study attempts to analyze the relation between leadership behavior and the work values in the group of employes in the Management Development Program – MDP. It was used Leadership Opinion Questionarie of Edwin Fleishman (1986) adapted by Fany Tchaicovsky (1986) and Work Values Questionaire of Dov Elizur (1984) adapted by Fany Tchaicovsky (1992) in order to identify the relation between the two dimensions of leadership behavior (structure and consideration) and the three modalities of work values (affective, cognitive and instrumental). The Leadership Opinion Questionarie has been used in Management Development Programs as way to evaluate their effects, because it gives mesaures about group evolution (Tchaicovsky, 1986)

Both Questionaires were distributed to employes in the MDP. The employees belong from different levels and areas in the organization. Using data obtained from 25 employes we analyze the profile of leadership behavior and the work values structure comparing the responses presented .

Introduction

In the last two decades, Brazil has been facing several changes and challenges in its public and private organizations. The organizations are confronted with all kinds of new challenges globalization, new technologies, a more knowledge based work force demografics and increased levels of competition and quality demands. In this scene, arises the necessity of new organizational model more integrated and participative.

The National Institute of Industrial Property - INPI in Brazil is an exemple of public organization in deeply changing process to face this context. Changes have occurred in all areas of the organization including technology, structure, new employees and new activities to diffuse the culture of Industrial Property. To deal with these changes the INPI has focused to create a learnig culture and one of the most important drivers is to increase the managers capability and develop the values of participation and learnig as a way to give to the organization sustentability in the long term (Fernandes, 2008).

The modern organizations need to give employees a chance to develop themselves, to try, to participate and share knowledge, values and ideas to build a organizational sinergy and improve

the performace capability of an organization (Nonaka, I & Takeuchi, H. 2000; Davemport, T. & Prusak, L 1998; Senge, P. 1997). In addition, the individuals become more motivated when they are able to participate and take decisions (Mcgregor, D. 1966; Fleury, A. 1996).

In recent years, INPI has experienced a wyde and deeply changes internaly to improve its results and to consolidate its role in worldwide Intelectual Property system. In this context, several changes in technologies, structure, process, leadership and new employees are in course.

The Management Development Program-MDP is important to support organizational and cultural changes in order to improve the quality and results in the public administration context. In this scenario, to konw and understand the values profile and the leadership behavior of the individuals is important to be successful in the MDP.

As way to be effective in the MDP, is important to know the leadership behavior of the people involved in the program. Edwin Fleishman classified this leadership behavior in two dimenssions (structure and consideration) as way to study and define leadership. The concern is indentify "what the leader does" instead of "what the leader is"

On the other hand, values are also considered to play an important role in understanding the individual behavior (England, 1967) . Special attention has focused on the analyses and evaluation of personal life and work values in the last years, Braithwaite & Law (1985), Schwartz &Bilsky (1990), Elizur & Saggie (1994). The values as subject has been considerated important as a way to understand the human behavior.

Objective of the study

This study attempts to analyze the relation between work values profile and the leadership behavior.of professionals in the Management development Program of INPI in order to provide the organization with capability to deal with changes and the new requires in the intelectul property system.

Method

It was used Leadership Opinion Questionarie Leadership Opinion Questionarie of Edwin Fleishman (1986) adapted by Fany Tchaicovsky (1986) and Work Values Questionaire of Dov Elizur (1994) adapted by Fany Tchaicovsky (1992).

The Work Values Questionaire is formed by 24 questions. These questions are divided in three modalities of work values (affective, cognitive and instrumental). The Leadership Opinion Questionarie to identify the leadership behavior. It is formed by 40 questions, divides in two dimensions (structure and consideration). The Strucuture dimension is characterized by individuals task-oriented who play an active role in planinng, managing activities and innovation. The Consideration dimension chacarterize indiviuals by the interpersonal leadership style. The approach is in the work relations, confidence, respect people and good comunication.

The questionaires were disbributed to people of diferent levels and areas in the organization before they start the first group of MDP. The response was voluntary and without identification.

Using data obtained from 25 voluntary professionals we examine their leadership behavior profile and compare with their work values profile in the organizational context.

Sample

The sample is formed for a group of people wich have participated in the first MDP, and 25 voluntary people answered the questionaries without identification. The sample profile is presented in Table 1 in wich we have classified age in two categories (below and above 40 years), posistion in two categories (professionals and line managers), and areas divided in 3 broad categories (Administrative, Technology, Human Resource; Trademark & Patent and Presidency).

Table 1: Demographic Description of the Sample in INPI.

Aspects	Categories	Sample %
Age	Below 40 Above 40	70 30
Level	Professionals Manager level 1 & 2	55 45
Areas	Administrative , HR & IT Technology, Trademark & Patent Presidency	35 60 5

Table 2 - Work Values in Percentage for Extremely Positive Answers

	VALUES/CATEGORIES	MODALITIES	%	RANK ORDER
1	Achievement at Work	Cognitive	100	1
2	Improvements, Promotion oportunities	Cognitive	84	12
3	Benefits, Bonus	Instrumental	80	16
4	Pride in the Company	Cognitive	92	6
5	Contribution to Society	Cognitive	88	8
6	Convinient Hours of Work	Instrumental	60	20
7	Co-workers	Affective	84	12
8	Respect and esteem	Affective	84	12
9	Feedback	Cognitive	96	4
10	Independence at work	Cognitive	52	21
11	Influence in the organization	Cognitive	40	23
12	Influence at work	Cognitive	64	19
13	Interresting Job	Cognitive	92	6
14	Job Security	Instrumental	76	18
15	Job Status	Cognitive	16	24
16	Meaningful Work	Cognitive	84	12
17	Opportunities for growth	Cognitive	88	8
18	Opportunities for interaction	Affective	52	21
19	Adequate Salary	Instrumental	96	4
20	Recognition	Affective	88	8
21	Responsability	Cognitive	88	8
22	Fair Supervisor	Affective	100	1
23	Use of Skills	Cognitive	100	1
24	Work conditions	Instrumental	80	16

Figure 1 : Structure questions in Percentage for the Two Extremely Positive Answers

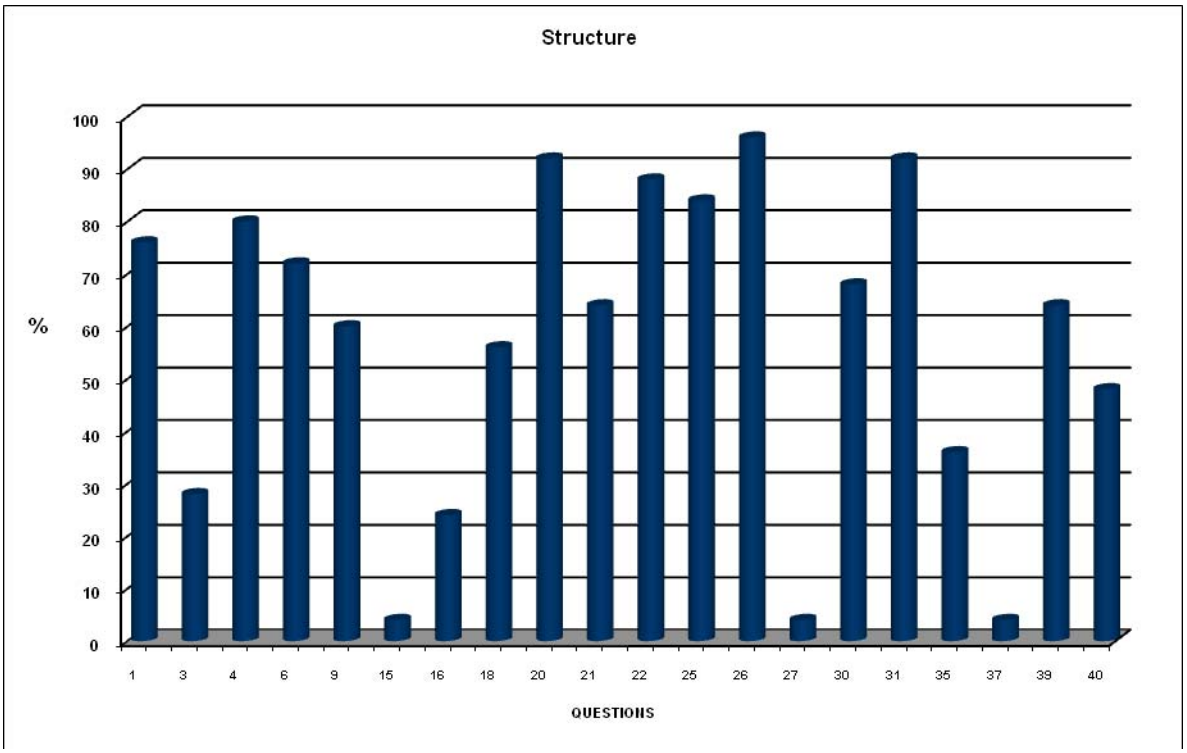
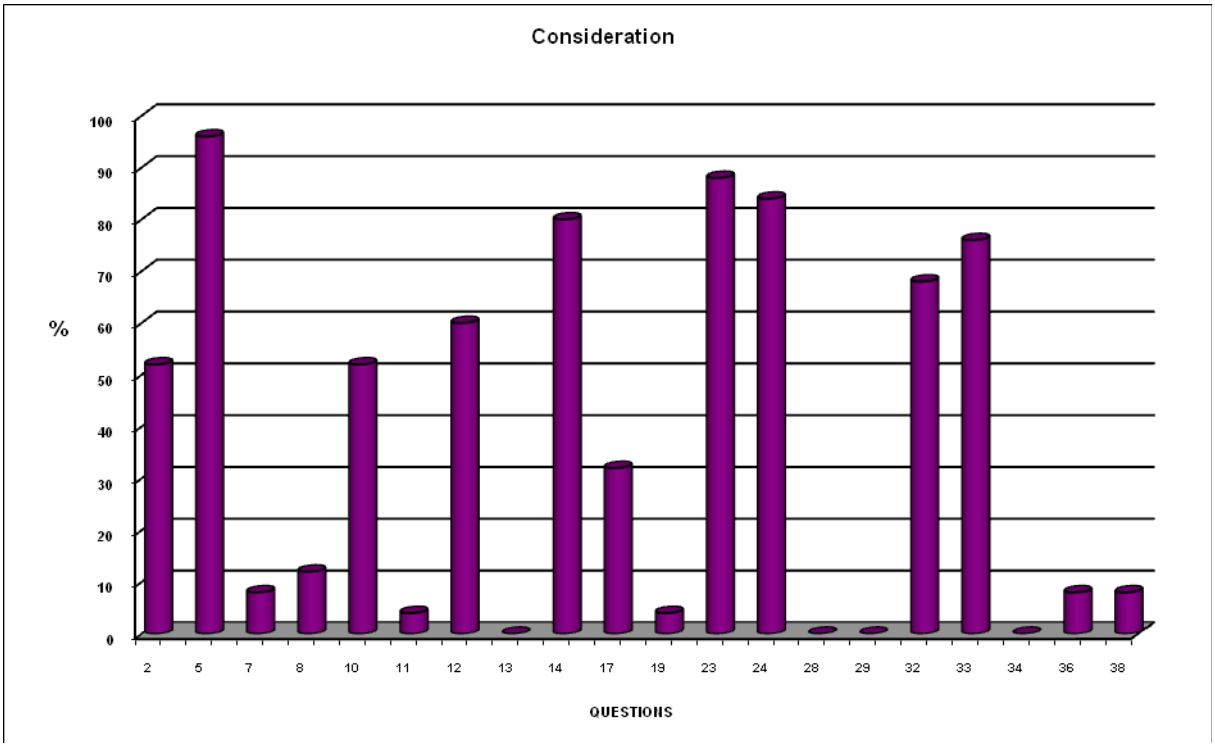


Figure 2 : Consideration questions in Percentage for the Two Extremely Positive Answers



Discussion

This exploratory study shows that several changes have occurred in INPI in the last years. To deal with these challeges INPI has created a MDP to develop their professionals and managers.

Although the sample size be small, this study shows important informations. Initially, the leadership behavior of the group analyzed concentrates in the strucuture dimension. The enfhasis in positive answers is stronger in the structure than consideration dimension (figures 1 and 2). This profile can be related with the nature of work in INPI register of patents and trademarks. Most of employees in the organization have technical profile and their activities are technical analyses based on law proceedings

Analysing the work values structure of the group (Table 2) is possible to identify that cognitive modality dominates the initials positions in the rank order. We can see that three initials positions are also probabily related to their experience as employee. On the other hand, the last positions in the rank order demonstrate values more interactives alligned wtih an leadership behavior based on consideration.

Thus, the results of this work indicates that is important to observe carefully the profile of work values and the leadership behavior in order to have good results in the changing process and in the MDP. Is also important to avoid motivational problems in the organizational enviroment.

Based on the answers we observe that these study shows important elements to manage the MDP and the humam resource policies. We also can see that some of them are alligned with the findings of the study developed in INPI - Managers Perception in a Changing Process in the Public Organization, presented in the 11th ISSOWV Conference (2008). Results showed that managers understand their role in the changing process but motivational aspects should be observed to allow a good fit between people and the new requirements to the organization.

Studies on leadership development, values, teamwork and changing process are important to support the human resource policies in the public administration. Other studies using validated instruments should be developed in order to attend the necessities of INPI.

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Chapter 10: Leadership and Trust

Leadership, Trust and Organizational Social Capital: the Role of Work Values

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Abstract

This work presents results from a study investigating interactions between social psychological phenomena represented by work values, trust, social capital and leadership, in organizations. Data were so far collected in 04 organizations in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, involving a total of 239 participants: 93 Managers and 146 Collaborators. The theoretical model assumes that values, shared among Managers and Collaborators, can mediate Collaborators' perceptions, in order to facilitate the identification of their Managers as Leaders. Research tools from two former investigation lines were employed, within the Action Research approach and consider a double-evaluation approach. Data were collected and analysed in this research. The inclusion of additional organizations will expand and improve comprehension of the questions under analysis.

Introduction

This work presents the latest results obtained so far from a current research project developed within the Work and Contemporaneity Nucleus from the Institute of Psychology of the Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. In this work, two existing research approaches are combined: 1. Investigates Managers' practices related to leadership, trust and organizational social capital; and 2. Research on work values, associated to the International Society for the Study of Work and Organizational Values – ISSWOV. Such work aims to broaden our knowledge on the emerging phenomena within the global economy setting and their impact on the contemporary organizational context. Today, in an era acknowledged for being hostile to collaboration, Managers - as formal leaders, are challenged to obtain results and ensure the survival of their organizations.

Specialists signal that excessive turbulence and uncertainty – even on the short term – have contributed to the damage of values and positions built and founded over long periods. Strong moral values, based on ethics and reciprocity, need commitment and development over a long term, are established generally after actual work experiences. For this reason Sennett (1999), identifies serious difficulties for character building and strengthening of modern individuals, as well as obstacles for healthy and productive social links. Social organizations of production are recognized nowadays as complex social systems, being constantly built and rebuilt in the symbolic sense, by their participants, through human exchanges and interactions in their internal and external environments. In this manner, to efficiently understand and manage the social psychological phenomena such as leadership, trust, social capital and work values, may represent, specially from a contemporary perspective, a highly strategic challenge for organizations and particularly for its Managers, among other reasons for the meaningful economic value that its implications may represent.

The theoretical model considered in this work assumes that shared or understood and respected values – between Managers and Collaborators, can ascertain trust relationships, building up favorable conditions for the perception of such Managers as leaders by their Collaborators. Within this environment, social organizational capital is nurtured, generating shared benefits.

Leadership, in this work, is understood as an experience felt by followers (Meindl, 1993). Therefore, its existence can only be verified through perceptions, actions or results obtained by followers. From this point of view, leaders and Collaborators represent informal aspects of relationships, above simple hierarchic subordination. Trust seems to be the underlying psychological factor for this social influence process, regarded as "the expectations that arises within a community of regular, honest and cooperative behavior based on commonly shared norms, on the part of other members of that community" (Fukuyama, 1996), or as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon the positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (Rousseau & Parks, 1993). Social capital is represented by the collective action ability observed in a group, generating benefits then shared among its members (Coleman, 1994), resulting from characteristics of social relationships in the organization that lead to the orientation to common objectives and which contribute to the success during collective actions (Leana & Van Buren, 1999). Social capital, as well as trust, depends on norms and shared values, and on the willingness to relegate individual goals for the group's benefit. In this context, reciprocity is thus a central point. To Rokeach **(**1973**)**, values are considered to be "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence." They would therefore be akin to personal standards, working as guiding criteria for actions, choices, justification and comparative analyses, attitudes and behavior. Tamayo & Schwartz (1993) state that values are defined as criteria or goals which go beyond specific situations, arranged by their importance and acting as an individual's life guiding principles. They are therefore, fundamental aspects and would work as perceptive tracks to capture and understand complex, diverse and dynamic social contexts.

In understanding such model, the quality of the relationships established within an organization would strongly influence the transformation of its potential resources, hypothetically available, into actual results. Leadership practices were taken as potential mediators for trust building, both at group and institutional levels, acting towards the construction of psychological foundations of cooperation and compromise, so important in a challenging context and in a extremely competitive and unstable environment in the globalized world. Studies and theoretical discussions undertaken by the authors on these matters guided the development of strategies and analytical tools for empirical research, employed up to now in 04 organizations in the city of Rio de Janeiro – Brazil, between 2006 and 2009, including 239 participants (93 Managers and 146 Collaborators). Each participating organization received their own results – as well as a comparative results table, for their own analysis and discussion. In the current work the discussion focus will be the overall result, obtained from consolidated results of the 04 organizations.

Methodology

The understanding of organizations as social realities, whose complex interactions are not always perceived clearly by its members, leads to a necessity to specify its characteristics and

vital phenomena, to promote a more conscious operation bearing in mind the difficulties of their working environment. To promote reflection about Management practices on the organizational everyday life, under the scope of themes such as leadership, trust, work values and social organizational capital, can prove extremely valuable in order to achieve collective results. Therefore, the adopted methodology was based on Lewin's Action Research approach, which favors and implement exchanges and mutual learning between formal/theoretical knowledge, stemming from the academy, and empirical/practical knowledge, derived from organizational participants' perceptions about their own reality.

On the *research* mode, one searches for the empirical field (organizations) to obtain knowledge in practical terms, which can, then, be disseminated to society in general. On the *action* mode, the obtained results are presented to and discussed with the research participants, to produce a shared knowledge, in order to contribute to organizational practices improvement.

The defined theoretical model assumes that values that underpin Managers and Collaborators relationship will influence Collaborators' perceptions of their Managers' practices, which can act as mediators for trust building, both at group and institutional levels, facilitating the construction of psychological foundations for cooperation and compromise, producing shared benefits.

Participants

As aforementioned, data were collected in four organizations: I. Multinational Organization; II. Exterior Commerce Organization; III. Logistic Organization; IV. Information Technology Organization. A total of 239 participants completed the research instruments: 93 Managers and 146 Collaborators. The participants are described in Table 1.

I. Multinational Organization – Organization 1

Large-size multinational organization of private capital, with operational center of activity based in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil for 5 years.

II. Exterior Commerce Organization – Organization 2

Middle-size organization of private capital, supplying technical equipment in Brazil for 14 years.

III. Logistic Organization – Organization 3

Middle-size organization of private capital, operating for 10 years.

IV. Information Technology Organization – Organization 4

Middle-size organization of Information Technology, operating since 2001.

Table 1. Description of participants

	Org. 1	Org. 2	Org. 3	Org. 4
Managers (*N*)	**22**	**16**	**44**	**11**
Age (years)	34,04 (6,36)	27,19 (3,62)	31,70 (9,30)	34(5,27)
Educational Attainment [a]	7 (0)	6 (0,97)	4,23 (1,27)	6,64(0,67)
Time in the organization (months)	21,05 (10,88)	49,69 (36,70)	23,20 (18,93)	10(8,97)
Collaborators (*N*)	**22**	**30**	**44**	**50**
Age (years)	23,5 (2,26)	24,87 (5,60)	24,89 (5,29)	27,56(2,98)
Educational Attainment [a]	5,50 (0,86)	5,07 (0,91)	3,09 (1,20)	5,96(0,73)
Time in the organization (months)	16,27 (10,48)	20,38 (22,30)	7,55 (14,82)	13,2(13,05)

M (SD) [a] 7-point education scale, Hollingshead (1975).

Measurements

Specific research instruments employed for data collection are discriminated bellow (Drummond, 2004; Elizur, 1984; Tchaicovsky & Elizur, 1990). Participation was on a voluntary basis. All participants completed an Informed Consent Form, as well as a Demographic Data Questionnaire.

Indicators

Manager Practices: These were considered to be capable of influencing Collaborators perception of formal hierarchy, thus affecting the group's response.

1) *Transparent communication* – qualitative and quantitative aspects, mainly related to credibility and transparence levels;
2) *Stimulus to collaboration* – cooperation and integration levels in work groups and between organization units;
3) *Protection* – against threats within the organizational environment; and
4) *Benevolence* – respect and consideration to Collaborators interests.

Collaborators Results:

1) *Behavior* – commitment to the group and the organization, extra-role requests, permanence in the organization;
2) *Attitudes* – indication of good organizational environment, job satisfaction, collaboration; and
3) *Performance* – achieving results and goals of the group and the organization.

Work Values:

1) *Instrumental Modality* – prizing instrumental or material aspects related or having direct and practical consequences to the individuals' life;
2) *Cognitive Modality* – prizing knowledge, rational, skills, availability; and
3) *Affective Modality* – prizing feelings and emotions.

Evaluation of Leadership Practices

Two inventories of Drummond (2004), to evaluate leadership practices were used: the Leadership Practices Inventory for Leaders (LPI-L); and the Leadership Practices Inventory for Collaborators (LPI-C). LPI-L assesses Managers' perceptions of their own leadership

practices and has four aforementioned indicators: Transparent Communication, Stimulus to Collaboration, Protection, and Benevolence. The scale ranges from 1 (low perception of indicator) to 7 (high perception of indicator). Leadership Practices Inventory for Collaborators (LPI-C) assesses Collaborators' perceptions of their Managers' practices. LPI-C has exactly the same structure of LPI-L. Items were rephrased to permit Collaborators to evaluate their Managers' practices.

Perceptions about Collaborators' Group

Two inventories of Drummond (2004), to evaluate perceptions of the Collaborators group were also used: Perceptions of the Collaborators' Group Inventory for Leaders (PGI-L) and Perceptions of the Collaborators' Group Inventory for Collaborators (PGI-C). All inventories are 14-items Likert-format scales. Managers and Collaborators were instructed to respond to each item on a 7-point rating scale ranging from Never (1) to Always (7). Perceptions of the Collaborators' Group Inventory for Leaders (PGI-L), assesses Managers' perceptions of their team and has three indicators: Behavior, Attitudes and Performance. The scale ranges from 1 (desirable indicator occurs rarely) to 7 (desirable indicator occurs frequently). Perceptions of the Collaborators' Group Inventory for Collaborators (PGI-C) assesses Collaborators' perceptions of their own group. PGI-C has exactly the same structure of PGI-L. Items were also rephrased to permit Collaborators to evaluate their own group.

Evaluation of Values

The Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ), of Tchaicovsky & Elizur (1990), was employed. It is composed of 24 items, each graded on a 6-point scale ranging from (1) "very important" to (6) "no importance". Items refer to the three outcomes modalities: affective, cognitive and instrumental. From the 24 items, five correspond to the affective modality, five to instrumental modality, and the last fourteen to cognitive modality. The intention is to evaluate the relative importance of work value modalities and there consequences on individuals' lives.

With the exception of the Informed Consent Form and the Demographic Data Questionnaire, Inventories and Questionnaires were given as detailed on Table 2.

Table 2. Evaluation system: Mutual Evaluation Approach

MANAGERS	COLLABORATORS
Self-evaluation of their own management practices; **Self-evaluation** about Manager's own work values.	**Evaluation** of Manager's practices**;** **Inference** about Manager's work values.
Evaluation of Group of Collaborators by Managers**;** **Inference** about the Collaborators' work values	**Self-evaluation** of Collaborators; **Self-evaluation** about Group Collaborators work values.

Procedures

After preliminary contacts, each organization Human Resources department promoted the research, encouraging voluntary contributions. The following steps were followed during the procedure: steps a) to d) were always followed. The remaining steps was optional, depending on each organization particular interest.

a) *Preliminary contact* – Meeting to align expectations between researchers and HR personnel, who after clearance from their Superiors were responsible for recruiting volunteers for the research;
b) *Data collection* – Organizations encouraged voluntary participation. Neither individual respondents nor their organizations will be identified. Managers and Collaborators completed the questionnaires separately. Before the study was applied, a brief explanation was given by one of the authors and an Informed Consent Form was obtained from the participants. After data analysis a report was written and presented to each organization's directors. Directors could then decide to explore and promote further discussions about results in a workshop, or not.
c) *Data analysis and Report generation* – Descriptive statistics was used to examine the socio-demographic data. The t-test was used to compare scores obtained from the two groups (Managers and Collaborators). All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 15.0 for Windows.
d) *Report discussion* – After the report generation, a discussion with the Human Resources (HR) department, was performed in order to provide answers to any existing queries.
e) *Management/Head Office Workshop* – Presentation and discussion of obtained results, examined under the theoretical background adopted on the research, as well as from the participants' perspective.

Results

Table 3 shows the results for each organization. Results in bold are average scores found to be significantly different ($p<0.05$), between Managers and their respective working groups. It can be seen that the majority of significantly different scores was found in the *Leadership Practices Inventory*. Due to the logic of the adopted theoretical model, these results indicate difficulties in Collaborators' perception of their Managers as leaders.

Table 3. Consolidated Results for the 04 Organizations

	Organization 1		Organization 2		Organization 3		Organization 4	
	M	C	M	C	M	C	M	C
Leadership Practices Inventory (Total)	5,09	5,80	5,80	5,45	**5,99**	**5,42**	**5,77**	**5,29**
Transparent Communication	**5,19**	**5,87**	5,87	5,87	6,10	5,77	**5,85**	**5,36**
Stimulus to Collaboration	5,12	5,90	5,90	5,56	**6,08**	**5,33**	**5,80**	**5,27**
Protection	4,79	5,08	5,08	4,60	5,50	5,07	5,48	5,18
Benevolence	5,27	6,38	6,38	5,81	**6,31**	**5,52**	**5,94**	**5,35**
Perceptions of the Group Inventory (Total)	5,03	5,46	5,46	5,64	5,18	4,87	5,60	5,52
Behaviors	5,10	5,48	5,48	5,55	5,05	4,65	5,80	5,54
Attitudes	5,07	5,51	5,51	5,42	**5,12**	**4,48**	5,50	5,45
Performance	4,90	5,41	**5,41**	**5,97**	5,36	5,50	5,50	5,56
Perceptions of Work Values (Total)	4,63	4,39	**1,75**	**1,54**	**1,76**	**1,44**	1,86	1,60
Cognitive Modality	4,71	4,79	1,79	1,61	1,79	1,51	1,85	1,70
Affective Modality	4,68	4,37	1,56	1,40	1,66	1,38	**1,96**	**1,60**
Instrumental Modality	4,49	4,00	**1,84**	**1,49**	**1,84**	**1,43**	1,76	1,54

M – Managers; C – Collaborators. Results in bold were significantly different ($p < .05$)

Table 4 shows the combined results comparing Managers and Collaborators perceptions, obtained in the 04 participating organizations. As can be observed, Managers themselves evaluated Managers' practices, used as criteria, more positively than Collaborators did. The difference was statistically very significant (p<.01), except for the *Protection* indicator.

Table 4. Comparison of Managers and Collaborators evaluations

	Managers	**Collaborators**	**t***
Leadership Practices Inventory (Total)	**5,72**	**5,26**	**3,56****
Transparent Communication	5,82	5,47	**2,60****
Stimulus to Collaboration	5,79	5,26	**3,58****
Protection	5,26	4,91	1,84
Benevolence	6,03	5,41	**4,25****
Perceptions of the Group Inventory (Total)	**5,24**	**5,27**	**-0,22**
Behaviors	5,22	5,19	0,21
Attitudes	5,22	5,05	1,18
Performance	5,28	5,58	-2,03
Perceptions of Work Values (Total)	**1,77**	**1,52**	**2,56**
Cognitive Modality	1,80	1,60	1,93
Affective Modality	1,65	1,45	1,94
Instrumental Modality	1,86	1,51	3,51**

Student's T test. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

It is interesting to note that in relation to results based on the Collaborators group, even though statistically significant differences could not be established, Managers evaluated their Collaborators more positively than Collaborators evaluated themselves, except in relation to the *Performance* indicator, which was evaluated more positively by Collaborators. The *Affective Modality* of Work Values presented the highest score for both groups. In relation to the *Instrumental Modality*, results showed a very significant difference (p<.01) between the two groups, with more importance given by the Collaborators group. It is worth pointing out that on the instruments about Leadership Practices of Managers and Perceptions about the Collaborators, higher scores represent better results. On the contrary, on the Questionnaire about Work Values, low scores are regarded as more relevant.

Discussion

Results from the 04 organizations show that Managers' evaluations of their own practices were - with the exception of the indicator *Protection*, significantly more positive (p<0.01) than Collaborators' perceptions. Furthermore, Managers from the 04 organizations agreed also in relation to perceptions about Collaborators' groups, except for the indicator *Performance*, about which Collaborators gave more positive evaluations regarding their own results, against Managers'evaluation of the same item. It can be seen that results obtained through the use of the *Leadership Practices Inventory* presented the highest incidence of significantly different scores between the two groups considered (Managers and Collaborators). In relation to Work Values, it can be seen that, although the *Affective*

Modality presented the highest scores for both groups - being therefore perceived as of greater importance, the *Instrumental Modality* presented discrepancies between the two groups, given that a greater level of importance was given by the Collaborators group. It seems possible that the grading of the *Instrumental Modality* is influencing Collaborators evaluation of their own results. If so, feelings of injustice and misunderstanding may be taking place in their everyday work life, since Managers did not reciprocate such perceptions.

Conclusions

According to the adopted methodology (Action Research), workshops are prepared for a critical presentation and results discussion, when requested by the organization Head Office. In this way, it is possible to not only talk about the identified critical points as well as discuss their alternatives and solutions. This allows the produced data to become relevant, motivating change that is beneficial not only for research purposes but also for participants' daily lives. Two of the four organizations involved during the research have opted for participate in further discussion about their results, applying for several workshops with the researchers. The two other did not opt to engage in further discussion, either because of alleged operational reasons or for other reasons (among which may possibly be a reluctance to receive feedback, for example).

Results obtained in the empirical field up to now point strongly to the prominent role of Work Values when taken in the context of leadership, trust and social capital generation in an organizational environment. Results also point to Work Values marked importance in face of hostile conditions to collaboration, increased by the globalized economic setting. Trust seems to be fundamental to the social influence characteristic of leadership and for social capital generation, being supported by shared and/or understood values. The scarcity or damaging of these facilitating conditions have increasingly been perceived in present times, raising the question of *whether*, and *how* organization Managers could promote them, generating collective benefits. The analysis of the results obtained through this work up to the moment allows the inference, based on the adopted theoretical frame, that participating Managers, on average, are not perceived as leaders by their Collaborators. This may be due Managers' lack of understanding about the nature and social psychological essence of leadership (Drummond, 2007; Meidl, 1993). In this sense, actions towards the developing of Managers' skills in relation to leadership, as well as to the role of Work Values, become important, considering their implications when striving to achieve better results.

Analysis of pertinent literature and of data from this empirical research will certainly contribute to the improvement of theoretical and practical knowledge about organizations in our specific social context, principally in relation to the development of strategies and tools for intervention on the organizational field. Likewise, contributions to the organizational development could be seen through interactions during the research application, particularly during the time of results delivery and discussion. As once envisage by Lewin (1946, 1965), Action Research can represent the connecting bridge between the academical theory and the practical knowledge, providing ways for long-lasting organizational change. Such strategy is centrally connected to the production of knowledge supported by interactions within its body, conducive of meaningful significance attribution by its players, generating knowledge about the group, from the group and for the group/organization, intermediated through the facilitator-researcher performance. The results here presented merit further studies in the

area, with the inclusion of more organizations, which will certainly allow the expansion, comprehension and knowledge improvement of the explored topics.

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Does Trust Bind During Change?

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Abstract

The objective of the present study was to explore the impact of different variables such as demographics on the trust relationships in South African organisations. A trust questionnaire was administered to a convenience sample of 484 respondents in all economic sectors. Parametric and non-parametric analyses were used to determine significant differences between economic sectors and sample periods. Significant differences were found for the economic sectors – and, specifically, between government participants and other sectors – for the dimensions of change, organisational trust and for specific items.

Introduction

Researchers and management are all trying to analyse and understand the impact of the current economic crisis on their business, employee commitment, engagement and trust. Galagan (2009) maintains that, according to the 2009 Edelman Trust Barometer, trust in US corporations is at an all-time low. In 2009, only 39 percent of respondents had said they trusted businesses to do the right thing. A year earlier, 58 percent had agreed with that statement. According to Hays (2010), if the current crisis continues, there is a risk of a long, ugly process of de-development: higher levels of corruption and tax evasion and an increasingly fractured public sphere, in which both public consensus and reform become all but impossible.

Culbert (2010) notes that a trusting and "straight-talk" relationship, a true team, is the most effective and efficient management tool any manager potentially has. According to Sharkie (2008) trust is important in a changing environment, while Stompka (1999) argues that trusting becomes a crucial strategy for dealing with an uncertain and uncontrollable future. Weick (2001) also supports this argument and claims that unexpected problems that occur in difficult situations can only be handled by an organisation that places high importance on trust. The key question is whether trust, once broken, can be restored. Is trust a renewable resource in a work relationship or in an organisation? Or it is like glass – once shattered, it is never the same again? (Galagan, 2009). Or is the trust construct stable, even during times of economic recession?

Salomon and Robinson (2008) conducted a longitudinal study involving 88 retail stores. Their study provided some support for the hypothesised direction of causality that employees' belief they are trusted by management enhances organisational performance. Their study provided empirical support for the hypothesised direction of causality, that is, that collectively felt that trust leads to higher sales rather than the reverse (Salomon & Robinson, 2008, p. 598). In a research study, Schoorman *et al.* (2007) emphasised the importance of future research to establish more specifically the process and timeframes in which each of the variables contributes to trust. They concluded their article by noting that

the time issues which they had addressed in their 1995 paper had still not received the attention they had expected.

In a study in 2009, Von der Ohe and Martins (in press) explored the significance between two sample time periods for the various dimensions of trust in South African organisations in different economic sectors. The latter were investigated because the different sectors were differentially influenced by the economic crisis (Legassick, 2009). No significant differences were noted between the two time periods (the first and second halves of 2008), although this was during the global economic crisis, which the ordinary citizen in South Africa also felt (Ross, 2009).

The focus of this article will be to further investigate the impact of time on the dimension of trust.

The Trust Construct

According to Arrow (1974), trust is an important lubricant of a social system. It is extremely efficient in that trust means that people can rely on what other people promise. Researchers such as Mayer *et al.* (1995), posit that a party decides whether to trust the other (the trustee) on the basis of expectations about the other party's future behaviour, as determined by the perceived trustworthiness of the trustee. Bäckstrőm (2008*,* p. 21) defines trust as follows: "Trust concerns one party's confidence in an exchange partner."

According to Reina and Reina (1999*,* p. 11), trust is "a relationship of mutual confidence in contractual performance, honest communication, expected competence, and a capacity for unguarded interaction".

Kreitner and Kinicki (1995*,* p. 342) define trust as "a reciprocal faith in others' intentions and behaviour". Shaw (1997, p. 21) views it as "the belief that those on whom we depend will meet our expectations of them", while Robbins (1996*,* p. 357) defines it as the "characteristic of high-performance teams where members believe in the integrity, character, and ability of each other". According to Lyman (2003, p. 24), trust is "the critical factor that supports effective communication, an ability to collaborate across departments and hierarchies, the willingness to seek fair resolutions to difficult situations, and the overall ability of employees to have confidence in management's vision for the future".

Butler (1991), Castelfranchi and Falcone (1998), Du Plessis (2006), Lau, Lam and Salamon (2008), Mayer *et al.* (1995) and others have examined the components of trust. In 1997, an unpublished report produced by the Centre for Industrial and Organisational Psychology at the University of South Africa (Martins, Watkins, Von der Ohe & De Beer, 1997) led to the assumption that trust in companies is created by personality factors and managerial practices. The personality factors are agreeableness, conscientiousness, resourcefulness, emotional stability and extraversion; the managerial practices are information sharing, work support, credibility and team management.

The research by Martins *et al.* (1997) focused on determining a relationship between personality, managerial practices and trust at generic level, but did not empirically address the specific aspects of personality and managerial practices that are at the core of the positive relationship found with trust. Martins (2000) subsequently developed a comprehensive model that defines the specific personality attributes or characteristics of the trust relationship, also taking into account specific components of managers' behaviour (Table 1: Summary of the elements in a relationship of trust – is available on request).

Taking cognisance of the above for the purposes of this study, the authors restricted the role and influence of trust to the field of industrial psychology and, specifically, to the employer-employee relationship. They further defined trust as the expressed belief in the positive intent and commitment to mutual gain of all parties involved in the relationship.

Trust is defined as the process in which a trustor relies on a trustee (a person or group of people) to act according to specific expectations that are important to the trustor, without taking advantage of the trustor's vulnerability (Martins, 2002). This definition provides the foundation for this study because it supports both the model of trust and the questionnaire used in this follow-up study.

Impact of demographics

According to Lau *et al.* (2008), relatively few researchers have examined the effect of relational demographics in manager-employee dyads. Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) found that differences in education, gender and race between members of supervisor-subordinate dyads were related to increased role ambiguity, unfavourable performance evaluations and a lower level of attraction on the part of managers to their corresponding subordinates. In a study, Hay (2002), came to the conclusion that the differences in trust in different relationships presented a strong argument for the study of trust at a number of different levels.

In his research, Büssing (2002) found that it is characteristic for the new type of highly qualified and flexible employee to experience a loose relationship between personal trust in the supervisor/organisation and identification with his or her job and work. Den Hartog, Shippers and Koopman (2002) found that employees at lower levels often do not have enough discretion or resources to pursue visions that deviate significantly from basic organisational goals or those proposed by higher management. This was confirmed by Bews and Uys (2002), who found that more respondents trust their immediate supervisors rather than top management. They also found that employees at higher job levels have more trust in their direct supervisors than those at lower job levels.

Du Plessis (2006*,* p. 31) explains that where distrust exists, say, between departments or areas in a business, it is likely that there will be pockets of knowledge in the organisation that will not be integrated or free flowing because knowledge is not shared by the individuals working in these pockets.

Job levels, age, differences in education, gender and race appear to have an impact on trust relationships. Although the above discussion shows that demographics appear to have an impact on trust and the way it is perceived, Bews and Uys (2002) concluded that more empirical research is needed before a clear picture and understanding can emerge. The focus of the current study is to investigate the impact of demographics such as job level, industry and sample periods on trust levels of employees.

Based on this study, and in accordance with the brief discussion above of the trust construct and demographical impact, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis:

There is a significant relationship between the dimensions of trust and the economic sector for the three time periods.

Research method

Research participants

The trust questionnaire, consisting of the three biographical questions, was completed by post graduate students over three time periods, namely the first half of 2008, the second half of 2008 and during 2009. More than 90% of the participants were part-time students and working full time in various economic sections (Table 2: Descriptive statistics – is available on request).

Measuring instrument

The questionnaire ultimately consisted of sections covering managerial practices, trust relationships, organisational trust and, lastly, a section that measured any changes that have occurred.

The managerial practices section measured the following managerial dimensions, which are defined in Martins (2002): credibility, team management, information sharing and work support. The trust relationship dimension in the questionnaire was measured by five questions dealing with various aspects of dyadic trust between employees and their immediate supervisors. The organisational trust dimension focuses on the trust relationship between top management, the immediate manager and colleagues. In addition to the above dimensions, an additional section was added to the questionnaire to measure participants' satisfaction with changes that had occurred in their organisations.

Results

Item and reliability analysis

The reliability of the questionnaire was shown to be highly satisfactory, with alpha coefficients ranging between 0.82 and 0.95 for the five-factor model of personality characteristics as well as managerial practices (Von der Ohe & Martins, 2010). Table 3 indicates the results for 2008 and 2009. (Table 3: Reliability of coefficient of constructs – is available on request).

The internal consistency reliabilities of these constructs, as well as the dimensions of change and organisational trust, were calculated. The Cronbach alpha coefficients are depicted in table 3.

The results of all ten dimensions for both periods were above 0.8. This is typically what is expected for an established questionnaire. According to Nunnally (1967), the Cronbach alpha scores for an established scale should be at least above 0.7. The overall results of the seven dimensions are displayed in table 4 and the results per time period indicated in table 5(Both tables are available on request).

Analysis of variance (Anova)

All the items in the trust questionnaire required the respondent to respond to a five-point Likert scale, where all the dimensions were scored in such a way that a low score indicated nonacceptance or distrust, while a high score indicated acceptance or high levels of trust. The biographical groups, such as economic sector, were regarded as independent variables. The

dependent variables were the seven trust dimensions. The results of the Anova are indicated in tables 6 to 7.

G-graphs were compiled and Levene's test used to determine whether the results were distributed normally. Since not all of these results fulfilled the assumptions of normality, it was deemed expedient to use nonparametric statistics for further analysis. The first analysis focused on any significant differences between the four economic sectors for the three time periods.

The dimensions that showed significant differences for the different sectors were as follows: change (government and primary) and organisational trust (government and education).

A more detailed analysis was then conducted on item level to determine whether there were any significant differences by item for the various sectors for the three time periods. These results are provided in table 7.

The results indicated significant differences for all five economic sectors, but mostly for different items. The exception was for the item "I trust top management", which showed significant differences for the following three sectors: education, government and services.

In all three instances, the means of the item ("I trust top management") were the lowest in the second period, but then increased again in 2009. This was typically a tendency that occurred for most of the items displayed in table 7. The only exceptions were for education, where both items were higher in the second and third time periods than in the first time period.

Discussion

This study should be viewed as part of ongoing research to understand the impact of demographics and time on trust relationships.

The results of the current study make several contributions. Firstly, concerning the time dimension for the different sectors, the findings indicate significant differences in the primary, government and educational sectors for the dimensions of change and organisational trust. The more detailed analysis of the items shows 12 instances in which significant differences emerged for the sectors between the three time periods. In most instances, the significant differences were for the dimensions of change and organisational trust. Table 7 indicates that in most instances, the results of the items decreased during the second period and then increased again during the third period. The reasons for this could be the positive economic climate created in South Africa with 2010 World Cup expectations.

A second reason could be that the global economic meltdown has not fully hit South Africa, because South Africans have been somewhat protected by residual exchange controls (Ross, 2009). Secondly, the ranking of the times shows the highest levels of trust were between colleagues and employees and their immediate managers, while the lowest level of trust was between employees and top management. According to Shaw (1997), to succeed, businesses require two things – a winning competitive strategy and superb organisational execution. Distrust is the enemy of both. Ryan and Oestreich (1998) contend that a cycle of mistrust is usually created between employee and employer, and this can lead to a continuous cycle which drives self-protective behaviour in a self-reinforcing manner, which captures both parties in a snowball effect of mistrust.

Note: The Reference List as well as Tables 1 to 7 are not included due to the limited space but are all available on request.

Looking at the organization's "backstage": Contributions to political leadership

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Abstract

Leadership has been an active area of scientific investigation with scholars developing different perspectives on antecedents, processes and outcomes. Conspicuous in its absence has been a conceptualization of leadership from a political perspective. The objective of this investigation was to understand the political leadership in organizations specificities. In an effort to address this need, we developed an integrative theoretical model of political leadership which gathers number of variables that have been neglected so far, operationalized by 992 quests application. The variables contemplated on the analysis model are linked to antecedents of leaders political behavior (power motives, machiavellianism and political ability), leaders political behaviors (soft and hard political behaviors), to the political behavior implications of to the leaders' political behaviors' consequences towards the attitude of workers on organizations (organizational satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational trust and organizational cynicism) and verifying the intromissions of variables moderator of the relationships drawn (leaders personal reputation and political climate). The implications for a political theory of leadership are discussed, as are directions for future research.

Introduction

Although leadership investigation has become for the last years an election topic with major relevance on organizational studies (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 2006) and accepting peacefully the general idea that organizations are free land for politics and power maneuvers (Mintzberg, 1983), knowing that decisions that came abroad from that "boiling can" are not always pursuing the common welfare (Kanter, 1979; Drory and Beatty, 1991; Ferris and King, 1991), all these acceptances run against a kind of "fear" from the academy scholars on approaching the political leaderships singularities on organizations. Block stated that,

> "Politics in organizations is like sex was in 1950s - we knew it was going on, but nobody would really tell us about it. The same with politics - we know is woven in the fabric of our work, but to get reliable information about it is next to impossible" (Block, 1987: 5).

Similarly, House and Adytya (1997) tried to "wake up" the academy contended that traditional theories and studies of leadership have labored under implicit assumptions of rationality and that research is needed on how political processes resonate with leadership

phenomena. More recently, Ammeter *et al* (2002) initiated decisive steps in "Toward a political theory of leadership" proposing a working model that specifies antecedents, consequences, mediators and moderators, and developing some importance directions of future research in testing the model.

Adopting a perspective that view and think organizational politic as an inevitability of organizational behavior and inherently necessary component of organizational functioning (Pfeffer, 1991; Ferris e Judge, 1991), and guided, mainly for these questions: What's the profile and singularities of today's political leaders on organizations? What's the real impact of political leadership on workers organizational attitudes? Which organizational and individual variables could act as moderators' agents between political behaviors' from leaders and its effects on their workers? This present work of investigation tries to contribute and make an approach to the political leadership on organizations. For such, and listening the literature "callings" on this matter (Ammeter *et al*, 2002; Vigoda, 2003; Ammeter *et al*, 2004; Vigoda e Drory, 2006; Vigoda e Dryzin, 2006), has been established a theoretical integrated model which joins a number of variables neglected so far such as the antecedents of the leader's political behaviors' (Power Motives – PM and Machiavellianism - M), and leaders politic behaviors' (soft – SPB and hard - HPB political behaviors') to the leaders' political behaviors' consequences towards the attitude of workers on organizations (Organizational Satisfaction - OS, Organizational Commitment - OC; Organizational Trust - OT; and Organizational Cynicism - OCin) and verifying the intromissions of mediating variables (Political Ability - PA) and variables moderator of the relationships drawn (Personal Reputation - PR and Political Climate - PC), operationalized by quests application on a set of 992 participants.

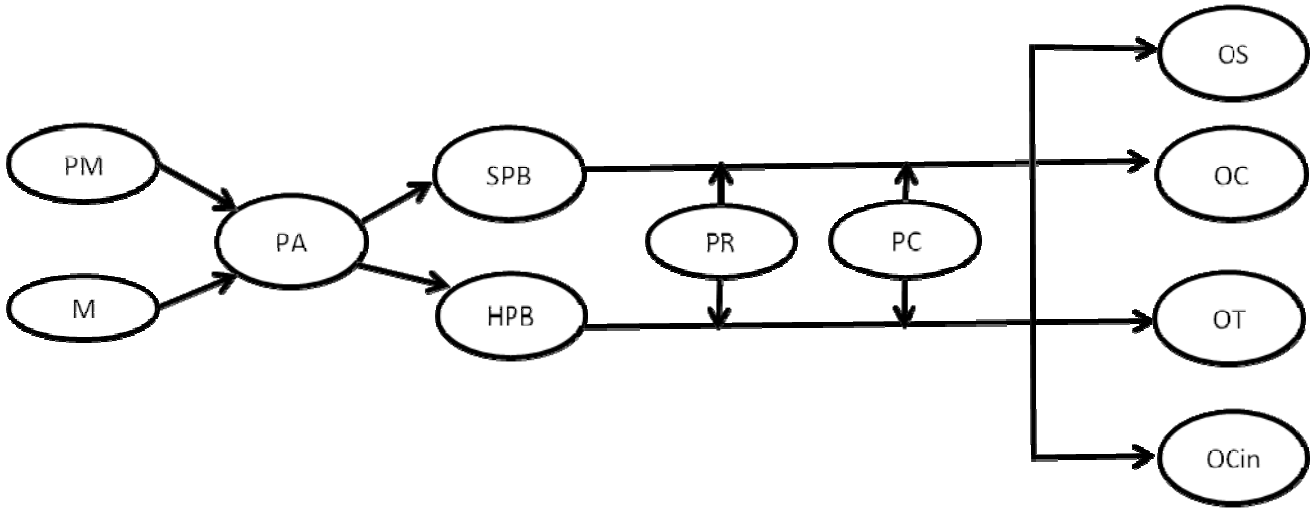

Figure 1. Model of political leadership in organizations

Methods

Participants

Participants were employees of a large public organization. Approximately 1000 questionnaires were distributed, and 998 returned. Of those returned, 6 questionnaires were not sufficiently completed to include in the analyses, resulting in a sample size of N=992.

Measures

Antecedents of leaders political behaviors: Power Motive (Rego e Carvalho, 2002), Machiavellianism (Christie e Geis, 1970) and Political Ability (Ferris *et al*., 2005). Leader's political behaviors: Soft and Hard Political Behavior (Yukl e Falbe, 1990). Implication of leader's political behavior: Organizational Satisfaction (Lima, Vala e Monteiro, 1995), Organizational Commitment (Meyer e Allen, 1991), Organizational Trust (Cummings e Bromiley, 1996) and Organizational Cynicism (Wanous, Reichers e Austin, 1994). Moderation variable relationship: Political Climate (Vigoda e Cohen, 2002) and Personnel Reputation (Ferris *et al*. 2003). Each item was rated on a six-point summated Likert scale, ranging from 1. Strongly disagree; 6. Strongly agree. Internal consistency estimates to all subscales exceeds 0, 70 Nunnally (1978) baseline.

Procedure

Paper-based questionnaires with cover letters were distributed to employees at the place of employment. Sealable return envelops absent of any identifying information were provided with questionnaires to maintain confidentiality. Employees were asked to read the cover letter, complete the questionnaire, and return them via inter-office mail where they would be collected at the company's headquarters. The cover letter asked respondents to complete the questionnaires and disclosed the purpose of the study, its importance, and that participation was voluntary.

Data analysis

To analyze the theoretical model we resorted to Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) techniques. Model fit was studied using: Comparative Fit Index – CFI; Goodness of Fit Index – GFI; Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index – AGFI (Marsh, Hau e Wen, 2004); and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation – RMSEA (Browne e Cudeck, 1993). To investigate the mediation and moderate effects we applied the Sobel (Baron e Kenny, 1986) and Interactions analysis (Muller, Judd e Yzerbyt, 2005), respectively.

Results

Antecedents of political behavior

Table 1 provides the parameter estimate, standard errors, critical reason and significance. Analyzing the antecedents of political behavior - power motives and machiavellianism, we founded positive $\beta\varepsilon\tau\alpha$ scores between 0,15 and 0,32 (p<0,001). So, we can assure that power motives and machiavellianism predict leader's soft and hard political behavior. Hypothesis 1a and 1b were supported: leader's power motives are positively related with leader's political

behavior; leader's machiavellianism are positively related with leader's political behavior, respectively.

Table 1. Parameter estimates, standard deviations, critical reason and significance.

PATHS			ESTIMATE (β)	*STANDARD ERRORS*	*CRITICAL REASON*	*P*
PA	<---	P	0,33	0,22	3,623	***
PA	<---	M	0,39	0,16	8,686	***
SPB	<---	PA	0,48	0,30	6,957	***
HPH	<---	PA	0,44	0,53	9,170	***
SPB	<---	P	0,32	0,27	6,275	***
HPB	<---	P	0,15	0,38	2,391	***
SPB	<---	M	0,24	0,30	13,565	***
HPB	<---	M	0,21	0,36	12,892	***
OS	<---	SPB	0,65	0,47	6,288	***
OS	<---	HPB	0,18	0,44	5,786	***
OC	<---	SPB	0,51	0,45	3,623	***
OC	<---	HPB	0,13	0,23	6,957	***
OT	<---	SPB	0,24	0,34	7,792	***
OT	<---	HPB	0,10	0,23	6,283	***
OCin	<---	SPB	-0,09	0,36	-10,606	***
OCin	<---	HPB	0,20	0,32	6,957	***

***p<0,001

Mediation: the political ability role

Analyzing the mediation effects (Baron e Kenny, 1986) of political ability in the relationship: leader's power motives *vs* leader's soft political behavior; leader's power motives vs leader's hard political behavior; leader's machiavellianism vs leader's soft political behavior; and leader's machiavellianism vs leader's hard political behavior, we concluded that political ability mediate all the presented relationship (z_{Sobel} = 39,10, p <0,001; $z_{Sobe\ l}$= 47,43; p < 0,001; z_{Sobel}=27,62, p < 0,001; z_{Sobel}= 18, 67, p < 0,001; respectively). The stronger mediational effects occurred between leader's power motives and leader's soft political behavior (β = 0,16); and in leader's power motives and leader's hard political behavior (β = 0,11). The results obtained with predictor machiavellianism were: leader's soft political behavior β= 0,06; leader's hard political behavior β= 0,03. Hypothesis 2a, 2b, 2c and 2d were supported, respectively. Leader's political ability mediates the relationship between leader's power motive and leader's soft political behavior; Leader's political ability mediates the relationship between leader's power motive and leader's hard political behavior; Leader's political ability mediates the relationship between leader's machiavellianism and leader's soft political behavior; Leader's political ability mediates the relationship between leader's machiavellianism and leader's political behavior.

Consequences of political behavior

As we can see in table 1, workers react differently to leaders' political behaviors. The soft version of leader's political behavior sets a positive impact over organizational satisfaction (β= 0,65, z=6,29,p<0,001), organizational commitment (β= 0,51, z=3,62,p<0,001) and organizational trust (β= 0,24, z=7,79,p<0,001), while the hard version has a stronger impact over organizational cynicism (β= 0,20, z=6,95,p<0,001). Hypothesis 3a, 3b, 3c and 3d were supported, respectively: Leader's soft political behaviors (when face to face with hard political behaviors) have a categorical impact on workers' organizational satisfaction; Leader's soft political behaviors (when face to face with hard political behaviors) have a categorical impact on workers' organizational commitment; Leader's soft political behaviors (when face to face with hard political behaviors) have a categorical impact on workers' organizational trust; Leader's hard political behaviors (when face to face with soft political behaviors) have a categorical impact on workers' organizational cynicism.

Moderations: the personnel reputation and organizational political climate role

Analyzing the interaction effects (Muller, Judd e Yzerbyt, 2005), we founded that leader's personnel reputation merely loads an important moderator effect amongst leader's political behavior (soft and hard) and cynical attitudes (p=0,001) which workers develop towards the organization. Thus, on lower personal reputation's conditions, leader's soft political behaviors are the steering wheel of bigger organizational cynicism (β = 0,18, t= 2,33, p < 0,005), and on higher personal reputation's conditions, leader's soft political behavior s are a deterrent element of organizational cynicism (β = -0,22, t = -6,42, p < 0,001). On the other hand, on lower personal reputation's conditions, leader's hard political behaviors are conducting wire a greater organizational cynicism (β= 0,67, t= 19,39, p < 0,005) and on higher personal reputation's conditions, leader's hard political behavior s are a discouraging element of organizational cynicism (β= -0,86, t = -24,89, p < 0,001). Hypothesis 4d was supported: Personnel reputation moderate the relation between soft and hard political behavior and organizational cynicism. We haven't obtained confirmation for hypothesis 4a, 4b and 4c which hypothesized that personnel reputation moderate the relation between soft and hard political behavior and organizational satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational trust, respectively.

The interaction effects (Muller, Judd e Yzerbyt, 2005) obtained with political climate showed that variable doesn't moderate any hypothesized relationship.

Goodness of fit

All the fit indices showed that the model's adjustment is quite suitable to explain the variable relations: $\chi 2(9, 33038) = 266,49$, p < 0,001; CFI = 1,00; GFI = 1,00; AGFI = 0,99; RMSEA = 0,03; AIC = 304,49.

Conclusions

In the last few years emerged strong appeals from organizational literature for the understanding and developing of political leadership specificities in organizations (House e Aditya, 1997; Ammeter *et al*., 2002). In this investigation we attempted these appeals, demonstrating that leader's power motives, machiavellianism and political ability were linked

to leader's political behaviors, and presenting a less blurred portrait and a balanced reading of political arena and, specially, from political leadership on organizations showing that leader's political actions are not, invariably, an activity which only concentrates dysfunctional effects and impacts amongst workers and organizations, showing what behaviors and under which conditions those actions can assume the functionality level. This investigation opens space to a few intervention areas within manager's formation and organizational leaders might potentiate, such as the management of personal reputation.

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Leadership Cultural Values and Teacher Involvement in Change: A 10-Country Study of Teachers' Perceptions

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Abstract

This study explores leadership values as predictors of teacher involvement in 10 countries (Australia, Canada, China, Hungary, Israel, Japan, The Netherlands, Singapore, South Africa and the US). Leadership values were adopted from the GLOBE (House et al., 2004) project. Teacher involvement was measured by teachers' preferred involvement in decision-making and teachers' perceptions of principals' support of such involvement. Results showed that country affiliation significantly and considerably explained the two indicators of teacher involvement. The values self-protectiveness (reversed) and humane orientation predicted teachers' preferred involvement, while charisma (reversed), team orientation, participation and humane-orientation values were related to teachers' perceptions of principals' support. The study results have implications both to the theory of teacher involvement and to leadership development practice.

Introduction

Teacher involvement in School Change

Every organizational change involves the need to make short and long-range organizational decisions. Employee involvement in decision making refers to the degree to which employees share influence in the decision-making process in concert with their superiors (Koopman & Wierdsma, 1998; Hoy & Tarter, 1993). In schools, shared decisions typically range from administrative to pedagogical domains, affecting various facets of school issues and teachers' work lives. Teacher involvement is viewed as a way to encourage teachers' active participation in issues extending beyond the classroom walls. To be effective, teacher involvement must be based on sincere intentions, where teachers can be sure that their decisions will truly affect school outcomes, and that their involvement will be supported by their principals (Bogler, 2005). Under such conditions teachers' identification with the organization's goals and values will be strengthened (Somech, 2002).

There is ample evidence in the organizational literature that participation in decision-making is a major promoter of change, often enhancing organizational effectiveness. Studies consistently show that teachers' involvement in decision-making has a positive impact on their work attitudes. Somech and Bogler (2002) found that teachers' participation in school decisions increased their organizational commitment and citizenship attitude. Participation and involvement tend to facilitate the process of implementation through increased commitment of those involved to the outcomes of their decisions. Other positive results of participative decision-making are job satisfaction and the acquisition of new skills by teachers (Martin & Kragler, 1999).

Teacher empowerment may take place when school administrators are ready to share power and support teacher involvement (Blasé & Blasé, 2001). Hence, school administrators, and especially principals, play a pivotal role in introducing teacher participation to school decision-making. In addition to creating structural means for involvement (e.g., steering committees, administrative roles for teachers), principals also influence teachers' willingness to participate by the quality of principal-teacher relationships (Smylie, 1992). It follows that in order to empower teachers and enlist them in school decision-making, leaders need to share their leadership prerogatives with subordinate teachers (Blasé, Blasé, Anderson, & Dungan, 1995).

One of the largest studies on teacher involvement in which both principals and teachers played a key role has been conducted by the Consortium for Cross-Cultural Research in Education (CCCRE[1]). In a multi-country study on teacher response to change (Poppleton and Williamson, 2004), teacher involvement emerged as a major predictor of teachers' acceptance of change and of teachers' willingness to participate in future changes. Results of this study showed also that teachers tended to be more skill-flexible (namely, employing various skills and work methods) when they had a larger role in change, and when the change was perceived as having positive effect on their work lives (Rosenblatt, 2004). The present study, also initiated by the CCCRE, was aimed at extending this line of research by focussing on teachers' and principals' perceptions of teachers' involvement in change (Menlo et al., 2007).

Leadership cultural Values as determinants of Teacher Involvement

Because employee involvement is inherently dependent on leaders' support of such involvement, one important set of variables to examine are societal values in regard to leadership. If people believe that leaders should be participative and inclusive in order to lead a society to success and happiness, they would expect leaders to involve their subordinates in decision making. Consequently, employees in such societies would express high wish to be involved in decisions, and perceive their immediate managers as highly supportive of employee involvement. However, in societies where successful leaders are expected to be autocratic and non-inclusive, employees' expectations of their managers' support in involvement would be relatively low.

This conceptualization is largely supported in empirical research in the area of human resource management. Studies such as those conducted by Aycan (2005) show that leadership values predict various human resource practices, such as recruitment, job analysis, compensation and training. In another study where leadership values were directly linked to employee participation (Aycan, Kanungo, Mendonca, Yu, Deller, Stahl, & Kushid, 2000), the extent to which managerial cultural values in ten countries predicted the human resource practice of employee participation were examined. Their sample consisted of public and private sector employees in Canada, China, Germany, India, Israel, Romania, Russia, Pakistan, Turkey and the USA (four of which were also part of the present study). Results of their study showed that management belief in employee participation was negatively correlated to the cultural value of fatalism, and positively correlated with paternalism. Interestingly, employee participation in their study was not correlated to general societal cultural values (Hofstede, 1996), such as power distance (the degree to which a society accepts differences in power between its members).

[1] The CCCRE is a Consortium affiliated with the American Education Research Association (AERA), devoted for the study of teachers work around the world. Members of this Consortium come from a variety of countries.

Extrapolating from these findings, we argue that societal leadership values also play a critical role in the degree to which employees are allowed or invited to be involved in decision-making. This is because these values often deal with bi-partisan relationships, power distribution and hierarchy among people. When these values reflect democratic relationship at work, we may expect them to explain the degree and level of employee involvement.

Perhaps the largest cross-culture study on leadership and management in recent years is the GLOBE project – an ambitious study of over 50 countries on the relationships between national values, leadership values and managerial practices (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004), where the authors advanced the Implicit Leadership Theory. The theory states that individuals hold beliefs, convictions and assumptions that concern attributes of leadership such as charisma, team orientation, participation, humane orientation, and self-protectiveness (among others). When these perceptions are aggregated to the society level they reflect the culturally-endorsed leadership theory in a given society. Based on this conceptualization and on the research cited above, showing that leaders' values are linked to managerial practices, we propose that the Implicit Leadership Theory supports our position concerning the link between leadership values and employee involvement.

Applying these concepts to school leadership, we argue that society leadership values may explain the way teachers in a given society feel about teacher involvement in decision making. We will next advance hypotheses concerning the relationships of leadership values to two perspectives of teacher involvement: teachers' preferred involvement and teachers' perceptions of principals support. We will specify our hypotheses with respect to each of the five leadership indices.

C*harismatic leadership* resembles Bass and Avolio's (1993) transformational leaders. House et al. (2004) report that charismatic leadership contributes to outstanding leadership in most of the countries they studied. Charismatic school leaders are likely to have a long-range vision of their schools, where administration and rank-and-file teachers are together engaged in actions that promote the school towards its strategic objectives. Therefore, we expect that in societies where the value of charismatic leadership is higher, teachers will hold a more positive view of involvement in terms of their own preferred as well as in terms of their perceived principals' support.

Team-oriented leaders are characterized by a focus on team integration and collaborative team work, and by being diplomatic, administratively competent and not malevolent. Similarly to the value of charisma above, the value of team-orientation also contributes to outstanding leadership in most countries studied according to House et al. (2004). We expect that these leaders will naturally tend to work closely with teachers on school affairs, forming teams that will use most efficiently the rich pool of teachers' skills, ideas and resources. Their diplomatic orientation will prevent them from alienating teachers by keeping them away from involvement. Team orientation will thus positively relate to both teachers' preferred involvement in decision-making and principals' support for it.

Participative leadership is non-autocratic in nature. Similarly to the above two leadership values - charisma and team orientation - according to House et al. (2004) participative leadership also contributes to outstanding leadership in most countries. It can be expected that in societies where participative leadership is prevalent, teachers will more likely express their

preference to be involved, and perceive their principals as more supporting teacher involvement.

Humane-oriented leadership is characterized by modesty. House et al. (2004) found that Humane-oriented leadership was moderately related to outstanding leadership in some countries the studied, and neutral in others. We expect that the attribute of modesty would encourage leaders to appreciate the skills and resources teachers possess, and to harness them to a school's change momentum. Therefore, teachers affiliated with cultures that promote more humane orientation are more likely to express their preferences for teacher involvement and to rate principals higher on support for such involvement.

Self-protective leaders are characterized by being status-conscious, conflict-inducers, face-savers and procedural. Unlike the other values mentioned above, self-protective leadership is reported by House et al. (2004) as impeding outstanding leadership. Self-protective leaders would be reluctant to involve teachers in school decisions, being worried about relinquishing their authority, status and power. Therefore, in societies where the value of self protective leadership is more prevalent, teachers would be more likely to expect low principals' support of involvement and their preference to be involved may be relatively lower as well.

Based on the above we hypothesize that:

> *The societal leadership values of charisma, team orientation, participation and humane orientation are positively related to teacher involvement and to principals' support for involvement, while self-protectiveness is negatively related to both teacher involvement and to principals' support for involvement.*

Method

The total sample consisted of 835 teachers from the following countries: Australia, Canada, China, Hungary, Israel, Japan, the Netherlands, Singapore, South Africa and the USA. To account for the nested nature of the data (teachers grouped in countries) multi-level analyses was employed. We used the following measures: *Teacher involvement*. A questionnaire that identified 20 common school responsibilities was administered. For each item in the questionnaire teachers were asked, (a) "How much do you *wish* to share this responsibility"? ('teachers' preferred involvement') and (b) "How much does your principal think teachers *should* share this responsibility"? ('principals' support'). An attempt was made to create teacher-involvement variables that would be both reliable and stable *across countries* for both types of perceptions. The resulting PDM variable consisted of 10 items, had an overall Cronbach's alpha of .89 for 'teachers' preferred involvement' and .91 for 'principals' support'. *Leadership cultural values*. The societal leadership values included charisma, team oriented, participative, humane oriented and self-protective leadership (see above for definitions and descriptions), taken from the GLOBE database (House et al., 2004). These data were imported at the country level, so all participants within the country received similar scores on the leadership values. Values ranged between 1 and 7. *Respondent characteristics*. Background data (teaching experience, gender, age, and school size) were collected from teachers and principals. Only experience proved as a valid control variable.

Results

In line with comparative studies in management (Hofstede, 1996; House et al., 2004), we expected that perceptions of involvement in decision making would vary among the participating countries. Analysis of Variance shows that country explained 27% of the variance in 'teachers' preferred involvement' and 21.7% of the variance in 'principals' support' scores. Results of the multilevel analysis of variance regarding the two dependent variables ('teachers' preferred involvement', 'principals' support') are displayed in Table 1 ("empty model").

Table 1: Overall mean of teacher involvement scores and variance at the respondent and country level (multilevel analysis of variance) (e.g. empty model)

	Teacher preferred involvement	Principal support
Constant (mean)	.59 (.01)	.53 (.04)
Variance		
Respondent	75.6 %	77.4 %
Country	24.4 %	22.6 %
2*loglikelihood	-488.94	-257.93

Note: standard error between brackets; NS=Non-significant

Model estimates and effect sizes related to all dependent variables are presented in Table 2. Teaching experience had a significant effect on 'teachers' preferred involvement'. The effect was positive, indicating that the more experienced a teacher was, the higher his or her 'preferred involvement' score. The experience variable only improved overall model fit, but failed to explain much (or any) variance at the respondent or country level. In addition to teacher experience, our analyses showed that leadership values could explain differences between (and within) countries in 'teachers' preferred involvement' and 'principals' support'.

Table 2: Model estimates, effect sizes and percentages of variance explained by variables for 'teachers' wish' and 'principal support (multilevel analysis of variance – final model)

	Teachers' preferred involvement		Principals' support	
	Estimates (st. er)	Effect size	Estimates (st. er)	Effect size
Constant (mean)	-.92 (.36)		-4.10 (3.01)	
Respondent				
Experience	.03 (.01)	.13		
Principal support	.25 (.03)	.28		
Preferred inv.			.33 (.04)	.30
Country				
Charisma			-.47 (.18)	-.48
Team oriented			.63 (.31)	.31
Participative			.13 (.06)	.22
Humane orientation	.26 (.07)	.32	.25 (.08)	.27
Variance				
Respondent	68.3 %		62.3 %	
Country	7.3 %		3.3 %	
Explained	24.4 %		34.4 %	
2*loglikelihood	-594.83		-351.74	

Note: orient.=orientation

Charisma had a negative effect on 'principals' support'. This means that the higher the leadership charisma score, the less teachers in the respective country perceive their principals as supporting their involvement. Team-oriented leadership values and participative leadership values had a positive effect on 'principals' support' scores. This means that the more leadership in certain countries is characterized by team orientation and participation, the higher teachers' perceptions of their principals' as supporting their involvement. However, looking at the effect size of the variables, it seemed that the effect of charisma was almost twice as strong as the effect of either team-oriented or participative leadership. The amount of humane orientation towards leadership was positively linked to both 'teachers' preferred involvement' and 'principals' support'. Thus, the more a country is characterized by leadership value of humane orientation, the more teachers expressed their wish to be involved, and their perception of their principals as supporting their involvement. In line with our expectations, positive relationships were also found between the two perception variables (roughly similar in effect size compared to the leadership values). This means that the more teachers preferred to be involved in decision making, the more they perceived their principal as supportive and vice versa.

All together, the societal leadership values and perception of principal support explained 70.0% of the variance in 'teachers preferred involvement' scores at the country level, which equals to 24.4% of the total variance. As for 'principals' support', teacher preferred involvement, the leadership values charisma, team orientation, participative leadership and humane orientation explained 83.3% of the variance at the country level, equalling 34.4% of the total variance.

To summarize, leadership cultural values were associated with teachers' preferred involvement in decision making and with teachers' perception of principals' support of involvement. These cultural values explained the most variance at the country level, which means they were good indicators of country scores of teacher involvement. These results indicate that most of the study hypotheses in regard to 'principals' support' were supported.

Discussion

The first objective of the study was to examine the degree to which country affiliation could predict teacher involvement in school change. Results showed that country affiliation explained a considerable (over 20%) part of the variance of 'teachers' preferred involvement' and 'principals' support'. The second objective of the study, as represented by the study hypotheses, was to investigate the relationship between society values pertaining to leadership and teacher involvement. We found that the more society members believed in leadership values such as charisma, team orientation, and participation, the more teachers reported on principals' support of teacher involvement. We also found that the more society members believed in humane orientation as a leadership value, the more teachers wished to be involved, as well as believed in principals' supporting involvement. And the more society members believed in self-protectiveness as a leadership value, the *lower* was teachers' wish to be involved. Effect sizes of most of these findings were high enough to lend credibility to these results. These results supported most of the study hypotheses. The results also generally validated House et al.'s (2004) Implicit Leadership Theory, by providing evidence for the prediction of employee involvement as a managerial practice. Based on information pertaining to the way society members perceive leadership, we may be able to predict with some certainty to what degree teachers prefer to be involved in decision making, and what is

their perception about their principals willing to support their involvement. These results corroborate those in studies lining leadership cultural values to managerial practices in non-teaching areas (e.g., Aycan et al., 2000, Aycan, 2005).

The main contribution of the study is to establish a link between societal leadership values and dimensions of employee participation in decision-making. Another important contribution is the universal aspect established by observing how data from ten countries point at a similar direction, adding credibility and strength to the study model and results. In education, the study results have implications on the degree to which teacher involvement can be predicted by society values.

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Chapter 11: Safety and Learning

Organizational Values Associated to Safety Climate: between Flexibility and Control

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Abstract

The present study was developed aiming to test if certain organizational values were more associated with a positive safety climate. Departing from the Competing Values Model organizational values focused: rules, innovation, support and goals. Data was collected in eleven Portuguese companies, covering 749 workers. Organizational values and the Safety climate were assessed using the OSCI inventory (Silva et al. 2004). Additionally, work accidents statistics were also collected.

The results show that positive organizational values are strongly associated with safety climate but also that innovation and rules values predict a more positive safety climate, providing better safety practices and greater employee involvement in safety.

Introduction

In the present days it is well recognized the importance of workers wellbeing and health and it is acknowledged worldwide that the promotion of a safe workplace is determinant for companies' competitiveness and for workers wellbeing.

It is also known that after one century of societal and academic efforts for improving the quality of the working life, workplace accidents are still an important problem due to the serious consequences associated to them (e.g., psychological, social, organizational and economic consequences). This problem is reinforced by international statistics, which reveal worrying numbers. EWCO (2006) and ILO (2005) data revealed that 2.2 million people die around the world of work-related accidents and diseases each year; 120 000 deaths occurred in EU-15 due to work related diseases and, for instance, in the year 2000 the (under)estimated costs of accidents in EU-15 was 55 billion euro a year.

In the last 30 years research have emphasized the role that human and management factors and it has been acknowledged the importance of contextual factors, like safety climate, for promoting safety attitudes and behaviors and, ultimately, for the prevention of work accidents (e.g., Chiaburu & Harnison, 2008; Clarke, 2006; Silva, 2008). Although we already know much about safety climate consequences, there are only few studies that approached safety climate antecedents. Namely, organizational culture and climate have been pointed out as one of the main antecedents (see for instance, Clarke, 1999; Glendon & Staton, 2000; Silva et al., 2004; Silva, 2008) but only few studies approached it empirically. As exceptions we emphasize, for instance, the work of Neal, Griffin & Hart (2000) and Silva (2008). In this context, the study of the relationship between organizational values and safety climate is still in the beginning and not deeply explored.

In the present research, in order to characterize organizational values, the Competing Values Model (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Quinn, 1988; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991) was employed. This model postulates that organizational culture can be characterized by considering two main dimensions representing the inherent tensions that organizations have to solve in order

to survive: the first dimension emphasizes the internal versus external focus, while the second dimension emphasizes flexibility versus control. When put together, these two dimensions result in four content orientations, more recently called: support, innovation, rules, goal (Van Muijen, 1998; Neves, 2001).

Several authors have stressed the influence of organizational culture on employee's motivation, involvement and satisfaction. In particular, there have been several studies that used the model of the competing values to explore this issue (e.g., Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Goodman, Raymond, Zammuto, & Gifford, 1991; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991).

Cameron & Freeman (1991) found a strong relationship between support and innovation values and eight indicators of satisfaction, development, health, etc.. In this study it was found that cultures that value the group, support, human relations and people development are associated with greater satisfaction, involvement, commitment and lower intention to exit (turnover). The reverse pattern was observed in cultures that valorize rules. Another group of studies also examined the influence of organizational culture, competing values, on the quality of life of workers. Quinn & Spreitzer (1991) studied the relationship between cultural orientations (organizational values) and quality of life assessed using various scales (job satisfaction, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with supervisor, satisfaction with life and physical health). The results also showed that cultures with a greater focus on the group (support) and to innovation were more related to higher quality of life. That is, in cultures with greater emphasis on group or in human relations and that value innovation and development employees report higher satisfaction with job, promotion opportunities, supervision, and life in general. With the same goal, Goodman, Raymond Zammuto & Gifford (2001) also analyzed the relationship between organizational culture (as assessed by the model of competing values model) and the quality of the work life (measured by variables such as involvement, commitment, empowerment, job satisfaction and intent to exit). The results showed that cultures with a greater orientation towards the group (support) values were positively associated with greater involvement, commitment, empowerment, job satisfaction while cultures with a greater orientation hierarchical (rules) values showed a negative relationship with these four aspects and a positive association with intention of turnover.

Until now, as far as we know, the Competing Values Model only was applied to the understanding of safety in few studies (e.g., Silva et al. 2004; Díaz-Cabrera et al., 2007; Chiu et al., 2008; Silva, 2008) and only in one study it was analyzed, specifically, safety climate. As stated previously, this literature reveal that the study of the relationship between safety climate and organizational values is not, yet, fully explored.

Departing from this theoretical background the present research (van Muijen, 1998; Neves, 2001) focused 4 main values: rules, innovation, support and goal in order to understand its role for promoting safety. Therefore, the present study was developed aiming to test if more positive organizational values were associated to a more positive safety climate but also to explore if certain organizational values were more associated with a more positive safety climate.

Method

Sample

Data was collected in eleven Portuguese companies (mainly from the Industry and Service activity sectors) and covering 749 workers (approximately 40% of the total number of workers per organization). The majority of the participants were men (85.4%), with ages

between 20 and 65 years old (59% with more than 40 years old), with obligatory education level (55% between 4 and 9 years of education), with high seniority in the organization (more than 15 years of seniority). The sample stratification was based on the relative size of the various departments, resulting in a sample in which the various departments were, almost always, represented proportionally.

Instrument

Organisational Values and Safety Climate was assessed using OSCI inventory (Silva et al., 2004).

The OSCI Scale that focuses Organizational Values was derived from the competing values model, partially departing from previous instruments (e.g., Quinn, 1988; Neves, 2000; van Muijen, et al. 1999). Examples of items are: "In your organization workers' participation in organisational daily operation is important"; "In your organization individual initiative is important".

The Safety Climate Questionnaire includes four main scales: safety climate content scale, safety as an organizational value scale, organizational safety practices scale and personal involvement with safety scale. The Organizational safety practices scale covers 6 dimensions for instance, safety efficacy, safety communication and safety training. An example of an item is: "In this organization safety training is done on a regular basis". The Personal Involvement with Safety scale covers 3 dimensions (Safety Internalization; Safety Commitment and Safety Pride). For instance "In this organization people consider safety as an individual responsibility" is an example of an item. The safety climate variable was also calculated through the average index that included all the scales.

All the answers were given on a seven point Likert-type scale (1- totally disagree to 7- totally agree). The Cronbach alphas for all the scales where adequate, ranging from .62 to . 96.

Analysis

Pearson correlations and multiple regressions were estimated at the individual level and spearman correlations were used to test at the company level. In the analysis the number of organizations included may vary between 11, 10 and 7 due to missing data.

Results

As Table 1 show, the organizations have positive means for all the four types of values with a higher emphasizes on Objectives and lower emphasizes on support. Significant variations between organizations were also found, for Support it ranged between 4.49 and 5.64 ($F_{(10,725)}$ =4.98, p<.001), for Objectives ranged between 5.02 and 6.23 ($F_{(10,711)}$ =9.32, p<.001), for innovation it ranged between 4.45 and 5.95 ($F_{(10,708)}$ =9.11, p<.001)and Rules ranged between 4.72 and 6.11 ($F_{(10,723)}$ =10.89, p<.001).

Safety climate means also reveal positive perceptions about the importance given to safety with slightly higher results for organizational safety practices compared to workers personal involvement on safety. Significant differences between companies were also found, for instance safety climate ranged between 3.56 and 6.1 ($F_{(10,666)}$ =36.69, p<.001).

Table 1 - Descriptive statistics

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
Support	5.03	1.46
Objectives	5.73	1.04
Innovation	5.30	1.23
Rules	5.23	1.30
Safety Climate: Global Index	4.87	1.20
Safety Climate: Organizational Practices	5.03	1.07
Safety Climate: Workers Involvement	4.79	1.01

Correlations results (see Table 2) revealed that, at the individual level, all the organizational values are positively associated with safety climate, it slightly higher correlations for Rules, Innovation and Objectives correspondingly.

Table 2 - Correlations between organizational values and safety climate

Values:	Safety Climate	Safety Practices	Safety involvement
Support	.39**	.36**	.39**
Objectives	.45**	.41**	.43**
Innovation	.53**	.46**	.47**
Rules	.53**	.47**	.49**

***P<0.01*

In the next step multiple regressions were performed to check the specific role of the four values in explaining safety climate. The results (see Table 3) demonstrate that organizational values explain 33% ($F_{(4,634)}$ =79.93, p<.001) of safety Climate and that the significant predictors were Rules, Innovation and Objectives Values (respectively, ordered here by their regression weight). The same pattern was also found for the specific scales that focus the organizational safety practices and personal involvement with safety.

Table 3- Regression for predicting safety climate, practices and involvement

	Safety Climate		Safety Practices		Safety Involvement	
Values:	β	R^2	β	R^2	β	R^2
Support	-.02ns		-.02ns		.05ns	
Objectives	.09*		.11*		.11*	
Innovation	.22**		.19**		.15*	
Rules	.32**		.27**		.28**	
		.33**		.25**		.26**

*Ns – non significant; *p<0.05; **p<0.01*

Considering that these results reflect only individual patterns and that organizational values/culture should also be analysed taking it account the organization as a whole, in the last step of the analysis correlations were estimated considering the Organization Level. Results, in Table 4, suggest that only Rules and Innovation Values were positively associated to safety climate.

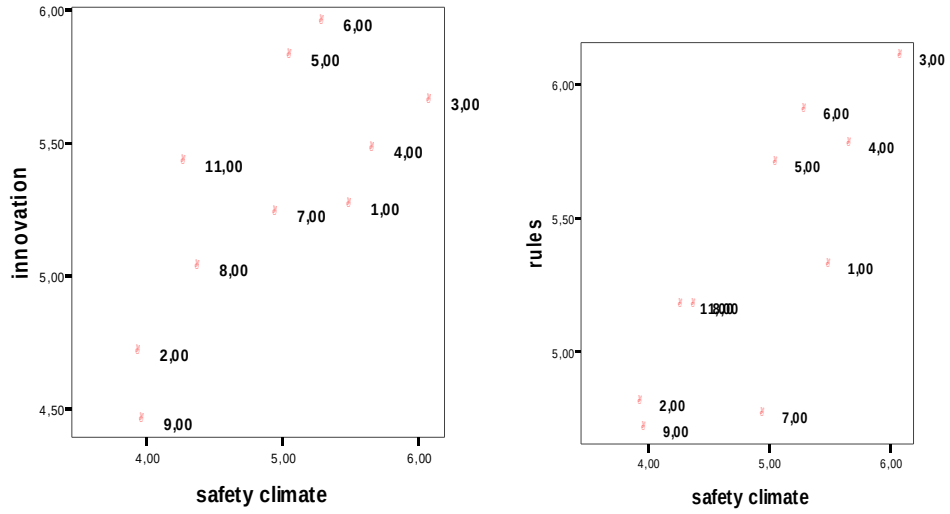
Table 4 - Correlations (Rho Spearman) for relations between organisational, safety climate (n=11) and accident data (n=7) at the organizational level

Values:	Safety climate	Safety Practices	Safety Involvement	Accidents
Support	.43ns	.33ns	.46ns	-.43ns
Objectives	.50ns	.46ns	.54ns	-.63
Innovation	.71*	.66*	.75*	-.88**
Rules	.84**	.80**	.84**	-.67ns

*Ns – non significant; *p<0.05; **p<0.01*

Namely, revealing that companies that are in the first positions with higher Rules and Innovation Values are also the ones with higher Safety Climate as it can be easily seen in Figure 1.

Figure 1 – Example of Scatterplots for correlations between Innovation Values, Rule Values and Safety Climate



Legend: Small squares and Numbers correspond to Organizations

These results reveal that Support Values were not significant in predicting safety climate therefore, in some sense, contradicting the previous research. It is also clear that more positive Rules and Innovation Values seem to be critical for the safety climate.

Discussion and Conclusions

In conclusion, the results revealed that stronger positive organizational values are positively associated to a stronger safety climate. However, this association assumes different patterns when we consider the contents of the organizational values. Organizations that have a values system characterized by greater innovation (structural flexibility, orientation to the

surroundings) and simultaneously a strong emphasis on rules (control, predictability) show a more positive and stronger safety climate, characterized by better safety practices and greater employee involvement in safety.

These results seem contradictory since innovation and rules are two value orientations that are completely opposed in the model of the competing values. However, it is possible to explain this relationship. An organization that assigns great importance to safety needs to use well-defined rules and procedures and implement systems to enhance compliance. Moreover, according to safety legislation, organizations are obliged to do so. Thus, these results suggest that companies with organizational Values more rules/bureaucratic oriented incorporate more easily these obligations. Simultaneously, it is suggested that organizations with values that reveal a flexible and outward-looking orientation have a greater ability to manage safety in an appropriate manner to face new situations that arise daily, give more room for individual initiative of their employees and more easily incorporate changes in its safety system.

The present study had the distinct characteristic of including eleven organizations allowing the estimation and comparison of the relations between organizational values and safety at the individual and organizational level. However, it has some limitations, for instance the number of organizations limited the organizational level of analysis, only simple correlations were tested and data was mainly self-reported. Future research should continue to focus Organizational Values in order to better understand how and when organizational values shape safety.

Author's Note

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Organizational Learning and Extra Effort: The Mediating Effect of Job Satisfaction

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Abstract

The aim of the present study was to explore the influence of school organizational learning (SOL) on teacher extra effort (TEE), using teacher job satisfaction (TJS) as a mediator. We hypothesized that by getting teachers involved in SOL, they will be able to exploit their capabilities and contribute to the success of their organization, which in turn may increase their satisfaction and motivation to invest extra effort in their work. Data were collected from 1,474 teachers at 104 elementary schools in northern Israel. SEM and mediating regression analyses demonstrated that TJS as shaped by SOL processes may serve as a powerful motivator of TEE. Recommendations for further research will be discussed further on.

Introduction

Schools today, like other organizations, are facing a rapidly changing environment, increasing complexity, greater uncertainty, new challenges as well as demands for innovation, accountability and change (Voulalas & Sharpe, 2005). It has become clear that sustained school improvement requires a system solution, one that is both practical and effective on a large scale. The ability to learn is considered a key index of an organization's effectiveness and of its potential to innovate and grow (Jerez-Gómez, Céspedes-Lorente, & Valle-Cabrera, 2005).

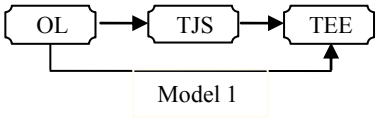
Organizational learning is a process that expands the organization's ability to undertake effective actions aimed at directly and systematically improving its performance and outcomes (Argyris & Schön, 1978). Schools' functioning as learning organizations improves their effectiveness (Fullan, 2002; Chapman & Harris, 2004). In terms of professional development, such schools regulate their own learning rather than being dependent on external regulation and are engaged in constant inquiry into their own practice in order to improve it (Schnellert, Butler, & Higginson, 2008). They enable staff at all levels to learn collaboratively and continuously and put this learning to use in response to social and environmental needs and demands (Silins, Mulford, & Zarins, 2002).

By getting teachers involved in SOL processes, teachers expand their professional knowledge and capabilities (DuFour & Eaker, 1998) and are able to exploit them and contribute to their schools' success. Regarding job satisfaction, it has been found that workers who participate in the discourse on career issues and human resource policies, tend to be more satisfied with their work (Nathan, Mohrman, & Milliman,1991); teachers feel highly satisfied when provided with "a sense of self-esteem", "opportunities for self-development", "a feeling of success", and allowed to "to participate in determining school practices" (Bogler, 2001, p. 676). Having an interesting job which is perceived as assisting individuals and society, which allows the worker to be independent, and with workplace relationships, are the most significant factors influencing job satisfaction (Skalli, Theodossiou, & Vasileiou, 2007).

In response to the modest findings yielded by research on the satisfaction–performance relationship, some researchers have advocated the broadening of the performance domain to include behaviors which go beyond delineated role expectations on behalf of the organization's mission, namely extra effort (Seltzer & Bass, 1990). As staff satisfaction increases, extra effort and effectiveness also increase (Trofino, 2003).

Learning organizations are conceived as a necessary component to effect large-scale changes. However, systematic empirical evidence of the inter-relationships between school organizational learning (SOL), teachers' job satisfaction (TJS) and teachers' extra effort (TEE) is limited. Therefore, the present study explored the influence of SOL on TEE, using TJS as a mediator:

Figure 1: Study model (1)



Conceptual background and hypotheses

School as organizational learning

Over the last century, school reform has been a recurrent motif. Many schools have failed to improve student outcomes or better teaching practices, operating efficiencies, and accountability. At the same time, there is increasing evidence to suggest that the pace of change is intensifying and the teaching environment is becoming more complex (Fullan, 2001). This climate of constant change has prompted a growing support for the importance of organizational learning in schools (Stevenson, 2001). For school reform to succeed, teachers must recognize the importance of learning as a continuous collective process (Schechter, Sykes, & Rosenfeld, 2004). Learning organizations have a strong tendency to focus upon continuous improvement and are able to cope with major change more successfully and effectively (Gandolfi, 2006). Evidence from a study of Australian secondary schools (Silins, et al., 2002) indicates that higher performing schools are functioning as learning organizations. Schools that engage in organizational learning enable staff at all levels to learn collaboratively and continuously and put this learning to use in response to social needs and the demands of their environment (Silins et al., 2002, p. 639). The accumulating evidence suggests that schools functioning as learning organizations improve their effectiveness (Fullan, 2002; Chapman & Harris, 2004). As school working and learning merge, teachers engage in both task performance and in learning about their performance, while learning occurs in very close proximity to performance. Four organizational learning mechanisms in elementary schools were identified: staff involvement, evaluation, in-school professional development and information management (Kurland, Peretz, & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2010).

Extra effort

Extra effort relates to behaviors which go beyond delineated role expectations on behalf of the organization's mission (Seltzer & Bass, 1990). The levels of effort of persistence in the face of obstacles are determined by employees' motivation (Jones & George, 2008). Herzberg's Two-Factor theory (1966) states that factors which involve job content

(motivation factors) tend to lead to job satisfaction. Workers who are "satisfied" put forth that extra effort and productivity increases. Factors that involve job context (hygiene factors) may lead to job dissatisfaction. In regard to Herzberg's Two-Factor theory, Parks & Holdnak (2002) indicated that employees are more likely to be satisfied, more willing to put forth extra effort and overall be more satisfied if they are content with the type of work they do and if their salary level is adequate. Leithwood (1992) contended that if teachers are included in the problem-solving process, they are stimulated to take part in new activities and put forth extra effort thus increasing school effectiveness. Other research has shown that a mastery goal focuses an individual's attention on the elaboration and development of new knowledge and deep processing strategies, leading to effectiveness in complex and unfamiliar tasks (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). When increased task requirements are encountered, mastery-oriented individuals view the exertion of great effort as a desirable attribute of the self so that, for them, this in its self is indicative of success (Duda, 2001). Accordingly, the following hypothesis was formed: *Hypothesis 1:* school organizational learning will be positively related to teacher extra effort

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction relates to positive attitudes and beliefs regarding several aspects of the job or the profession (Organ, 1990). There are several organizational benefits associated with employees' job satisfaction: reduced employee turnover and absenteeism, high levels of employees' job involvement, commitment and organizational effectiveness (Ostroff, 1992). Satisfaction with teaching as a career is an important policy issue, since it is associated with teacher effectiveness, which ultimately affects student achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Job satisfaction is also a dependent variable, mainly influenced by working and organizational conditions (e.g. Herzberg, 1966). Continuous improvement is one of the relevant conditions that form the basis for a learning organization (Victor, Boynton, & Stephens-Jahng, 2000). Employees who feel a sense of self-determination at work regard themselves as being responsible for their work actions and are therefore more likely to experience intrinsic rewards and job satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Organizational learning that gives the employee a wider and higher scope of responsibility with increased decision-making authority, recognition, and opportunities for growth, learning and achievement, usually increases also employee motivation and job satisfaction (Daft, 1999). Teachers with greater autonomy show higher levels of satisfaction than teachers who feel they have less autonomy. As staff satisfaction increased, effectiveness and extra effort also increased (Trofino, 2003). Teachers who are experiencing high levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment will in turn positively and willingly extend extra effort on student learning (Nguni, Sleegers, & Denessen, 2006). Accordingly, the following hypotheses were formed: *Hypothesis 2:* school organizational learning will be positively related to teacher job satisfaction; *Hypothesis 3:* teacher job satisfaction will mediate the correlation between school organizational learning and teacher extra effort.

Method

Sample and Data Collection

The sample consisted of 1,474 teachers at 104 primary public schools in Israel. School size ranged from 200 to 600 pupils, (M=350, SD=32.35). The number of teachers in each school

ranged from six to 30. The majority of the teachers (96.2%) were women, ranging in age from 20 to 62, with three to 40 years of teaching seniority in their school.

Measures**: **School organizational learning (OL) was measured by a 27 items scale (Kurland et al., 2010). The participants were asked to state to what degree each item exists in their school. Each item was rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) a low level of activities/behaviors of organizational learning, to (5) a high level of activities/behaviors of organizational learning. Reliability coefficient was α=.91.

Extra work effort was measured by a six item scale based on Bass & Avolio (1995), ranging from (1) a low level of activities/behaviors of teachers' extra effort, to (5) a high level of activities/behaviors of teachers' extra effort (α=.92). ***Teachers' Job satisfaction*** was measured on a nine item scale, based on Tarbia (1995), ranging from (1) a low level of teachers' job satisfaction, to (5) a high level of job satisfaction (α=.91).

Results

The means, standard deviations and correlations for the variables are presented in Table 1.

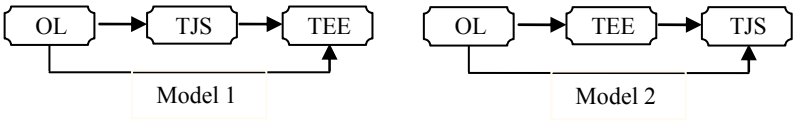
Table 1: Means, standard deviations, and correlation matrix (N=104)

		Senio-rity	**OL-overall**	OL-Eval	OL-SD	OL-TI	OL-DI	TS	EE
	M	**17.97**	**3.52**	**3.63**	**3.34**	**3.58**	**3.47**	**3.88**	**3.49**
	SD	4.20	**.37**	.40	.42	.41	.40	.29	.43
Organizational Learning-overall	*r*	-.16	**---**						
OL - Evaluation	*r*	-.25*	**.95*****	---					
OL - Staff Development	*r*	-.12	**.88*****	.75***	---				
OL - Team Involvement	*r*	-.20*	**.92*****	.89***	.74***	---			
OL – Distribution of Information	*r*	-.01	**.90*****	.79***	.74***	.75***	---		
Teacher Satisfaction	*r*	-.09	**.68*****	.61***	.62***	.75***	.54***	---	
Extra Effort	*r*	-.19	**.51*****	.48***	.51***	.56***	.33***	.60***	---

*Range 1-5; * $p \leq .05$ *** $p \leq .001$*

The correlation matrix revealed high significant correlations among OL, TJS and TEE, which support the first and second hypotheses; *hypothesis 1*: School organizational learning is positively related to teacher extra effort (r=.51; $p \leq .001$). Significant correlations exist also between OL components and TEE (correlation range r=.33 – .56; p<.001). *Hypothesis 2*: School organizational learning is positively related to teacher job satisfaction (r=.68; $p \leq .001$). Significant correlations exist also between OL components and TEE (correlation range r=.54 – .75; p<.001). According to *hypothesis 3*, TJS will mediate the correlation between school organizational learning and teacher extra effort. However, the correlations do not supply sufficient evidence to assert the direction of the relationships; therefore, in addition to the study model (1), an additional alternative model (2) was tested:

Figure 2: Study model (1) and alternative model (2)



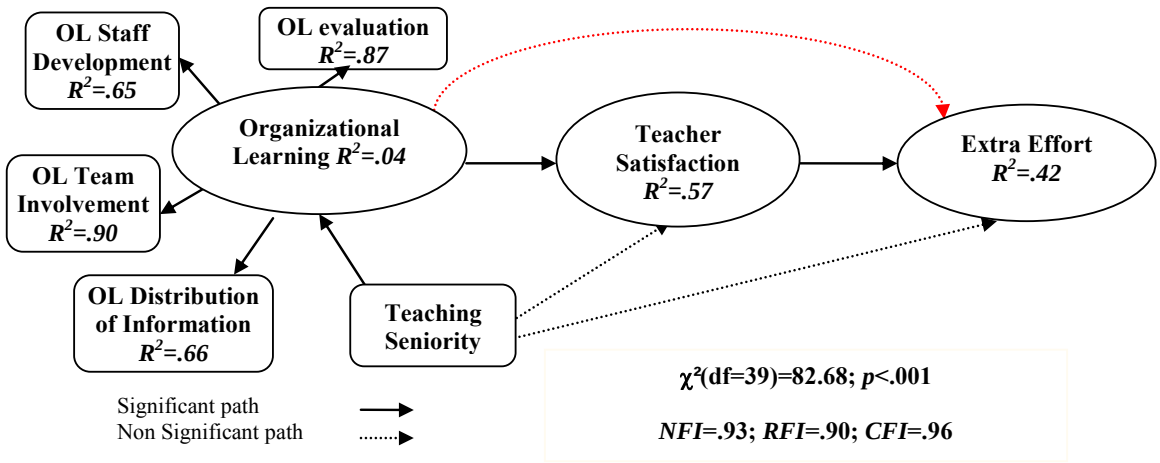
Because both models are tested on the same correlation matrix (table 1) the interrelationships between OL, TJS and TEE were examined in two stages. First, a regression analysis for prediction of each dependent variable was executed. Second, a SEM analysis tested the concurrent direct and indirect paths between OL, the independent variable in both models, and TJS and TEE, the alternative dependent variables. Because the SEM analysis indicated that in both models a significant mediation effect of the mediator (TJS/TEE in turn) exits, we used the Sobel test (Baron & Kenny, 1986) to examine whether the indirect effect of OL on the dependent variable (TJS/TEE) through the mediator variable (TEE/TJS) is significant. SEM analysis alone could not solve this puzzle, because being run on the same correlation matrix, it provides identical fit measures for both models. Regression analyses were run to identify the direction of possible effects of OL on TEE (model 1) and TJS (model 2).

The regression analysis revealed that about 38% of the variance of TEE are explained by teacher seniority and the components of OL: Staff Development (β=.34), Team Involvement (β=.59), and Distribution of Information (β=-.31); addition of TJS in the third step of the regression analysis diminished the significant effects; instead, TJS was found to be the single significant predictor of TEE (β=.35). This mediation effect was found significant (Sobel test z= 3.35; p<.001). In addition, Model 2 tested the possible mediating effect of TEE on TJS.

The regression analysis revealed that about 60% of the variance of TJS are explained by teacher seniority and the components of OL: Staff Development (β=.24), and Team Involvement (β=.91); addition of TEE, in the third step of the regression analysis, diminished the significant effect of staff development but had only a minor impact on Team Involvement (β=.78). In addition, TEE was found to be a significant predictor of TJS (β=.23). This mediation effect was found significant as well (Sobel test z= 3.13; p<.001).

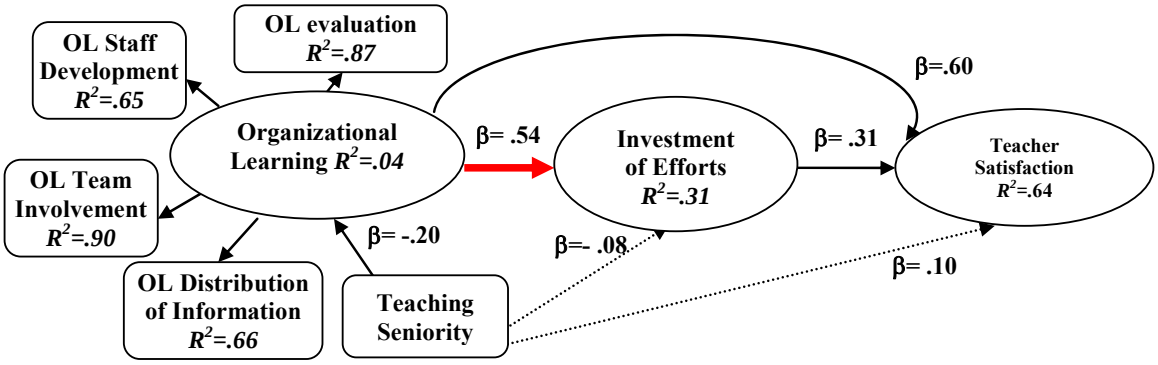
In light of these results, SEM analysis was executed to check the concurrent direct and indirect paths between OL and TJS / EE.

Figure 3: SEM – Model 1



The SEM analysis indicates that 42% of the variance of TEE are significantly explained by teacher seniority, OL and TJS. Whereas TJS significantly mediates between OL and TEE, the direct path between OL and TEE is insignificant (β=.16; p.ns).

Figure 4: SEM – Model 2



The SEM analysis result indicates that 64% of the variance of TJS are significantly explained by teacher seniority, OL and TEE. TJS is effected directly by OL (β=.64) and indirectly, through TEE as a mediator. In addition, in both models, teaching seniority has a significant effect on OL (β=-.20) but not on TJS and TEE, implying OL is lower in schools that employ teachers with higher seniority. According to Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1176) "The central idea in this model (*the mediating model*) is that the effects of stimuli on behavior are mediated by various transformation processes internal to the organism". Bearing in mind the definition of a mediation effect, which asserts that the correlation between two variables disappears while controlling a third, mediating variable, it seems that we cannot confirm that OL effects directly TEE, because this significant effect disappears when the two outcome variables are switched, and the variance of TEE is explained significantly only by the mediating effect of TJS.

Discussion

The present study explored the issue of the relationship between school organizational learning (SOL), job satisfaction (TJS) and teacher extra effort (TEE) in primary schools. Overall, the results demonstrate that TJS is significantly predicted by SOL and is also a significant predictor of TEE. In other words, TJS was found to mediate the relationship between SOL and TEE. These empirical results confirm accumulating evidence suggesting that schools functioning as learning organizations improve their effectiveness (Chapman & Harris, 2004). In addition, this empirical result supports also the assertion that a mastery goal focuses an individual's attention on the elaboration and development of new knowledge and deep processing strategies leading to effectiveness in complex and unfamiliar tasks (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). The outcome of the study, showing a positive relationship between SOL and TJS, supports our hypothesis and confirms Herzberg's Two-Factor theory (1966) which states that factors that involve job content (motivation factors) tend to lead to job satisfaction. Factors that involve job context (hygiene factors) may lead to job dissatisfaction. It appears that teachers' involvement in OL processes stimulates them to think reflectively and critically

about their own practices and enables them to develop shared goals and participate in decision-making about aspects to be improved. SOL processes enable the transfer of practical knowledge developed by teachers in their own classes to other teachers in the school. The spotlight here is on organizational processes that give the teacher a wider and higher scope of responsibility with increased decision-making authority, recognition, and opportunities for growth, learning, and achievement that in turn increase teacher motivation and job satisfaction. Satisfaction with teaching as a career is an important policy issue, since it is associated with teacher effectiveness which ultimately affects student achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Secondly, the results of the study demonstrate that TJS positively affects TEE. These results support our hypotheses and confirm Trofino's (2003) assertion that as staff satisfaction increased, effectiveness and extra effort also increased. Teachers who experience high levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, will in turn positively and willingly extend extra effort on student learning (Nguni et al., 2006).

Thirdly, the results indicate that TJS mediated between SOL and TEE. The results support our hypothesis and confirm Rowden's (2002) states that JS is an essential variable that can lead to employee behaviors which affect organizational functioning and performance, and that TJS is also a dependent variable, mainly influenced by continuous improvement is one of the relevant conditions that form the basis for a learning organization(Victor, Boynton and Stephens- Jahng, 2000). Teacher who feel a sense of self-determination on the job see themselves as the origin of and responsible for work actions and are therefore more likely to experience intrinsic rewards and satisfaction from work (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Effectiveness and extra effort also increased. Finally, the study's results suggest that teachers will be more willing to invest extra effort in their work, as a consequence of satisfaction resulting from participation in complex OL processes, such as staff involvement, evaluation, in-school professional development and information management mechanisms. SOL processes that provide meaning and intellectual stimulation contribute to TJS and to school effectiveness. The present results provide an impetus for further research regarding the centrality of school organizational learning processes and their significance for TEE via TJS to achievement of the school's purpose. Further research is needed to clarify these relationships and their impacts on school outcomes.

Summary and conclusions

The results of this study have a meaningful application regarding the challenge facing schools today to improve student achievement, ultimately depending on improving teaching practice. Job satisfaction is an essential variable that leads to TEE, teacher behaviors which affect school functioning and performance which ultimately affects student achievement. The present findings offer a rich agenda for practice. The educational system as a loosely linked organization faces difficulties in creating coherent activities related to school performers. SOL enhances webs of professional interactions surrounding issues related to teacher educational practice (e.g., specific principles of practice, teaching and learning strategies, assessment of students, educational/professional debate and communication skills), which lead to TJS and to TEE which in turn lead to effecting teaching and learning. Specifically, the present results offer a description of school dynamics that can be used in the training and professional development of principals. In practice we suggest developing specific training programs to help principals to establish certain mechanisms of organizational learning.

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Creating Knowledge in Cross-Cultural Teams (Practice of Cross-Cultural Knowledge Creation in HRM Class)

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Abstract

The objective of this paper is to illustrate the application of the grounded theory of cross-cultural learning to structuring the small group discussion in HRM class at Webster University, Vienna. The grounded theory of cross-cultural learning was elaborated in author's earlier research. Subsequently, the research findings of how to make cross-cultural learning effective were used to structure student work in small groups in HRM undergraduate class. Paper is based on the case of one student group and highlights the mechanics of producing assignments which allow each student to contribute with his/her unique cultural/professional expertise to the creation of new knowledge in class. The student group represented 14 national cultures and 4 majors.

Introduction

A cross-cultural student group is the distinguishing characteristic of Webster University. The faculty members are challenged to design a learning landscape encouraging each student in a group to actively participate in the learning process. The question arises as to whether it is possible to make learning in a cross-cultural group effective? The answer is yes. Indeed, cross-cultural management theory is to understand how to orchestrate cultural differences in a way that brings in value. In the light of this, the application of the cross-cultural management theory to teaching practice appears to be very useful.

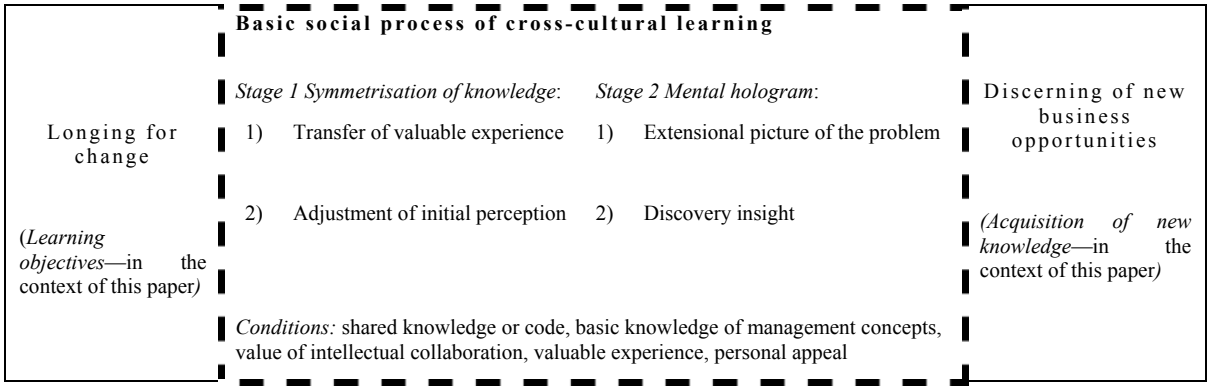
Historically, cross-cultural theory has divided into sovereign streams: «cultural-differences-as-barrier» and «cultural-differences-as-asset». The concept «cultural-differences-as-barrier» refers to the mode of cross-cultural interaction structured by the collective actions of people to combat the cultural differences impeding their relationships. Building on the assumption that cultural differences are sources of miscommunication and conflict, volumes of empirical research conducted in the 1960s through the 1990s repeatedly investigated cultural differences (e.g., the influential studies of Hofstede, 1994; Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2000; The Globe Study of 62 societies). Many academics and critics, however, claimed that in modern knowledge economies cross-cultural management studies no longer responded to the challenges of knowledge-sharing, organizational learning, and network development. The idea of «cultural-differences-as-asset» was developed by Holden (Holden, 2001). The foundational premise of his research is that culture can be viewed as resource and managed in the way which adds value to firms' international operations. Accordingly, the concept of «cultural-differences-as-asset» refers to the mode of intercultural learning, networking and knowledge-sharing structured by the collaborative actions of managers to derive economic benefit from cultural differences. In 2007, in response to the debate in the literature, Skobeleva (2008) conducted the study which revealed the exemplary cross-cultural practices of top managers from cross-border enterprises. The study explored what executives do when they network to create knowledge and discern business opportunities in the cross-cultural

domain. The usefulness of research findings is their applicability to the design of the collaborative learning landscape at the universities where students come from many different cultures. In particular, structuring student discussions in small groups in such a way that each student is encouraged to draw on his/her cultural experience to advance the learning of the whole group. Cultural experience refers to the one which is obtained in national, gender, professional, etc. groups.

Grounded theory of knowledge creation in cross-cultural teams

Recently, the author (Skobeleva, 2008) identified major process of cross-cultural learning which links executive's longing for change and discerning of new business opportunities (see figure 1). The grounded theory methodology illuminated the process of cross-cultural learning through which business partners go to create the knowledge in the cross-cultural domain. The process of cross-cultural learning brings in the discerning of new business opportunities and has two stages: summarization of knowledge and mental hologram. Executives from the study collaborated with cross-cultural partners who had the experience valuable for the business project at hand, shared the lingua franca, knew the fundamentals of doing business, valued intellectual collaboration with another person and had a charismatic personality. One important implication was that these are the conditions necessary for the process of cross cultural learning to begin and move through its two stages. The other important implication was that experience of seeing the extensive picture could bring in value by resulting into the discovery transforming the company's product.

Figure 1 Adopted grounded theory of cross-cultural knowledge creation (Skobeleva, 2008)



Further, the idea of cross-cultural learning in cross-cultural groups was implemented in teaching the HRM course to the undergraduate students of Webster University (fall, 2009). Next section describes the structure of one in-class session (90 minutes) applying the finding of two staged process of cross-cultural learning.

Example from practice

Teaching in the college classroom requires particular competencies (Bonwell & Sutherland, 1996). The authors argued that "it is not sufficient for the college professor to be competent

in a field of specialty and to share the substantial base of knowledge to a classroom full of willing students…College teachers must be prepared not only to share in-depth knowledge of their subjects but also to know something about college students and how they learn" (p.7). A related claim came from Patricia Cross (1998) who advocated the concept of learning communities—based in the concept of collaborative learning—as applied to university education. She defined learning communities as "groups of people engaged in intellectual interaction for the purpose of learning" (p. 4). Cross insisted that "such communities would include college teachers and college students working collaboratively to learn chemistry or history or political science or any other subject matter that is part of the higher education curriculum" (p. 6). The illustration of how to accommodate the grounded theory of cross-cultural learning to collaborative learning landscape comes from personal practice of teaching HRM class at Webster University in fall 2009. The language of instruction at Webster University is English.

HRM is an 8 week course in the core curriculum for business administration and management majors, consisting of 16 in-class sessions (duration 90 minutes). In fall 2009 the course was taught to a group of 27 students (19 male, 8 female, 14 countries of origin, and 4 majors). The 14 countries of origin were as follows: Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, China, Egypt, Georgia, Germany, Macedonia, Moldova, Romania, Russia, Slovenia, Sweden, and Ukraine. Students were majoring in the following subjects: management (17 students), business administration (8 students), international relations (1 student), and media communications (1 student).

The class 4 (week 2 of the course) was chosen for the discussion in this paper. The topic of the class was "Organization/Individual Relations and Retention". Students were required to come in class having read the assigned chapters from the textbook (Human Resource Management by Robert L. Mathis and John H. Jackson) as well as the additional article (HBR case "When Steve becomes Stephanie"). Whereas, the chapters from the textbook related to the aspects of staffing the organization such as legal framework of equal employment and managing equal employment and diversity, the case illustrated a challenging management puzzle. Harvard Business Review case "When Steve becomes Stephanie" (Gary & Elliot, 2008) was chosen to stimulate the discussion around the question "what does a star player's gender change imply for a traditional company's culture?" Executive summary unveils the plot of the fictional case in this way: "Henrietta Mercer, the senior vice president for human resources at LaSalle Chemical, is facing a challenge unprecedented in her career: Steve Ambler, recently appointed the company's group sales director, has decided to change his gender identity. Before Henrietta can finish crafting a corporate response, someone slips a copy of her confidential memo to the executive committee to one of Steve's colleagues, whose outraged reaction suggests the difficulties that may lie ahead. How can she help him transition in a workplace where not everyone is on board with the plan?" The students were asked to come in class prepared to discuss the latter question in small groups (learning objective, fig.1).

Student participation was structured in a way that would allow students to learn from each other. In particular, each student was requested to contribute with his/her unique cultural/professional expertise to finding the solution to the question at hand. For example, student who specialized in the media communications was requested to develop the communication plan of the gender transition case for the internal publics of the company as well as for the external publics (example of transfer of valuable experience, fig. 1). After sharing his ideas with his group, he presented them to the whole group of 27 students and answered all the questions (example of adjustment of initial perception, fig. 1). Students majoring in management and business administration were requested to focus on the economic benefit of keeping the transitioning employee in the same position and find

approach to communicate the transition to the conservative clientele. Female students were requested to compare their approaches to the problem with those of male students using the advantages/disadvantages framework. Students from different national/ethnic groups were requested to share their perspectives on the possible solutions. After all, the author of this paper emphasized that all points were well taken and offered a summary on the screen (example of extensional picture of the problem, fig. 1). One of the students confessed after class that he came to understand how sensitive the topic is and how neutral one has to be while discussing it in class. He said: "You never know who sits next to you. Maybe my classmate's sister is transitioning. The topic might seem funny and not realistic but at the same time it can seriously insult someone. Taking into consideration the legal context surrounding modern workplace, one has to be very discreet and select the words with utmost care. Otherwise, the employees will sue the company." (example of discovery insight, fig. 1).

As Cross argues, "when students negotiate their own understandings by actively working to understand others' contributions and to fit them into what they already know, they develop a network that is called, in modern learning theory, a schema, which is a kind of cognitive map that permits new learning to become understanding by making connections to what the student already knows" (Cross, 1998, p. 9). The example outlined here contributed to the deeper understanding of the process of cross-cultural learning which was initially discovered in business context and transferred to the context of education.

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Examining the Association Between Toyota's Core Value System and Performance in a Broadcasting Organization

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Abstract

The main objective of this study was to describe the association between five of Toyota's six core values with individual and organizational performance in two different organizations. The core values included in the study were those of respect, integrity, customer satisfaction, high performance team environment, and quality driven culture. In all, the results of this study provided empirical evidence with regard to the strong association between the five core values investigated and all fourteen performance indicators incorporated in the study. This study concluded that Toyota's core value system can be considered as a viable tool for competitive advantage.

Introduction

It is widely accepted in the literature that shared values among organizational members can influence individual behaviors towards achieving corporate goals and therefore improving organizational performance (Ferguson & Milliman, 2008; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Sagie et al., 1996; Sorensen, 2002). Values form the basis of organizational cultures and behavior (Ferguson & Milliman, 2008; Hebel, 1998; Hofstede, 1994). Widely shared values create an organizational value system (O'Reilly et al., 1991), or a strong homogeneous culture, that gives "structure and meaning to the organization's existence" (Hassan, 2007; Hebel, 1998, p.395) and can potentially lead to a sustainable competitive advantage (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; McDonald & Gandz, 1991; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Schwartz & Davis, 1988). The core values of strong cultures give a sense of direction to organizational members (Ferguson & Milliman, 2008; Ravasi & Schultz, 2006; Sagie et al., 1996): values "constitute a collective understanding regarding norms and standards of behavior acceptable in the organization" (Hassan, 2007, p. 437).

Although researchers have made theoretical and methodological advances in understanding organizational cultures and values, they have not been equally successful in determining the content of "successful" organizational cultures (McDonald & Gandz, 1991; Sheridan, 1992). There seems to be a lack of consensus in regards to the core values that organizations should nurture and the impact of those values on employee behavior and organizational performance (Berson et al., 2008; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Patterson et al., 2004; Sagie et al., 1996; Sheridan, 1992). "Successful" cultures should incorporate organizational level values (e.g. customer service, quality-orientation) with psychological values (e.g. trust, respect, integrity) (Ferguson & Milliman, 2008). In general, core organizational values identified by researchers to be important include innovation, trust, initiative, team orientation, customer orientation, openness, collaboration, creativity, empowerment, quality, delegation, respect, and integrity (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Berson et al., 2008; Ferguson & Milliman, 2008; Hassan, 2007; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Sharp, 1994).

There is evidence that organizations that nurture core values have better performance than others. Core values improve job satisfaction, motivation, commitment, retention, teamwork and interpersonal relationships (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Berson et al., 2008; Ferguson & Milliman, 2008; McDonald & Gandz, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Ostroff et al., 2005; Patterson et al., 2004; Sagie et al., 1996); productivity and customer service (Berson et al., 2008; Ferguson & Milliman, 2008); organizational financial performance and profitability (Berson et al., 2008; Hassan, 2007). Nonetheless, some values are better predictors of certain performance indicators (Sagie et al., 1996). Research shows positive associations between superior quality, supportive cultures and importance of people with job satisfaction, employee commitment and retention (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Berson et al., 2008; Sheridan, 1992); innovation with sales growth (Berson et al., 2008) and overall performance (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000); and flexibility with customer satisfaction (Berson et al., 2008; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000).

Despite evidence that core values can influence organizational performance and employee attitudes, many organizations have failed to exploit this potential source of competitive advantage (Ferguson & Milliman, 2008; McDonald & Gandz, 1991; Sagie et al., 1996). An exception to this is Toyota, a par example of high-performance, knowledge-sharing firm, with a successful production system (Collins & Muthusamy, 2007; Dyer & Nobeoka, 2000; Stanger, 1998). Nevertheless, attempts to imitate Toyota's production system have failed to generate comparable results for other companies (Collins & Muthusamy, 2007; Dyer & Nobeoka, 2000; Stanger, 1998). We propose that this is due to failure to imitate Toyota's core values, which are central to the effectiveness of its production system (Collins & Muthusamy, 2007). Toyota's value system includes the organization values of continuous improvement, high performance team environment, customer satisfaction, and safety, and the psychological values of respect and integrity. In all, these core values promote a philosophy of "coexistence and coprosperity" (Dyer & Nobeoka, 2000). It is therefore of interest to explore the degree to which this value system can generate positive effects in other organizational settings, just as Toyota's production system is considered an "industrial engineering paradigm" that crosses multiple industries (Collins & Muthusamy, 2007, p. 42).

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

Although many have argued that what gives Toyota its competitive edge is its unique strong culture, and its core value system in particular, no research has been conducted to analyze its effects and applicability in other organizational settings. Given the aforementioned research limitation, the main purpose of this study is to bridge the identified research gap and thus describe the extent to which the Toyota core value system can predict individual and organizational performance in a Cypriot broadcasting organization. Five of Toyota's six core values were included in this study. The sixth core value, "safety", was not included because it was not considered as relevant in the work environments examined.

The main research questions for this study were as follows:

1. To what extent are the assessed Toyota core values associated with each of the individual and organizational performance dimensions incorporated in the study?
2. Which of Toyota's core values can serve as predictors of individual and organizational performance?

Methodology

Instrument. The instrument used for this study consisted of a fifth generation organizational effectiveness questionnaire, which was designed to assess the organization in terms of numerous climate, employee attitude, and performance dimensions, as well as the five Toyota core values. The instrument used in the broadcasting organization was comprised of 193 Likert-type items using a 6 point scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree". The vast majority of the dimensions incorporated in the questionnaires were previously tested for validity and reliability in eight different organizations in the United States and additional two in Cyprus (Kontoghiorghes, 2009).

Subjects. The sampling frame of the study consisted of 317 employees, which represented the entire population of the company. In all, 197 of the employees returned the survey and the response rate was thus calculated at 62%. In short, 41.8% of the respondents were females and 58.2% males. In terms of education, 31% had a high school degree, 33.2% an associates degree, 26.1% a bachelors, and 9.8% a graduate degree. In terms of position held in the organization, the frequency distribution identified 1.1% of the respondents as senior managers, 8.6% as managers, 44.1% as salaried professional, 32.3% as administrative personnel, and 14% as contract employees.

Data analysis. Once the investigated dimensions were factor analyzed, construct validated and tested for reliability, correlational and multiple regression analyses helped describe the association of the investigated core values with individual and organizational performance in both organizations. The correlational and regression analyses were further utilized to describe the extent to which the Toyota core value system could predict performance in organizational settings other than Toyota.

Results and Findings

Reliability and correlational analysis. As indicated in Table 1, the vast majority of the dimensions included in this study were found to be highly reliable with the Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from 0.79 to 0.93. In terms of the correlational analysis, as shown in Table 1, all core values were found to be positively and significantly correlated with all investigated performance indicators at the 0.01 level. The correlations ranged from 0.290 to 0.727. In general, one can observe from Table 1 that the Toyota core values were found to be more highly correlated with performance at the organizational, rather than the individual level. The Toyota core value that was found to exhibit slightly higher correlations with the performance indicators was that of "*integrity*". Overall, the correlational data reflects a strong association between the Toyota core value system and individual as well as organizational performance. As shown in Table 1 the overwhelming majority of the correlations between the Toyota core values and performance indicators are above 0.50.

Regression analysis. Table 2 depicts the regression analyses results. The beta (b) values in the Tables describe the relative importance of each core value for each performance indicator.

Table 1. Pearson Correlations Between Toyota Core Values and Performance Measures

Factor	Coef. Alpha	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Continuous improvement	0.90																		
2. Customer satisfaction	0.86	.650**																	
3. High performance team environment	0.90	.478**	.492**																
4. Respect	0.86	.542**	.501**	.677**															
5. Integrity	0.90	.593**	.559**	.716**	.862**														
6. Job motivation	0.79	.344**	.305**	.461**	.424**	.383**													
7. Job satisfaction	0.90	.450**	.480**	.538**	.467**	.476**	.722**												
8. Orgl commitment	0.87	.317**	.290**	.365**	.443**	.477**	.516**	.500**											
9. No turnover of talented employees	0.88	.604**	.512**	.582**	.593**	.613**	.333**	.452**	.376**										
10. Quality performance	0.90	.738**	.694**	.533**	.535**	.557**	.309**	.541**	.329**	.630**									
11. Employee productivity	0.81	.570**	.569**	.494**	.452**	0.727**	.265**	.366**	.199*	.498**	.667**								
12. Effective recruitment and selection of talent	0.81	.586**	.483**	.710**	.668**	.688**	.375**	.473**	.355**	.650**	.608**	.449**							
13. Rapid change adaptation	0.84	.665**	.458**	.616**	.585**	.596**	.320**	.428**	.285**	.569**	.674**	.568**	.686**						
14. Rabid technology assimilation	0.90	.672**	.597**	.553**	.663**	.700**	.329**	.443**	.420**	.607**	.631**	.538**	.655**	.698**					
15. Speedy operations	0.93	.698**	.633**	.642**	.625**	.669**	.294**	.428**	.289**	.664**	.724**	.589**	.747**	.695**	.753**				
16. Provide best value to the customer	0.84	.679**	.687**	.601**	.593**	.667**	.309**	.430**	.323**	.697**	.718**	.612**	.651**	.594**	.692**	.811**			
17. Successful response to outside threats & opprtunities	0.90	.687**	.598**	.635**	.610**	.693**	.432**	.515**	.449**	.687**	.664**	.549**	.648**	.622**	.694**	.786**	.757**		
18. Innovative organization	0.94	.690**	.580**	.642**	.626**	.673**	.357**	.451**	.295**	.647**	.652**	.559**	.688**	.699**	.710**	.796**	.708**	.790**	
19.Competitive organization	0.90	.526**	.527**	.519**	.546**	.583**	.331**	.425**	.415**	.569**	.590**	.522**	.578**	.532**	.651**	.675**	.691**	.654**	.668**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level 2-tailed *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level 2-tailed N=197

R-Square values in turn reflect the proportion of the variance of the dependent measure accounted for by the five core values. Taking a look at the regression results in Table 2, we can observe that Speedy Operations was the performance indicator which had the largest amount of its variance accounted for (62.0%) by the five core values. The regression analysis identified "*Quality Driven Culture"* to be the strongest predictor of Speedy Operations (b = 0.341, $p < 0.01$). The five core values explained a large amount of the total variance of the performance indicator "Providing Best Value to the Customer" (60.8%) as well. "*Customer Satisfaction"* (b =

0.325, $p < 0.01$) and "*Quality Driven Culture"* (b = 0.268, $p < 0.01$) were found to be the strongest predictors of this dependent variable. Lastly, the five core values explained a big

percentage (60.0%) of the performance indicator "Quality Performance". Not surprisingly, *Quality Driven Culture* was found to be the strongest predictor of Quality Performance ($b = 0.436$, $p < 0.01$).

Summary, Discussion and Conclusions

The results of this study provide empirical evidence of a strong link between Toyota's core value system with individual and organizational performance in a Cypriot broadcasting organization. In particular, the correlational data indicated that there is strong association between the core values and the performance indicators in both organizations. In all, as expected, the core values of "*Quality Driven Culture*" and "*Customer Satisfaction"* were found to be highly associated with Quality Performance. The core value of "*Quality Driven Culture*" was found to be also highly associated with Fast and Successful Response to Environmental Threats and Opportunities. This could be attributed to the fact that a quality driven organization is always in a state of continuous improvement, change and thus evolution. This attribute in turn not only provides the organization the ability to be agile, but also to adapt to environmental threats easier, without having to undergo drastic changes or disruptions.

An additional significant finding of this study is the identification of "*High Performance Team Environment*" as a strong predictor and correlate of Effective Recruitment and Selection of Talented employees. This result demonstrates that aside from all other positive performance related outcomes organizations achieve through teamwork, a team based orientation seems to be a catalyst to talent attraction and retention as well.

The fourth core value investigated was that of "*Respect*". Respect was found to be highly correlated with Effective Recruitment and Selection of Talent as well as with Quality Performance. The explanation of this finding is twofold. Human beings by nature demand that others respect and do not take advantage of them. Therefore, organizations that have the core value or respect inherent in them would be considered much more attractive to outside candidates than those that are not known to be as good employers. Secondly, respect driven organizations are also known to be those who respect the customer and the environment. The underlying philosophy governing all transactions between a respect driven organization and third parties is a win-win resolution. Hence, if an organization genuinely respects the customer and the external environment in general, then it will do its best to produce goods or services that would be considered of a good value by the recipient. This is perhaps why quality is such a big priority for such a respect driven organizations as Toyota, and this is why the core value of respect was found to be associated with quality performance.

The fifth Toyota core value investigated by this study was that of "*Integrity*". Integrity was found to be highly correlated with numerous performance dimensions. This finding in essence confirms and exemplifies the critical importance of having Integrity as a cultural cornerstone of the organizational culture. Not only it has a direct impact on organizational actions and decision making processes, it further strongly affects the bottom line.

In summary, the results of this study help partly explain why Toyota has been a very successful company and very difficult to imitate. It is not just its production system that seems to propel the company to excellence and quality performance. The core value system of the company seems to be equally important and an important driver of all operations. All five core values investigated by this study have been found to be strong drivers of performance in a different industry and cultural environment. It is safe to conclude therefore, that the Toyota's core value system can be considered as a viable tool for competitive

advantage. Finally, it should be noted that the results of this study have demonstrated through empirical evidence how critical the core value system of a company is, and in particular how such a system is highly associated with employee attitudes and organizational performance.

Table 2. Regression Analysis of the Performance Dimensions

Variables	b	s.e	R^2	adj. R^2	ΔF
1. Dependent variable: Job Motivation			0.19	0,166	7.863**
Quality driven culture	.134	.096			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.015	.095			
High performance team environment	.193*	.098			
Respect is a core value	.291*	.132			
Integrity is a core value	-.113	.147			
2. Dependent variable: Job Satisfaction			0,27	0,251	12.477**
Quality driven culture	.166*	.091			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.123	.090			
High performance team environment	.24*	.092			
Respect is a core value	.143	.125			
Integrity is a core value	-.022	.138			
3. Dependent variable: Quality Performance			0,60	0,591	50.924**
Quality driven culture	.436**	.067			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.293**	.066			
High performance team environment	.145*	.068			
Respect is a core value	.023	.092			
Integrity is a core value	.032	.102			
4.Depentent variable: Productivity			.379	.361	20.513**
Quality driven culture	.214*	.083			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.184*	.082			
High performance team environment	.243**	.085			
Respect is a core value	-.040	.114			
Integrity is a core value	.152	.127			
5.Depentent variable: Rapid Change Adaptation/Implementation			.484	.469	31.524**
Quality driven culture	.348**	.076			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	-.014	.075			
High performance team environment	.335**	.077			
Respect is a core value	.165	.104			
Integrity is a core value	.001	.116			
6. Dependent variable: Speedy Operations			0,62	0,62	54.232**
Quality driven culture	.341**	.067			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.166*	.066			
High performance team environment	.285**	.068			
Respect is a core value	.054	.091			
Integrity is a core value	.136	.101			
7. Dependent variable: Rapid Technology Assimilation			.596	.584	49.490**
Quality driven culture	.269**	.068			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.152*	.067			
High performance team environment	.036	.069			
Respect is a core value	.131	.093			
Integrity is a core value	.324**	.103			
8. Dependent variable: Fast & Successful Response to Environmental Threats and Opportunities			.592	.580	48.839**
Quality driven culture	.401**	.068			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.060	.067			
High performance team environment	.177*	.069			
Respect is a core value	.111	.093			
Integrity is a core value	.177+	.103			

Table 2. Regression Analysis of the Performance Dimensions (cont.)

Variables	b	s.e	R^2	adj. R^2	ΔF
9. Dependent variable: Innovative Organization			.566	.553	43.867**
Quality driven culture	.350**	.070			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.105	.069			
High performance team environment	.226**	.071			
Respect is a core value	.044	.096			
Integrity is a core value	.195+	.107			
10. Dependent variable: Effective Recruitment and Selection of Talent			0,555	0,541	41.842**
Quality driven culture	.193	.071			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.015	.070			
High performance team environment	.352	.072			
Respect is a core value	.217	.097			
Integrity is a core value	.115	.108			
11.Depentent variable: Provide Best Value to the Customer			.608	.596	52.106**
Quality driven culture	.268**	.066			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.325**	.065			
High performance team environment	.130+	.067			
Respect is a core value	-.001	.091			
Integrity is a core value	.215	.101			
12. Dependent variable: Competitiveness			.416	.399	23,933**
Quality driven culture	.074	.082			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.265**	.081			
High performance team environment	.117	.083			
Respect is a core value	.084	.112			
Integrity is a core value	.244+	.124			
13. Dependent variable: No turnover of Talented Employees			.437	.420	26.099**
Quality driven culture	.302**	.079			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.047	.078			
High performance team environment	.208*	.080			
Respect is a core value	.146	.109			
Integrity is a core value	.097	.120			
14. Dependent variable: Commitment			.224	.200	9.335**
Quality driven culture	-.022	.096			
Customer satisfaction/loyalty	.033	.094			
High performance team environment	.043	.097			
Respect is a core value	.105	.131			
Integrity is a core value	.345*	.145			

+ p<0.10 , * p<0.05 , ** P<0.01

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The Safe Mindset of Managers, Shift Bosses and Miners of a South African Platinum Mine

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Abstract

The aim of this research was to determine the safe mindset of Managers, Shift bosses and miners in a South African Platinum mine. The Safe Human Mindset Measuring Instrument (SHMI) was administered among a purposive selected sample of Managers (N_1=18), Shift bosses (N_2=28) and Miners (N_3=60). Results showed statistically significant differences between Managers and Miner supervisors in terms relationship credibility, climate, trust, caring support, ownership physical work environment and safety intent. Statistically significant differences exist between managers and shift bosses in terms of trust and caring support and between shift bosses and miner supervisors in terms of ownership. The results have dire consequences for communication lower down the hierarchy, teambuilding and participation in health and safety matters. Recommendations are made.

Introduction

The mining industry in South Africa is in a process of transformation. The transformation can be ascribed to various influences such as the impact of health and safety legislation, the process of the conversion of mineral rights, employment equity and black economic empowerment and globalisation. Central to the transformation process is maintaining and improving production output in a safe manner. Within organisational context where safety is concerned, Hidley (2004) states that leadership is one of the most crucial factors contributing to organisational success and to safety effort. Since the leadership role, more than anything else shapes and influences the culture that produces performance outcomes, with regards to safety, demonstrated leadership is found to be one of the most critical aspects.

According to Schutte (2004) the mindset or motivational intent of a workforce is fundamentally shaped by the relationship credibility, which leads to a specific climate (work life experience) resulting in a specific culture (behaviour in company context). Relationship credibility embraces the trueness of the work relationship and the inherent caring character that bonds individuals as a team and moulds or shapes the workforce mindset or motivational intent (Schutte, 1998). Fundamental to relationship credibility are the key factors of trust, support, ownership and respect (Maritz, 2003). Credible leadership must ensure sound relations on the shop floor (at the workplace) by creating a specific climate and a compelling work atmosphere that results in a specific value-based culture and common beliefs, which are lived by all, so creates the desired safe behaviour. Schutte (2004) postulates that the lack of credible leadership that must ensure a compelling place to work and who have not instilled common values and beliefs result in a poor mindset or low motivation resulting in a fatalistic approach. Leadership thus plays an important role in the behaviour of employees in the work situation and contributes to the minimising of work related incidents and injuries (Heyneke, 2003).

The effect and influence that leaders have on followers have been amplified in various studies. However, the study of leadership behaviour as a contributing factor in organisational safety is a relatively young science since the first reported studies in the 1980's (Sutherland, Makin & Cox, 2000). Research indicates that unsafe behaviour contributes 87% and more to incidents and injuries (including fatalities) on a mine studied (Heyneke, 2003). Besides the moral imperative to mine safely (Haase, 2003), the negative attention that injuries and fatalities attract from both society and the larger investment community is not in the interest of the industry. Thus, when leaders in an organisational safety context have a mindset conducive to safe production, their subordinates would also develop a mindset conducive to safe production resulting in safe behaviour. This research attempts to establish the safe motivational mindset (safety motivational intent) of the Managers, Shift bosses and Miners for purposes of identifying significant differences between the three leader levels from which conclusions can be drawn and interventions recommended.

Hypotheses

One integrative and eight sub-hypotheses were formulated for this research.

H 1 **There is no statistical significant difference between the safe mindset index of Managers, Shift bosses and Miners.**

H 1.1 There is no statistical significant difference between Managers, Shift bosses and Miners in terms of relationship credibility

H 1.2 There is no statistical significant difference between Managers, Shift bosses and Miners in terms of climate

H 1.3 There is no statistical significant difference between Managers, Shift bosses and Miners in terms of culture

H 1.4 There is no statistical significant difference between Managers, Shift bosses and Miners in terms of trust

H 1.5 There is no statistical significant difference between Managers, Shift bosses and Miners in terms of caring support

H 1.6 There is no statistical significant difference between Managers, Shift bosses and Miners in terms of ownership

H 1.7 There is no statistical significant difference between Managers, Shift bosses and Miners in terms of the physical work environment

H 1.8 There is no statistical significant difference between Managers, Shift bosses and Miners in terms of the safety intent

RESEARCH DESIGN

This study was a cross-sectional research design in that data from more than one group was collected at a fixed point in time and then compared, in terms of the different leadership groups. This design is ideally suited to the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlation research (Shaunessey & Zechmeister, 1997).

Participants

The participants of the study were Managers (N_1=18), Shift bosses (N_2=28) and Miners (N_3=60) of a South African platinum mine. The above participants represent the total population and a 100% response rate was obtained with all questionnaires usable for data analysis.

Measuring instrument

The Safe Human Mindset Instrument (SHMI' 'Schutte, 1998) was used to measure the measure the safe mindset of the employees. The SHMI consists of 60 items and measure the constructs of Relationship Credibility (i.e. trust, caring support, respect, and ownership), Climate (i.e. work satisfaction, physical work environment, safety intent) and Culture. All items (statements) are scored on a 4-point Lickert type scale, which elicit responses from 'strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree' (4). Acceptable internal consistencies were found for the subscales ranging from 0.71 to 0.95 (Schutte, 1998).

Data analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out with the SPSS Program (SPSS, 2009). The reliability and validity of the SHMI was determined by means of Cronbach alpha coefficients, as well as exploratory factor analysis. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the significance of differences between safe mindset and managers, shift bosses and miners. The application of Scheffé (subsequent to the ANOVA F-ratio) post hoc tests were applied as a multiple comparisons test to compare the three leader groups with one another.

RESULTS

Prior to the testing of hypotheses, the psychometric properties of the SHMI were examined. The Kolmogorov-Smirnhov test was applied to test for the normality of the sample. The $p = .200$, $p > 0.05$ result of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was non significant and consequently did not deviate from normality (Field, 2005). The normal frequency distribution facilitates the application of parametric tests. Next a principal component factor analysis was performed on the SHMI. The results showed one underlying factor for the SHMI, which was labelled safe health mindset. The factor showed an acceptable internal consistency of 0.91.

The testing of the hypotheses was conducted on three levels. The first level of analysis addressed the Safe Human Mindset Index. The second level of statistical analysis addressed the constructs of Relationship Credibility, Climate and Culture (which the SHMI measures), and the third level of statistical analysis addressed the various sub constructs (trust, caring support, ownership, physical work environment and safety intent) those which reflected acceptable Cronbach Alpha Coefficient values > 0.70.

Next an Anova was done to assess the relationship between the three leadership levels and the combined variable of safe health mindset. The results are reported in Table 1 below.

Table 1. ANOVA F- ratio Comparison of Between Subject effects for the three leader groups and dependent variable Safe Health Mindset

Dependent Variable: Safe Health Mindset								
Source	**Type III Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**	**Partial Eta Squared**	**R^2**	**ΔR^2**
Corrected Model	1.236(a)	2	.618	5.264	.007	.093	.093	.075
Intercept	718.777	1	718.777	6124.536	.000	.983		
Group	1.236	2	.618	5.264	.007	.093		
Error	12.088	103	.117					
Total	892.741	106						
Corrected Total	13.324	105						

Table 1 shows that statistically significant differences exist between the leadership groups based on safe health mindset ($F_{(2, 103)} = 5.264$, $p < 0{,}01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0{,}093$). Further post hoc tests revealed that managers reported significantly higher levels of safe health mindset than miners. Hypothesis 1 is thus rejected.

Next, Anovas were done to assess the relationship between the three leadership groups and the constructs of relationship credibility, climate and culture. The results are reported in Table 2 below.

Table 2. ANOVA F-ratio Comparison of Between Subject effects for the three leader groups and dependent variables (Relationship credibility, Climate, Culture)

Dependent Variable: Relationship Credibility								
Source	**Type III Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**	**Partial Eta Squared**	**R^2**	**ΔR^2**
Corrected Model	1.965(a)	2	.983	6.793	.002	.117	.117	.099
Intercept	708.270	1	708.270	4896.317	.000	.979		
Group	1.965	2	.983	6.793	.002	.117		
Error	14.899	103	.145					
Total	874.600	106	.983					
Corrected Total	16.865	105	708.270					
Dependent Variable: Climate								
Corrected Model	2.744(a)	2	1.372	8.184	.001	.137	.137	.120
Intercept	765.439	1	765.439	4566.241	.000	.978		
Group	2.744	2	1.372	8.184	.001	.137		
Error	17.266	103	.168					
Total	939.998	106						
Corrected Total	20.010	105						
Dependent Variable: Culture								
Corrected Model	.402(a)	2	.201	1.626	.202	.031	.031	.012
Intercept	709.248	1	709.248	5736.637	.000	.982		
Group	.402	2	.201	1.626	.202	.031		
Error	12.734	103	.124					
Total	895.280	106	.201					
Corrected Total	13.136	105	709.248					

Table 3 shows that statistically significant differences exist between the management groups based on relationship credibility ($F_{(2, 103)} = 6.79$, $p < 0{,}01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0{,}117$) and Climate ($F_{(2, 103)} = 8.184$, $p < 0{,}01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0{,}137$). The Scheffé Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test

showed that Managers scored significantly higher than Miner supervisors on relationship credibility (mean difference = 0.373) and Climate (mean difference = 0.425). Both effects are medium. No statistically significant differences were found between groups based on culture. Based on the above results Hypothesis 1.1 and 1.2 are rejected and Hypothesis 1.3 accepted.

Next Anovas were done to assess the relationships between the three leadership groups and the sub-constructs of trust, caring support, ownership, physical environment and safety intent. The results are reported in Table 3 below.

Table 3. ANOVA F-ratio Comparison of Between Subject effects for the three management groups and dependent variables (Trust, Caring Support, Ownership, Physical Environment, Safety Intent)

Dependent Variable: Trust								
Source	**Type III Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**	**Partial Eta Squared**	**R^2**	**ΔR^2**
Corrected Model	1.357(a)	2	.679	4.491	.013	.080	.080	.062
Intercept	666.601	1	666.601	4411.315	.000	.977		
Group	1.357	2	.679	4.491	.013	.080		
Error	15.565	103	.151					
Total	834.735	106						
Corrected Total	16.922	105						
Dependent Variable: Caring Support								
Corrected Model	2.018(a)	2	1.009	5.330	.006	.094	.094	.076
Intercept	699.527	1	699.527	3694.651	.000	.973		
Group	2.018	2	1.009	5.330	.006	.094		
Error	19.502	103	.189					
Total	868.809	106						
Corrected Total	21.520	105						
Dependent Variable: Ownership								
Corrected Model	3.724(a)	2	1.862	8.864	.000	.147	.147	.130
Intercept	775.273	1	775.273	3690.913	.000	.973		
Group	3.724	2	1.862	8.864	.000	.147		
Error	21.635	103	.210					
Total	949.058	106						
Corrected Total	25.359	105						
Dependent Variable: Physical Environment								
Corrected Model	1.577(a)	2	.788	3.479	.035	.063	.063	.045
Intercept	827.439	1	827.439	3651.958	.000	.973		
Group	1.577	2	.788	3.479	.035	.063		
Error	23.337	103	.227					
Total	1035.049	106						
Corrected Total	24.914	105						
Dependent Variable: Safety Intent								
Corrected Model	3.057(a)	2	1.529	4.072	.020	.073	.073	.055
Intercept	675.451	1	675.451	1799.007	.000	.946		
Group	3.057	2	1.529	4.072	.020	.073		
Error	38.672	103	.375					
Total	847.944	106						
Corrected Total	41.730	105						

Table 3 shows that statistically significant differences exist between the management groups based on relationship trust ($F_{(2, 103)} = 4.491$, $p < 0{,}01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0{,}80$), caring support ($F_{(2,}$

$_{103)}$ = 5,330 p < 0,01, partial η^2 = 0,094), ownership ($F_{(2, 103)}$ = 8.864, p < 0,01, partial η^2 = 0,417), physical environment ($F_{(2, 103)}$ = 3.479, p < 0,01, partial η^2 = 0,063) and safety intent ($F_{(2, 103)}$ = 4.072, p < 0,01, partial η^2 = 0,073). Further post-hoc tests revealed that managers scored significantly higher on all trust, caring support, ownership, physical work environment and safety intent than miner supervisors. Managers also scored higher on trust and caring support than shift bosses. In addition, shift bosses reported significantly higher levels of ownership than miner supervisors. The effects for trust, caring support, physical work environment and safety intent were small, whereas the effect for ownership is medium. Hypotheses 1.4 to 1.8 are rejected.

A summary of the empirical results is presented in Table 4 below

Table 4. Summary of Empirical Results

	SHMI	Relationship Credibility	Climate	Culture	Trust	Caring Support	Ownership	Physical Environment	Safety Intent
Managers-Shift bosses	p=.081, p>.05	p=.106, p>.05	✱ p=.037, p<.05	p=.596, p>.05	✱ p=.04, p<.05	p=.103, p>.05	p=.333, p>.05	p=.15, p>.05	p=.081, p>.05
Shiftbosses-Miners	p=.388, p>.05	p=.346, p>.05	p=.053, p>.05	p=.758, p>.05	p=.999, p>.05	p=.615, p>.05	✱ p=.038, p<.05	p=.506, p>.05	p=.388, p>.05
Managers-Miners	✱ p=.000, p<.05	✱ p=.002, p<.05	✱ p=.000, p<.05	p=.209, p>.05	✱ p=.01, p<.05	✱ p=.006, p<.05	✱ p=.001, p<.05	✱ p=.000 p<.05	✱ p=.000 p<.05

✱Significant differences

Table 4 shows that statistically significant differences exist between Managers and Shift bosses in terms of climate and trust. Shift bosses and miners differed statically significantly in terms of caring support. Managers and Miners differed statistically significantly on all dimensions except for Culture.

DISCUSSION

The aim of this research was to determine the safety mindset of Managers, Shift bosses and miners in a South African Platinum mine. Combined the results showed that Managers scored statistically significantly higher than Miners on significantly Safety Mindset, Climate, Culture, Trust, Caring Support, Ownership, Physical Work Environment and Safety Intent. The results are in line with O'Dea and Flin (2003) who identified different responsibilities for safety at different leader levels in the organisation which support the findings of this study. Schutte (1998) argues that relationship credibility embraces the trueness of a working relationship that bonds individuals as a team through a caring process. The empirical study of Singh (2007) supports the importance of credible relationships. Building credible

relationships is an emotional intelligent leader trait. Singh (2007) associates emotional intelligence with organisational learning ability and states emotionally intelligent leaders created credible relationships that significantly enhance performance, goodwill and trust. An empirical study by Hamlin and Sawyer (2007) not only found that leaders needed to create ownership within subordinates, but needed to develop themselves to take ownership. Failure to incorporate these new styles of management would lead to perceptions of being ineffective as leaders. A study by Wills, Watson and Biggs (2006) found the extent to which management provided support to employees was a contributor to safe performance.

The result of no statistically significant difference between Shift boss and Miners leads to the conclusion that an organisational climate conclusive to safe production has not been established to the expectations of management below Managerial level (Shift boss and downwards). Clarke and Ward (2006) found in an empirical study that leadership influence, associated with a transformational style mediated organisational climate. O'Dea and Flin (2003) also found that management attitude influenced attitudes and behaviours of middle management, which in turn influenced relationships and styles of leadership down the organisational hierarchy. The various organisational leaders consequently influence the organisational climate. Van Aardt's (1995) empirical research found that when employees perceived organisational commitment for safety, their belief system of safety was greatly enhanced. Similarly, an empirical study by Larsson, Sjöberg, Vrbanjac and Björkman (2005) found that indirect leadership consisting of interaction down the line and role modelling contributed to a culture of safety commitment and participation.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the study elicits the factors that influence and contribute to the safe mindset of the Manager, Shift boss and Miner leader levels in the organisation. The Safe Human (Mindset) Model provides a sound theoretical and management model which, when applied, suggests focus areas from which interventions can be planned and executed. The model is a diagnostic instrument that assists in managing safety either re-actively or pro-actively in eliminating incidents and fatalities. The identified areas for development refer to people, (credible relationship), processes (work environment) and systems development, which require a focussed organisational development process. Involving employees meaningfully on the individual level in job and safety related matters will reinforce a risk-minimizing employee attitude and improve safety behaviour. It is proposed that leaders at the various levels are equipped with coaching skills that include demonstration of complex tasks, advice and instruction in such ways that would empower employees and reinforce trust, respect, dignity and ownership.

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Implicit as Compared with Explicit Safety Procedures: The Experiences of Israeli Nurses

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Abstract

The gap between safety policy and practice has extensively reported in the literature. This study aims to explore nurses' implicit safety theories concerning when to comply with safety rules. Using semi-structured interviews, observations and documentary evidence from 90 nurses, we identified five implicit rules nurses develop for when and how to protect themselves. These include: "continue patient care at all price," "don't disturb other nurses' work," "it cannot happen to me!", "be aware of recently occurring accidents," and "protect yourself only when significant others are present." These implicit rules seem to be reinforced by personal, social and contextual factors at the unit, limiting the likelihood that the decision makers (nurses) will discover their fallacy.

Introduction

Hospitals are dangerous places for their workers in general, and nurses are arguably at higher risk than any other health care workers (Mark et al., 2007). For example, according to the United States Department of Labor, hospitals have a higher incidence rate of nonfatal occupational injuries (7.5) than the construction (6.2) and manufacturing (5.6) industries, as well as trade, transportation and utilities (5.6) (DOL, 2005). Moreover, unlike other hazardous industries, such as agriculture and construction, preventable injury rates in health care have increased over the past decade (DHHS, 2004b). Nevertheless, a review of the literature addressing safety in hospitals revealed that the overwhelming majority focused on patient safety, whereas care for those in caring roles has not been a priority (Foley, 2004; Mark et al., 2007). Moreover, research into nurses' safety has been limited almost exclusively to descriptive studies that documented injury rates or identified isolated job/personal factors associated with increased injury risk. These studies provided little insight into the processes involved in decision-making regarding the nurse's safety. The present study addressed these gaps in the literature. Taking a qualitative approach, the aim of the study was to explore nurses' decision-making processes that lead them to conclude whether or not to follow safety procedures.

Background

Approaches to employee safety in most health care organizations have been limited to modifying individual behavior through enforced compliance with safety rules and procedures and mandatory participation in safety training (Mark et al., 2007). Inspired by the movement of evidence-based medicine (Sackett et al., 2000) and clinical governance (Scally & Donaldson, 1998), it was assumed that the standardization of work tasks, in the

form of evidence-based guidelines, checklists and systematic processes, could potentially reduce the opportunities for sub-standard safety behavior (Parker & Lawton, 2000). Nevertheless, enforced compliance with safety rules and procedures and mandatory participation in safety training have been of only modest benefit in reducing injuries (Henriksen & Dayton, 2006; Mark et al., 2007). Apparently, what mattered was not merely the existence of procedures and training systems, but their implementation (Reason 1997). Namely, health care workers recognized the precautions, policies and safety procedures and acknowledged the rationale behind them, but failed to put them into practice (e.g., Leliopoulou, et al., 1999).

Hence, the question of why health care workers and nurses in particular did not comply has arisen. One channel of research focused on role variables, arguing that the way nursing was structured might elevate the likelihood of noncompliance to precautions, policies and safety procedures. Examples are low staffing levels, (Clarke, Rockett, Sloane, & Aiken, 2002), work conditions (Mark et al., 2007), rotating shift work, fatigue and sleep disorders (e.g., Foley, 2004) and heavy workload (Foley, 2004; Ramsay et al 2006). However, Hofmann and Stetzer (1998) described this tendency to give generalized external explanations for noncompliance as a "defensive attribution trap," because it rarely leads to a clear assessment of an accident's root cause or to identification of effective countermeasures. The latter is especially true in today's health care environment, which is increasingly controlled by fiscal constraints. When the prevalent reasoning in many nursing departments is "as long as the nursing occupation will suffer from understaffing, lack of adequate equipment, and workload, accidents will continue to happen and there is nothing we can do about it," the high occurrences of noncompliance to safety rules is not surprising (Folie, 2004). More recently, researchers have suggested that informal aspects of the work environment might also be factors that affect safety in the health care industry (Stone & Gershon, 2006; Mark et al., 2007). In a series of studies, Gershon et al. showed that units with more positive organizational climate or units in hospitals that had attained magnet accreditation had lower rates of occupational injuries, as well as blood and body fluid exposures (Stone, Du & Gershon, 2007; Stone & Gershon, 2006).

Albeit promising, this line of research focused on situational and contextual factors, while neglecting personal factors elevating noncompliance and the acquisition of risky habits. Thus, a second channel of research, addressing noncompliance with safety rules, focused on identifying personal factors inherent to the nurse's motivation and/or skills. Examples are: nurses' knowledge of safety risks and adequate precautions to cope with those hazards (e.g., Foley, 2004; Leliopoulou, et al., 1999); and nurses motivation in terms of work engagement (Mark, et al., 2007). After reviewing a number of accidents across organizational settings, Perrow (1984) reported that 60-80% were attributed to operators, even though a closer examination yielded more conservative estimates of 30-40% (Perrow, 1984). Reason (1994) described this tendency to blame the most proximal individual as the "blame trap." Specifically, as focusing on faulty role variables overestimates the influence of situational variables (e.g., Hofmann & Stetzer, 1998), focusing on individuals overestimates personal factors leading to noncompliance with safety rules and increased safety accidents, and hence does not provoke learning from unsafe behavior and continuous improvement.

Inspired by the wide recognition that "to err is human", researchers have begun to explore the nurses' decision-making processes, which facilitate or hinder compliance with safety procedures. These studies suggested that nurses underestimated their occupational risk and therefore overlooked safety guidelines (Leliopoulou et al., 1999). For example, Leliopoulou et al. (1999) compared the perceptions of nurses working in high- versus low-risk units for contracting infection. They found that although nurses from the higher risk group were more

aware of the risks imposed by blood and body fluids than nurses from the lower risk group, no statistically significant difference in responses was found between the two groups, suggesting that nurses from both groups believed actual risk of contracting a blood-borne infection to be more theoretical than real. This study built on this literature, seeking to understand the decision-making process that leads to nurses' conclusions about a particular risk: whether real and hence requiring compliance with safety rules, or theoretical, allowing "cutting corners" and ignoring safety rules.

Method

The sample consisted of nurses from 15 nursing units (internal, geriatric and pediatric) in four hospitals in the north of Israel. In each unit, four to seven nurses were interviewed and observed. Of the 90 nurses recruited, 72% were women. Average age was 36.02 years (SD=8.53). Mean tenure of nurses in the department was 7.38 years (SD=6.23), and in the nursing profession 9.64 years (SD= 8.67). Most were registered nurses (83%). Of these, 50% had a bachelor's degree and an additional 5% had a master's degree. Data were collected in 2008 via a variety of research methods, including observations, formal interviewing, and documentary evidence.

The observation included nine one-hour observations (at different times of the day) in each nursing department. A research assistant, who was a nursing student approaching the end of his studies, and was thus familiar with safety procedures, observed nurses caring for patients and noted whether they deviated from safety procedures. When violations were detected, the researcher approached the nurses in question, asked whether they knew that a violation had occurred and whether they were familiar with the relevant safety precautions, and invited them to be interviewed for the study. The in-depth, 90-minute interviews were semi-structured, in which participants were asked to talk about the risk factors in their workplace, how these could be avoided, and under which circumstances they decide to evade the safety policies. The interviews were analyzed via thematic content analysis, following the three stages recommended by Strauss & Corbin (1998): open coding, axial coding, and integration. Documentary evidence consisted of the unit's safety regulations.

Results

Content analysis of the interviews revealed five themes apparently serving as guiding principles for nurses when deciding whether to comply with safety rules and whether or not to protect themselves. The first theme referred to continuing the care for patients in as efficient and caring a manner as possible, even at the expense of not protecting oneself. Nurses expressed their commitment to patients, not only in emergency situations, but also during daily work at the unit, highlighting that wearing personal protective equipment might cause the patient to sense repulsion on the part of the nurse. The next example underscores this motif in the nurses' decision-making processes:

> In an emergency, you're not exactly thinking about gloves, you just get on with the job and take care of the patient. This is your instinct. It is unconscious. If you see a patient in distress, you immediately approach him, and do what is necessary to provide care.

> If you get pricked in the process, then so be it. In these situations, you think more about how to save the patient than how to protect yourself

Nurses frequently weighed the risks involved in protecting themselves against those involved in continuing the care for patients, while unprotected. The consequences of not wearing personal protection equipment were deferred, whereas the consequences of not continuing the patient's care were more proximal. Therefore, nurses often chose to "cut corners", ignore safety procedures and continue caring for patients without taking the necessary precautions.

> Several days ago, one of my patients had an epileptic seizure. We have priorities here. In emergencies, the risk that a patient could inhale oral secretions into the respiratory system is higher than my own risk when providing care without gloves.

Another consideration expressed by the nurses was the (in)convenience involved in using personal protective equipment. Again, nurses seemed to weigh the convenience of working without personal protective equipment, allowing the provision of quality care for patients, against the risk of working unprotected. Here too, as illustrated in the following quote, care for patients received priority.

> Under some circumstances, I do not wear gloves, even though I know I should. For example, when taking urine and excrement tests, you need to conduct the test, transfer the secretion to the test tube, write the note, and so forth. Gloves are inconvenient, especially when working with small children. So I often leave the gloves off. It is more efficient like this. Gloves are really inconvenient to work with.

In sum, the attitude of "continuing to provide the most efficient and quality care for patients, even at the expense of not protecting oneself," lead nurses to place the patient's benefit before their own, especially when the precautions were inconvenient, or the related risks were deferred.

The second theme identified in the interviews and observations referred to the need to present oneself as self-reliant, and capable of working independently without the assistance of others. Nurses admitted preferring to risk their own safety, to avoid having to interrupt their colleagues' work. In the next example, a nurse lifted a heavy patient alone, without using elevating aids. When confronted, he answered:

> This is a large, crowded unit. All the nurses are busy with their patients. Calling someone to help me will take time - from both me and my colleague. I examined the patient and saw that I could lift him alone. I am new in the unit, and have to prove that I can work independently of others. I do not want to show my colleagues that I need help.

The attitude of "it cannot happen to me!" served as a third guide in directing nurses when deciding for or against safety precautions. Here, the nurses relied on factors that could provide a false sense of security, such as their good health, professional judgment, cumulative bedside experience, and expertise, which supposedly protected them against accidents. The safety procedures served as default for other, particularly young and inexperienced nurses. However, they continued to develop a parallel set of rules of thumb, based on these falsely reassuring factors, to guide their decision of whether or not to take precautions. The following example describes a nurse levering a patient with KPC, without wearing personal protection equipment. The nurse said:

> My immune system is strong enough. I do not need protection. The protection is aimed at preventing patient-to-patient infection, not at us. A healthy person's immune system is strong enough.

Moreover, based on their cumulative experience, nurses perceived themselves as able to predict which patients might be contaminated and therefore a source of risk, and which patients will be safe.

> When a new patient is hospitalized in the unit, we usually try to find out about his background. If he comes from a good family, with no background of drugs, or is married with children, we can assume that he probably does not have HIV or hepatitis, or any other infection. Children also have lower risk of HIV or hospital bacteria infection.

Hence, it seems that nurses relied on their experience and instincts to develop implicit theories as to whether to use protection or not, leading them to conclude that "it cannot happen to me." It seems that safety rules were for novices, but experienced personnel could rely on their own judgment. A frequent argument was: "By the way, I do not see the physicians working with gloves." This emphasized that experts worked according to internal rules developed through professional experience, and not by administration-enforced safety procedures.

The fourth theme identified in the observations and interviews affecting nurses' decision processes referred to the frequency of accidents in the department. Usually, after an accident had occurred, attention was focused to guard against recurrence in the department. Nevertheless, because of the relatively small number of serious adverse events in any individual unit, as well as a general under-reporting of such events, many nurses did not perceive the occupational safety problem as relevant to them.

> After a needle-stick case in the unit, everybody abides by the safety rules, and uses personal protection equipment. However, after a few days, nurses return to their former habits, they leave needles in undesignated places, and do not use gloves and other protective measures while taking blood tests, and so forth.

Hence, nurses tended to judge certain events to be frequent or infrequent, based on how easily they could recall specific examples of the event, leading to an increase in safety behavior immediately following an accident, with a fade-out effect a short time after.

The fifth and final theme guiding nurses' decision-making processes referred to the presence of others in the situation, in particular the head nurse or students.

> Nurses usually tend to adhere more to safety rules when the head nurse is around or when students are present in the unit. It’s the responsibility of the head nurse to make sure that staff-nurses use personal protection equipment.

Thus, it seems that the fear of being caught and punished affected nurses' decision-making, elevating the probability of adhering to safety procedures in the presence of significant others, especially the head nurse. At the same time, this quote also highlights organizational silence regarding occupational safety. In an attempt to maintain the nurse's reputation, as well as that of the entire unit, accidents or near accidents were rarely discussed.

Discussion

Despite nurses' general awareness of the high occupational risk factors in their workplace, and their acknowledgement of the safety procedures aimed at lowering these risks, we found, in accordance with previous research, that they frequently "cut corners" and did not comply with these safety rules (e.g., Leliopoulou et al., 1999). Alternatively, as indicated by the

findings of the present study, nurses apparently developed implicit theories for when and how to protect themselves. These findings highlight that whereas nurses' non-adherence to safety rules might appear to have a random quality, it occurs in systematic and predictable ways. Many of these deviations from safety procedures stemmed from the uncritical use of implicit theories, heuristics, rules of thumb, and self-assessments that led to biased decision-making during day-to-day conduct in the unit (Henriksen & Dayton, 2006).

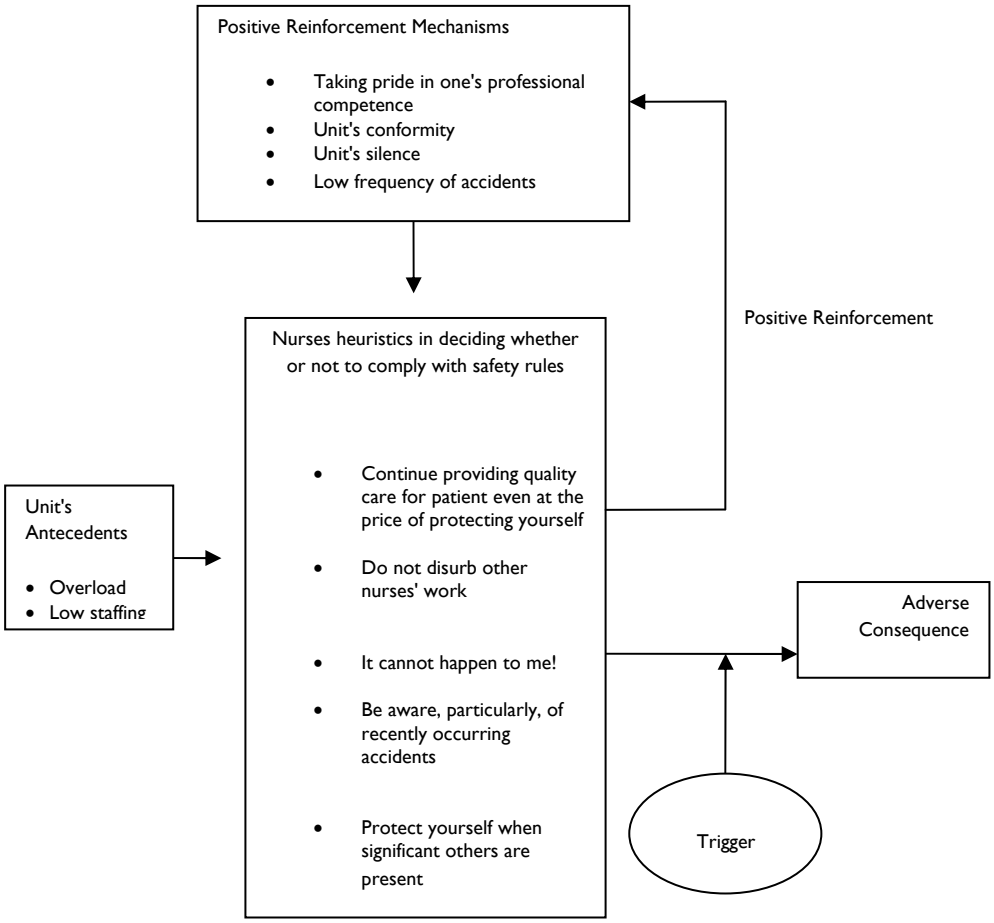
Moreover, these implicit rules seemed to be reinforced by personal, social and contextual factors at the unit, limiting the likelihood that the decision makers (nurses) would discover their fallacy. First, taking pride in one's competence to provide quality care for patients and saving lives in emergency situations without the assistance of others served as an immediate reward for not using personal protection equipment. The negative reward coupled with the possibility of personal harm was deferred, and was thus less reinforcing. Second, the social environment apparently reinforced compliance or noncompliance behaviors. Nurses, like other individuals working in teams, look to others for valuable sources of information and behavioral guidance (Aronson, 1999). If they perceive, as noted by the nurses in our sample, that physicians or other staff members do not comply with the safety rules, they will tend to conform to this norm. Conformity is abetted when staff members wish to gain acceptance in a group, especially if the group is composed of experts and when a knowledge differential exists between the target person and certain members of the group, or when the group is important to the target person, who will identify more readily with group members (Henriksen & Dayton, 2006). In contrast, if they perceive that management appreciates and rewards safety behaviors, they comply more readily with safety rules. Finally, because most of the time, not wearing personal protection equipment does not lead to serious accidents, many nurses do not acknowledge the fallacy of these heuristics, and mistakenly perceive their implicit theories as correct. Moreover, as our findings indicated, because of organizational silence, namely, the collective level phenomenon of doing or saying very little in response to serious organizational problems (Morrisson & Milliken, 2000), such as occupational safety, even the infrequent accidents are swept under the carpet. Incidents that are not acknowledged or brought out into the open cannot be addressed.

Figure 1 presents the model derived from the study's findings to describe the role of heuristics in discouraging safety behavior. As illustrated, the likelihood of unsafe occupational safety behavior producing adverse consequences can be understood in terms of the combined effects of the following: (a) Random trigger events that combine with unsafe behavior. (b) Positive reinforcement that increases unsafe behaviors through processes such as taking pride in working independently to enhance patient's quality of care. (c) Unit antecedents that cause unsafe behavior, such as stress and workload.

Although understanding how to change this phenomenon is beyond the scope of this observational study, we can speculate that efforts to encourage safety behavior will require breaking the positive reinforcement loops by addressing psychological, organizational and contextual factors, rather than any one of these in isolation. This viewpoint is consistent with other researchers who have found that organizational improvement efforts require attention to multiple aspects of organizational life (Mark et al., 2007). First, if workers are to comply with safety rules, this activity must be an explicit part of their job and enough time must be allocated to improving efforts in this area. Hence, the goal of occupational safety should be advocated as loudly and as firmly as the goal of providing quality care for patients, not only because of their compatibility, but also because nurses deserve to work in an environment that respects their health and safety (Tucker & Edmondson, 2002). Second, to combat narratives such as "professionals should work independently and cope by themselves", leaders should assimilate structural changes, and strengthen cultural values, such as

collectivism and egalitarianism, which are compatible with, rather than violated by, mutual assistance (Drach-Zahavy, 2004, Granzow & Theberge, 2009). Third, when it comes to self-serving bias and attribution error, one way is to be aware of its operation and correct it when it occurs. Another way to improve the subjective lens through which nurses evaluate themselves is with prompt, objective feedback that is difficult to deny (Henriksen & Dayton, 2006). Fourth, organizational silence regarding infrequent events can be countered by increasing the availability of these events. Because of our susceptibility to vividness and recent effects, they can be used to our advantage when we wish to focus the spotlight on events that might otherwise go unnoticed. Discussions of near misses and accidents, independent of their actual likelihood, in staff meetings, written protocols and informal story telling, will increase the salience of the event and the perceived risk (Henriksen & Dayton, 2006). Fifth, acknowledging the effect of the presence of others can be used to promote safety behaviors. As the head nurse cannot be constantly present at the unit, all staff members can be encouraged to enforce safety precautions, by commenting on colleagues' deviations from safety rules. Finally, the nurses in our study did not seem to be looking at the impact of their safety behaviors on the safety of their patients. The findings of this study might be useful in providing the Faculty of Nursing at the university with a perspective for catalyzing a shift in nurses' thinking in this direction.

Figure 1: Positive reinforcement loops rewarding nurses' heuristics



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The Leader's Role in the Creation of a Learning Organisation (Pursuant to Senge's Concept) and Organisational Culture

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Abstract

The paper is based on comparative studies conducted by the author with students in one Estonian manufacturing and one service company in 2005 (N = 174) and 2008 (N = 194). The questionnaire was based on Senge's five disciplines. The author analyses free responses concerning the companies' employee evaluations, working environment descriptions, the employees' thoughts and proposals. The comparison is based on the responses before the creation of a learning organisation strategy and the responses given two years later, when the management was developing a learning organisation. The findings demonstrate that a company's purposefully planned development based on the characteristics of a learning organisation affects the organisational culture positively.

Introduction

Organisational learning (OL) is related to an individual's behaviour in the organisation and the organisation's capability to react more effectively to changes in the environment. Today all organisations must cope with haste and numerous internal and external processes of change. Companies, organisations and governments must act in a remarkably changed global environment while the swift development of ICT has altered the meaning of business-geographical proximity/distance.

In Estonia labour productivity and efficiency are still problematic; the economic growth built on cheap labour has slowed down. One of Estonia's near-term development priorities is productivity growth. The development of a learning organisation (LO) is one way to encourage innovation processes. This article aims to analyse the leader's role in creating a LO and organisation culture relying on comparative studies conducted in a manufacturing and a service company.

Theoretical framework

Today learning, creativity and innovation are considered keys to the success, competitiveness and sustainability of organisations. OL, creativity and innovation are important topics for modern organisations and are linked to various functions (e.g. product development, production, management, etc.). Learning gives businesses the strength to face growing competition and swiftly react to changes while maintaining high productivity. The concept of a LO has also been explained as seeing knowledge as the basis of competition in the 21st century (Tidd et al., 2006). Garvin even declares that every company must become a LO (Garvin et al., 2008). The environment of a LO facilitates learning by all its members and helps them knowingly remodel themselves (Pedler, Burgoyne & Boydell, 1997). Sharing knowledge as such creates innovation as communication between people generates good

ideas. Thus systematic knowledge management helps to increase productivity (Mayo, 2007). Businesses help people gain various benefits such as increased income, improved management and productivity growth (Alter, 2004). Fitzimons et al. (2002) say that many entrepreneurs spend too little time and energy on creating teams that would support each other's skills, and fail to improve their own management skills.

It has been argued if an organisation where learning takes place is by definition a LO and if what takes place is development or learning (Sun & Scott, 2003; Roper & Pettit, 2002; Reynolds & Ablett, 1998). To describe the learning environment, authors use various concepts related to their models. C. Argyris (1998) uses the concept of "ecological system of factors" calling it a "system of organizational learning". Learning takes place only if "the learning system is" […] "adequate enough to enable an organisation to implement its existing policies and meet stated objectives" (ibid.). This means that OL in its completeness happens in an organisation that has the characteristics of a LO.

It is important that the members of a LO support its mission and understand how the mission relates to their everyday work and activities (Goh, 2001). Vision is the hopes, goals and future directions of an organisation. If the vision is shared, people know what they need to learn (Calantone et al., 2001). In a LO vision means the desired future image of the organisation where learners create new and approved products and services (Marquardt, 2002; Senge, 2003). In a LO none of its members doubt that learning is a welcomed and appreciated activity (Wilhelm, 2006). In a LO all obstacles to learning have been removed and leaders support and encourage individuals' learning (Moilanen, 2005). Otherwise employees will lack motivation to apply new knowledge in their work (Calantone et al., 2002).

A LO encourages and rewards the testing of new knowledge and individuals' initiative to use new problem solving methods (Goh, 2001). All employees must be given feedback on their ideas and activities (Wilhelm, 2006). The flow of information and knowledge can be ensured mechanically, electronically and by communication. Information can be gathered via comparative analysis, conferences, surveys, the internet and employees' proposals. Team learning is considered an essential characteristic of a LO by Marsick and Watkins (1999), Goh (1998; 2001), Moilanen (2005) and Senge (2003). Teams enable innovative problem-solving and creation of synergy. By using collective knowledge and skills it is possible to produce new innovative solutions. An environment facilitating team work encourages openness which is needed for learning to take place (Goh, 2001).

Organisation culture is complete and cannot be divided into parts. Professor E.H. Shein defines organisation culture as the main beliefs that an organisation holds towards the external environment and internal cooperation which is why these beliefs are considered right in the organisation and are taught to new members as desired ways of cognition, thinking and behaving (Shein, 1992). When creating organisation culture, numerous phenomena and objects related to each other need to be considered (Vadi, 2004). The role of an entrepreneur is to discover, assess and utilise new opportunities in business development. Discovering opportunities includes knowledge. Thus entrepreneurship must be seen as a form of learning which helps the entrepreneur to link various pieces of information. The outputs of learning are, e.g., short and long term business success, increased capacity of personnel, etc. Yet much of the learning takes place on the job via feedback and mistakes. Such learning can be called experimental (Franco & Haase, 2010). OL depends on the balance between four aspects: principles of collective behaviour, functioning of the group, behaviour patterns and individuals' thoughts. If the organisation fails to react to changes, the learning level is zero. In single loop learning new knowledge and experience is gained to achieve the established

goals. The main beliefs do not change considerably. Double loop learning means reassessing an organisation's goals, values and main beliefs. Such learning changes organisation culture (Argyris, 1999).

Development is a more general term than change. The two only partly overlap. Development should include planned changes. The steps taken in development may not always yield the desired results, i.e. uncontrollable reactive changes may occur in an organisation (Mets, 2002). Launching development processes presumes that organisation members can cope with a number of successive changes and leaders have the skills and the ability to control the processes. Altogether it means the ability to learn on all levels, both individually and jointly – i.e. organisational learning.

The author has chosen Senge's model of five disciplines as the theoretical basis of her survey because the characteristics of a learning organisation in this model are universal and independent from the type and size of the organisation (Torokoff, 2008).

Usually surveys are used as a method to identify the characteristics of a LO. In a factor analysis answers to the questions of the survey sometimes produce surprising factor combinations while some factors never emerge, although in theory they should (see e.g. Silins et al., 2002, Torokoff & Mets, 2008). This means that the findings of the analysis are various patterns (Torokoff, 2008) that may include different framework models of a LO and OL, and they more or less comply with the primary model. The factor analysis of the employees of the two companies conducted by the author in 2005-2008 showed that the companies have two OL patterns: managers' OL and employees' OL. Employees and managers perceive aspects of LO differently (Torokoff, 2008; 2009). In essence organisations are the result of how its members think and communicate (Senge et al., 2003). Therefore it is important to identify the "bottlenecks". This can be done by analysing the free responses to the questions asked in the survey and the comparative studies conducted in one of the companies.

Empirical research data and analysis

The questionnaire of the survey relied on two models: the five disciplines by Senge (1990) and the model for developing a three-dimensional (3D) organisation by Mets (2002). Relying on Senge's model of a learning organisation in the questionnaire enabled to analyse organisation behaviour and the creation of a LO and organisation culture. The surveys were conducted from December 2005 to December 2008. The analysis of the findings was carried out in 2006–2009. Students of the Pärnu College of the University of Tartu helped to carry out the work.[1]

Two medium-sized Estonian companies participated in the survey: manufacturing company MS Balti Trafo OÜ and a bank[**] as a service company.

All in all, 936 questionnaires were distributed to the employees of the two companies. Of the 255 questionnaires distributed in the manufacturing company, 154 (60%) were returned. In the service company, the total of 675 questionnaires was sent out by e-mail and 214 (~32%) responses were sent back. The reason why the return was two times higher in the manufacturing company was probably that questionnaires were distributed directly to people with an eye-to-eye contact. Electronic communication was more anonymous. 78% of the respondents were women, 22% men.

[1] I would like to thank students Lia Rohtla and Ehte Allikivi.

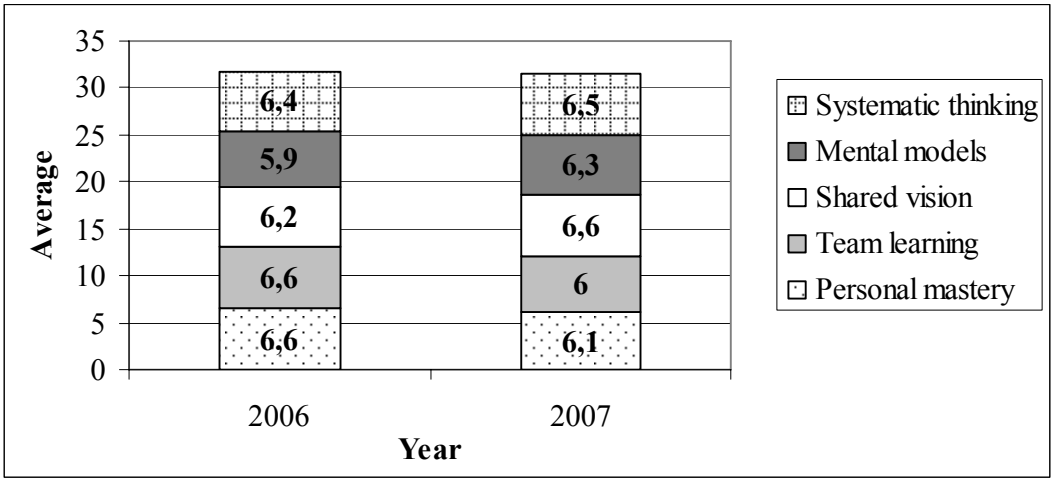
[**] For confidentiality reasons the name of the bank is not published.

The questionnaire contained 52 statements each of which could be assessed on a 10-point scale where "1" meant that the respondent strictly disagreed and "10" meant that the respondent completely agreed. Each characteristic of a LO was covered with 10–12 statements. The questionnaire ended with open questions (composed by the author in 2005 and revised in 2007). The author mainly used the arithmetic mean to compare survey results and standard deviation to present the variance in the values of characteristics.

Findings and discussion

No strategic decisions to develop OL were planned in the bank within the two years under study. The results of the first and the second survey in the service company did not vary much (see Figure 1). Open responses revealed that, e.g., managers were struggling to control conflict situations because more openness in cooperation and co-learning heightened the need to pay attention to and prevent mistakes. Acknowledging other facets of the problem may cast negative light on colleagues whether they are subordinates or leaders. Leaders and employees lack skills and behaviour patterns for spreading inconvenient information. How to make conflicts work in favour of organisation development? Middle managers believe that it was necessary to create a situation where employees from all levels could feel free to speak about what is important for them in the organisation and the management and colleagues would actually listen to them (Allikivi, 2009).

Figure 1. Characteristics of a learning organisation in the bank in 2006-2007 (Source: Allikivi, 2009)

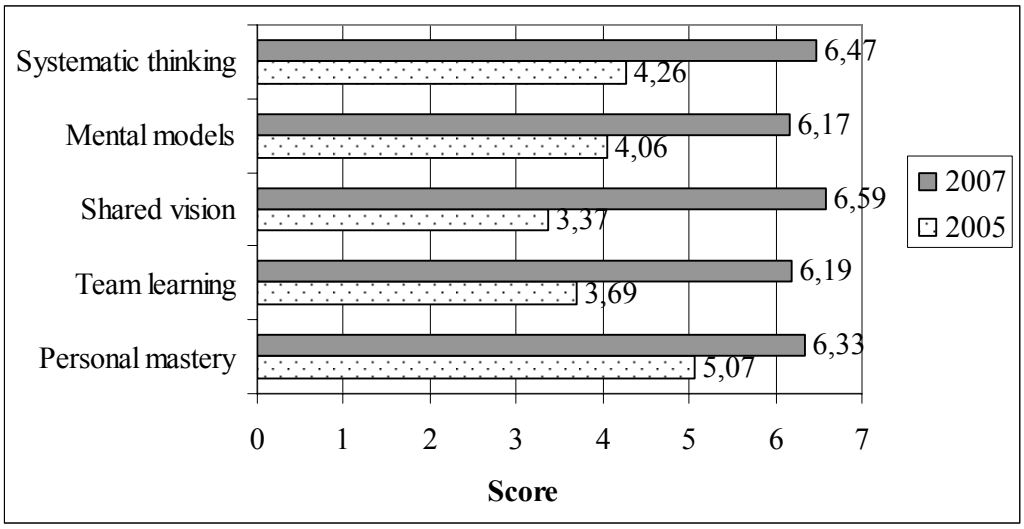


Here we can see the disadvantages of the "top-down" vision: sometimes it is hard for the employees to understand it and they follow it passively because they do not feel their own importance in it. It may suppress their motivation for self-development and team-learning compared to the first survey. A vision created by a group of leaders often relies on the traditional position of power (Nolas, 2006). Managers have had a chance to discuss the topics in question and have better understanding of many issues as they now have the background information. Free responses showed that employees and specialists were much less informed. They had only received certain bits of information which was why they may have had difficulties in seeing the bigger picture and this in turn may have lead to insecurity, fear and

sometimes even opposition. Bank employees agreed that the company's goal was to develop and offer high-quality services and greater satisfaction to its clients. However, there were also responses that the bank management needs to carefully analyse as they contained ignorance, superficiality, conflicts and bitterness. Relying on the comparative study the bank can be seen as an organisation following the single loop learning model where basic beliefs have not remarkably changed.

Some of the findings of the survey as well as the whole questionnaire of a LO have been used for drafting a strategic development plan in the manufacturing company MS Balti Trafo OÜ, the other company under study (Rohula, 2008). As can be seen in Figure 2, survey results from 2005 and 2007 vary much more than in the bank.

Figure 2. Characteristics of a learning organisation in MS Balti Trafo OÜ in 2005 and 2007 (Source: Rohula, 2008)



What brought about such changes? Until 2005 the company did not do strategic planning and lacked a vision of the future. The management only focussed on production. However, in the same year a decision was made to draw up an export plan with co-finances received from Enterprise Estonia (EAS) and participate in the implementation programme of the export plan. Within this programme, the company's goals and vision were set and an action plan was drawn up to meet the goals. This gave the whole organisation a clear direction of movement. Before the company had lacked a clear vision and employees had never had a chance to share their own development with the company which had created a situation where the employees and the management were going into different directions. Often people just followed orders and there was no meaningful participation. The situation could be described as competitive rather than cooperative. Organisational development was modest. The fact that the company once again had a manager and leader encouraging his employees to be open and share experiences in various meetings certainly played an important role in getting better scores in the 2007 survey. In the period of changes the company did not have a manager, and the German owners were often inadequate about the local situation while the "key people" running the company lacked necessary skills and experiences. Important guidance and team-thinking ability came from an external consultant whose skills and advice were, for three years, employed for the benefit of the company's development.

Here are some examples. The comparative survey highlights remarkable variance in answers to the statement "We have a common vision of the company's future in 5 years that we have all discussed together". Employees gave very low scores to this statement (k.3.92; sth. 2.40), while leaders gave relatively high scores (managers: k. 7.50; sth. 1.91; management: k. 7.0; sth. 1.73). This shows different levels of information: leaders who draw up plans for and discuss the company's future have a much better idea of the development directions than employees who do not participate in these activities. Another example is mental models which got an average score of 4.06 points (sth. 1.56) in 2005 and 6.17 points in 2007 (sth. 1.22). Systematic thinking was given 4.26 points (sth. 1.94) in 2005 and 6.47 points (sth. 1.15) in 2007. Factors influencing the strength (scores) of these two characteristics mainly relate to values, thinking and seeing and analysing connections.

In general, politeness and respect towards colleagues is valued in the company. Such an attitude to work has been greatly influenced by its German partner company. MS Balti Trafo OÜ has adopted the German work ethics and punctuality, although a difference in the business cultures of the two countries also puts certain obstacles to sharing and explaining these values. In the German company matters are discussed behind closed doors between a small number of executives, and employees are informed in the written form through statements or orders. Such a form of communication often causes confusion and unnecessary tension.

When during the 2005 survey the company was lead mainly by the German owners and the above-described communication dominated, in 2007, when a manager was employed for the company, the situation changed. This is also reflected in the new scores. The tradition of general meetings was introduced. At these meetings employees got an overview of what had been done and what would be done in the future together with explanations on why certain decisions had been made.

Here we can see how much information exchange and explanations influence the formation of different thinking models and the understanding of the bigger picture. Undoubtedly getting involved in strategic planning also influenced the development of the two characteristics mentioned above.

Conclusion

The findings of the comparative survey of the manufacturing company show that this organisation experienced double loop learning. Redefining the goals, values and basic beliefs in the company brought about a change in the organisation culture.

The surveys highlighted the need for strategic planning and the leader's influence on the company's ability to function as a whole. The analysis showed that more attention must be paid to developing leaders' management skills and knowledge.

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An Examination of Knowledge Management Practices in France

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Abstract

Organizational knowledge is becoming central to organizations today. This study examines knowledge management in organizations in France. Specifically, we focused on the management of knowledge in four areas: culture, content, process and infrastructure. A sample of managers working in 42 innovative enterprises in France was surveyed. The findings suggest that: (1) experimentation is currently encouraged; (2) knowledge is collectively shared; and, (3) decision-making is collective. However, we found significant gaps between importance of the practices and current practice, in the areas of Knowledge Sharing, Learning Process, Gap Management and Knowledge Transfer.

Introduction

According to the Information Technology and Innovation Foundation and the Kauffman Foundation, the New Economy is a "global, entrepreneurial, and knowledge-based economy" which key factors include the extent to which knowledge in products and services are embedded (Information Technology and Innovation Foundation, 2008). The report outlines that managers and "knowledge workers" are now the greatest occupational category since the 1990s. Given the uncertainty and massive layoffs in today's economy and the retirement of baby boomers, the management of knowledge workers becomes even more central to organizations. Employees who leave the organization will also take with them organizational knowledge which can be central to the organization's success.

The management of knowledge is important because it provides organizations with a competitive advantage. Companies must develop strategies to manage knowledge in their organizations (Ambrecht, Chapas, Chappelow & Farris, 2001). According to Tovstiga and Korot (2000), it is important to focus on the management of knowledge in four areas: culture, content, process and infrastructure. As organizations grow, it is essential that they continuously evaluate knowledge management practices and strategies so that they are adaptive and become even more successful (Davenport & Prusak, 1998).

While knowledge management practices are an important topic for organizations globally, we were interested in focusing on knowledge management in France given the lack of research in this area. Knowledge management in France first started gaining interest in the early 1990s by a limited group of organizations, however, eventually larger organizations in industries such as energy, telecommunications and aerospace, became attracted to the concept (Lelic, 2003). It was only until the late 1990s that knowledge management became an important area for information technology firms and consulting organizations. In line with other European countries, knowledge management became of interest to many organizations in France during the internet boom. While our understanding on knowledge management in France has developed and software companies have introduced knowledge-based products, a greater comprehension of knowledge management is nevertheless necessary.

The objective of this study is to examine the knowledge management in organizations in France within the four areas (culture, content, process and infrastructure). Specifically, we examined whether there was a difference between the perceived importance and the current practices regarding the management of knowledge. By doing so, we were able to determine whether there were gaps in the knowledge management areas. Future research directions and practical implications are also discussed.

Knowledge Management

Knowledge management (KM) is the process of collecting the collective expertise and intelligence in an organization and generating value to foster innovation through continued organizational learning (Nonaka, 1991; Quinn, Anderson & Finkelstein, 1996; Davenport, DeLong & Beers, 1998). Generally, an organization generates value from assets which involves codifying what employees, partners, and customers know, and sharing the information with employees, departments, and other organizations in order to develop best practices (Levinson, 2010).

In the literature, the two approaches of KM are: technical approach and the socio-technical approach (Meso & Smith, 2000; Pan & Scarbrough, 1998). The technical approach argues that knowledge management is largely the use of information and communication technologies, such as web browsers, group-ware, and document management. On the other hand, the socio-technical approach focuses on the interaction of technology within the organizational context. The socio-technical approach views organizations are complex systems which consist of the relationship between technology, organizational structures, and corporate cultures and communities.

In line with the socio-technical perspective, Tovsiga and Korot (2000) argue that the management of knowledge is a multidimensional challenge which requires the understanding and application of four areas: culture, content, process and infrastructure (Tovstiga & Korot, 2000). First, knowledge culture encompasses the values, beliefs and behavioral norms of the organization (Tovsiga & Korot, 2000). While there has been little research on the relationship between organizational culture and knowledge management initiatives, experts believe that organizational culture is an important factor in understanding the success of knowledge management practices. For example, if an organization has a culture which restrains KM practices, the organization will be less effective at implementing KM practices. A recent study suggests that understanding the organizational culture can help leaders implement KM initiatives (Kangas, 2009).

Second, knowledge content focuses on the organization's strategically relevant knowledge (Tovstiga & Korot, 2000). Knowledge content includes three forms of knowledge: (1) experiential knowledge; (2) formal knowledge; and, (3) emerging knowledge. First, experiential knowledge is tacit and often derived from previous experience. This form of knowledge is difficult to articulate. Second, formal knowledge is highly explicit in nature and often documented. Finally, emerging knowledge include both tacit and explicit which often develops from the innovative and cross-discipline interactions within an organization. An example of emerging knowledge would include a new product development in a telecommunication.

Third, knowledge infrastructure deals with all functional elements in the firm that supports the management of knowledge (Tovstiga & Korot, 2000). Information and communication technology has been a large focus of knowledge infrastructure within organizations. Although most companies have placed most of their emphasis on technology, knowledge infrastructure

includes carriers of knowledge such as cross-functional and cross-national teams since flexible teams help the transfer of knowledge across internal and external boundaries.

Finally, knowledge process incorporates how knowledge is created, converted, transferred, applied and ultimately discarded in organizations (Tovstiga & Korot, 2000). The four knowledge conversion processes include: socialization (tacit to tacit), internalization (explicit to tacit), externalization (tacit to explicit) and combination (explicit to explicit) (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). One area in the knowledge process that has been of large concern for organizations is knowledge loss. Delen and Al-Hawamdeh (2009) argue that one way to reduce the possibility of knowledge loss is to improve knowledge capture and re-use within organizations. Knowledge loss may occur because the both internal and external factors to the organizations such as, retirements, resignations, restructuring, and outsourcing (Wolff. 2005). The key factor in reducing knowledge loss is the identification of the knowledge sources and then taking the steps to ensure that the knowledge is kept and utilized.

The literature has examined knowledge management practices across cultures. In a comparison of eight knowledge-based organizations in the Netherlands, Singapore, and the Silicon Valley in the United States, Tovstiga, Korot, and Dana (2000) found that cross-cultural similarities in management thinking and processes. In a more recent study, Dana, Korot, and Tovstiga (2005) explored KM practices in the United States, Singapore, The Netherlands, and Israel. The findings suggest that there were similarities across regions in the following areas: a propensity for experimentation; collective sharing of knowledge; and collective decision making. In an attempt to broaden our knowledge of global KM practices, we examined KM in practices in France. In addition, we explore the difference between current practices and importance of practices in KM.

Method

Sample and Procedure

The survey data for this study was collected from managers in 42 innovative enterprises in France. The organizations were largely start-ups, seeded by Normandie Incubation and Synergia. Surveys were distributed to each of the organizations by direct contact, telephone and e-mail. The average return rate was high (80%) due to the help of Normandie Incubation and Synergia. The firms that were surveyed in Basse-Normandie were drawn from a broad spectrum of industry sectors, including computer hardware and software, biotech, bio-medicine, pharmacitical, telecommunications and services sectors including entertainment, services for individuals, safety and prevention, and psychological engineering. Surveys were translated in French and then back-translated into English.

Measure

The Knowledge Practices Survey instrument developed by Tovstiga and Korot (1999) was used to measure KM practices. The measure consists of 21 items which examine the four major areas of KM: culture, content, infrastructure, and process. On a 5-point Likert-scale, the respondents were asked to provide their perceptions of current practices and the importance of the particular practice. Knowledge culture items include: learning focus, experimentation, participation, openness and trust, and organizational structure. Knowledge content items include: knowledge location, sources of knowledge, knowledge dissemination, and knowledge flow. Knowledge process includes items such as: strategy process, learning

process, and gap management. Finally, knowledge infrastructure includes items such as access to key knowledge, sharing of knowledge, and degree of interpersonal knowledge.

Results

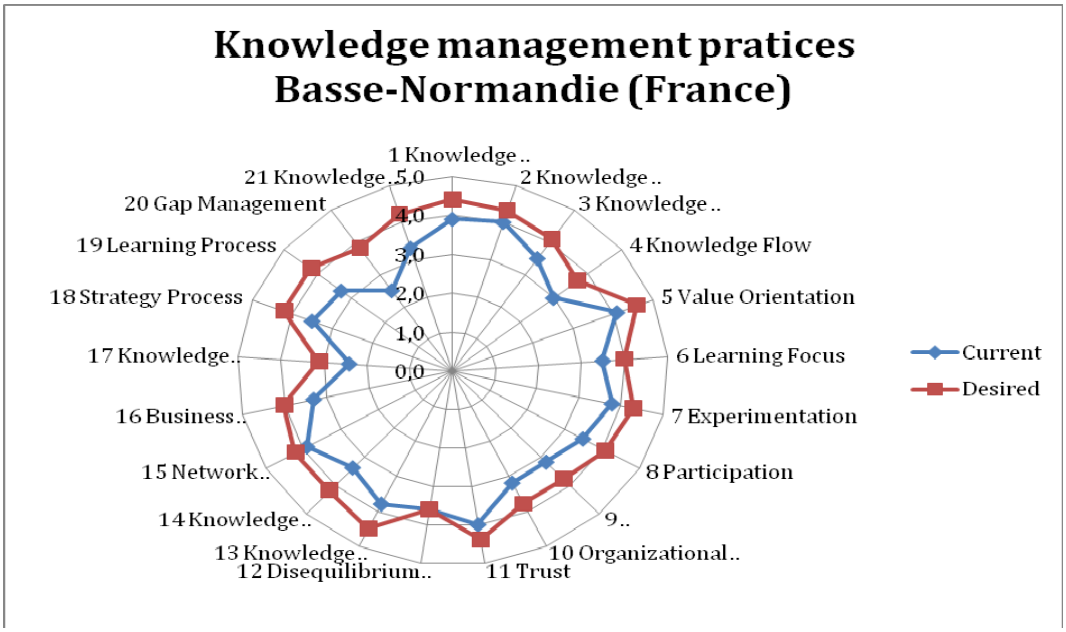
The results suggest that French organizations primarily focused their knowledge management efforts on knowledge culture and content (Firms received a 3.6 on current practice for both areas). Firms were least likely to devote their efforts to knowledge process (Firms received a 3.1 on current practice). With respect to perceptions of importance of the KM practices, the firms generally perceived all practices to be equally important. All areas (Knowledge Culture, Content, Process) except Knowledge Infrastructure received the same rating of 4.1.

Table 1: Perceived Current and Importance of Knowledge Management Practices in France

	Current practices	Importance of practices
Knowledge culture	3.6	4.1
Knowledge content	3.6	4.1
Knowledge infrastructure	3.3	4.0
Knowledge process	3.1	4.1

When examining the specific current practices within each of the four major KM area, the results suggest that French firms most likely to encourage experimentation; knowledge is collectively shared; and decision-making is collective. The results show that there were significant gaps between importance of the practices and current practice in the following areas: Knowledge Sharing, Learning Process, Gap Management and Knowledge Transfer. Overall, the average of current practices was 3.46 and the average of perceived importance practices was 4.09. Refer to Figure 1.

Figure 1: Current and Desired Knowledge Management Practices in France



Discussion

In conclusion, knowledge management practices have been widely recognized as a competitive advantage for organizations in the global environment. Organizations value knowledge management because these practices provide them with the opportunity to help organizations use known information so that they are able to work more efficiently (Schwartzwalder, 1999). Despite the importance of KM practices, there are a limited number of empirical studies which examine KM practices in different countries (e.g. Dana et al., 2005: Nelson, Sabatier & Nelson, 2006).

This study contributes our understanding of KM in different countries by examining KM practices in France. In line with the literature on KM which stresses the central role of organizational culture and leadership in promoting knowledge acquisition and knowledge sharing (Kangas, 2009; Tiwana, 2000), organizations in France perceived their companies to have a knowledge culture. In addition, the French organizations perceived their companies to focus on knowledge content, such as knowledge location, sources, and flow. Similarly, researchers have acknowledged the role of knowledge sources in knowledge creation and management (Petruzzelii, Albino & Carbonara, 2009; Tovstiga & Korot, 2000). Petruzzelli et al. (2009) argues the role of internal and external sources of knowledge and three forms of proximity: geographical, organizational, and cognitive. The authors found that the technology district in Toulouse, France is one of main locations of the world which specializes in the aviation and aerospace industry because of the close proximity of various firms, universities, research organizations, and associations related to the industry.

The results also suggest that significant gaps between importance of the practices and current practice in the following areas: Knowledge Sharing, Learning Process, Gap Management and Knowledge Transfer. While the organizations in France acknowledge the importance of these KM practices, the findings suggest that the organizations were not engaging in these KM practices.

As with all studies, this study has its limitations. Although our sample includes a wide range of industries, the data was collected from a small sample of organizations in Basse-Normandie, one area of France. Future research should collect data from the technological district of Toulouse to further explore whether these results generalize across France. Second, this study examined the perceived current KM practices and importance of the KM practices. It would be interesting to gather objective information of the actual KM practices in the organization.

Despite the limitations, this study is one of the limited empirical studies which enhance our understanding of KM practices in France. The results of our study stress the importance for managers to continually audit whether there is a perceived gap between current practices and the importance of KM practices in their organizations. Based on our findings, organizations in France should focus their efforts in minimizing gaps primarily in four areas (Knowledge Sharing, Learning Process, Gap Management and Knowledge Transfer) in order to increase their competitiveness in our global knowledge-based economy.

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Chapter 12: Work-Family Conflict

Utilizing Work-Life Balance Policies vs. Negotiating Idiosyncratic Deals: How Turkish Employees Manage Work-Family Conflict?

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Abstract

This study examined the relationship of two work-family balance support mechanisms, work-life policies and idiosyncratic deals (i-deals), with employees' work-family conflict (WFC) in Turkey. We proposed a) employees' WFC will be negatively related to both the availability of work-life balance policies and success in negotiating i-deals and b) workplace family supportive norms will moderate these relationships, such that for employees from workplaces where attempts to balance work and life are not accepted, these relationships will be stronger. Analysis of data collected from 64 EMBA students provided minimal support for the main effect hypotheses (a) but more support for the moderation hypotheses (b). Findings' implications for both employers' attempts to support employees and employees' attempts to manage work-family conflict are discussed.

Introduction

Organizations in emerging economies are increasingly expected to support their employees' attempts to balance their work and family lives. Work-family (W-F) balance concerns have been in the agenda of the industrial countries for some time and there have been several support mechanisms suggested in the literature. Some of these mechanisms lie in the prerogative and responsibility of organizations such as creating flexible work structures or family-friendly human resources policies. Another type of mechanism, used separately or in addition to these organization-wide mechanisms relies on the negotiation of idiosyncratic deals (i-deals) between employees and managers (Hornung, Rousseau & Glaser, 2008).

Organizational values affect not only whether organizations would provide any support but also the mechanisms through which such support is given. While some organizations might institute formal rules in the form of work-life balance policies such as flextime or telecommuting that would similarly apply to all employees, other organizations might choose to let managers deal with employees separately taking into account their personal needs, circumstances and performance. Similarly, employees might utilize one or both mechanisms to manage their work-life balance.

Organizations in many emerging economies, especially those that are characterized by collectivism, power distance (Hofstede, 2001) particularism (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998) and paternalism, (Aycan, 2006) traditionally prefer to use i-deals to manage their employees' expectations for support in their attempts to balance work and family lives. In these countries, personal favors based on relationships rather than rules applicable to all employees are accepted, managers are expected to be personally involved in the non-work domain of their employees' lives and use such involvement to create employee loyalty to the organization as well as to the managers themselves (Aycan, 2006). Hence, it would not be surprising to find that employees in emerging economies frequently make use of informal

negotiations with their manager to avoid conflicts between work and non-work domains. On the other hand, the drive for professionalization and increased competition in the labor market as well as institutional forces lead emerging economy organizations to adopt formal W-F balance policies as a way to increase reputation as an employer, achieve equality in the treatment of employees, and provide a more efficient regulation of the W-F interface.

The aim of the present study is to increase our understanding about these two support mechanisms in the Turkish context. Turkish business context has recently seen the entry of more women into the labor market. Moreover, a very large percentage of white-collar Turkish labor market is made up of employees between the ages 22-35. Women and young employees are considered to be especially at risk for work-family conflict as they traditionally take on more family responsibilities and they are starting new families themselves, respectively. Hence, work-family conflict has become a relevant issue especially for the young Turkish white-collar employees of large firms. The present study examines which of these support mechanisms are more successful in helping these young employees cope with work-family conflict in Turkey.

While earlier approaches regarded work-family conflict as one construct, recent emphasis has been on the division of this construct, signaling the direction of the conflict and hence researchers studied two forms of work-family conflict, i.e. work interference with family (work-to-family conflict) and family interference with work (family-to-work conflict) (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran 2005).

We propose that Turkish employees' family-to-work conflict will be negatively related both to the existence of work-life balance policies and their success in negotiating i-deals with their managers. The profile of white-collar employees mentioned above, young and gender diversified, suggests that these employees are likely to take advantage of any formal policies instituted by their organizations. Recent cross-cultural research by the GLOBE project showed that Turkish culture is high in in-group collectivism and low in performance orientation (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002). In addition, Turkish employees are suggested to describe themselves in relational terms (e.g., family, friends, and group memberships) rather than in autonomous terms (e.g., profession, occupation, job) (Kagitcibasi, 2005). Therefore, employees in the present study are expected to emphasize their family responsibilities over their work responsibilities. The relative importance of the family domain for these employees would generally contribute to the family domain's interference with the work domain, or what is termed family-to-work conflict. Employees who are offered a chance to have flexible work hours or work from home as a policy can be expected to better manage the interference of family to the work domain. Hence, we expect that availability of work-life policies would be negatively related to perceptions of family-to-work conflict.

In addition to the W-F balance policies, employees may avoid family-to-work conflict through the mechanism of idiosyncratic deals, i-deals, (Rousseau, 2005) which refer to how individuals negotiate and find ways to customize on the job activities. Hornung et al. (2008) suggest that employees find ways to adapt their working environment to meet their personal needs through negotiations. I-deals especially with respect to a flexible work schedule, time reduction and work location would be negotiated by these employees to be close to their families. I-deals may, especially, be common in countries such as Turkey where particularism is valued over universalism (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). That is, individuals in these cultures are on average more accepting of idiosyncratic and favorable treatments based on social ties and status. Hence, successful use of i-deals is expected to help employees manage their family-to-work conflict.

We further expect family-to-work conflict to show a stronger negative relationship with successful negotiation of i-deals compared to availability of formal work-life balance policies for Turkish employees who are considered to be more accustomed to using this individualized and informal mechanism due to societal level cultural values such as particularism and paternalism.

Hypothesis 1a: Availability of work-life balance policies will be negatively related to family-to-work conflict.

Hypothesis 1b: Successful negotiation of i-deals will be negatively related to family-to-work conflict.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a stronger relationship between i-deals and family-to-work conflict than work-life policies and family-to-work conflict.

The effects of work-life balance policies and i-deals on work-to-family conflict are not as straightforward. When employees are provided an opportunity to be close to their family they would feel less interference of the family domain to the work domain. However, while spending more time with the family they might still feel the interferences of work to their family lives, i.e., work-to-family conflicts. For example, in one study flexible work and dependent care policies was not related to work-to-family conflict (Batt & Valcour, 2003). Other variables that might account for this null relationship must be considered. Below we consider one such variable, perceived family-supportive organizational norms that might account for the relationship of i-deals and policies with work-to-family conflict.

The Role of Perceived Family-Supportive Organizational Norms

Work-life policies refer to the organizational rules that are granted to the employees in order to support their efforts to balance work and family lives. As rules and regulations they represent the formal side of the organizations. Organizational norms, on the other hand, refer to the unwritten ways of thinking, or more specifically informal rules and beliefs on how people should think and behave. Organizational norms, i.e., family-supportive norms, influence and direct organizational practices and employee behaviors, may even be in conflict with the policies. These organizational norms are part of the perceived work-family culture of the organization (Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999). Research on perceived family supportive norms generally showed their importance for an understanding of W-F conflict (Allen, 2001; Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Behson, 2005; Grandey, Cordeiro & Michael, 2007; Thompson et al. 1999). Specifically perceived family-supportive norms were negatively related to managers' W-F conflict in five different Western countries (Lepierre et al. 2008) and male hourly workers who worked long hours (Grandey et al., 2007); explained more variance in employee W-F conflict than formal policies (Allen, 2001; Anderson et al., 2002; Behson, 2005; Thompson et al., 1999), and mediated the relationship between family-friendly benefits available (i.e., work-life policies) and W-F conflict (Allen, 2001).

In the Western literature some authors have suggested that policies work when the work environment, i.e. norms, or culture support these policies (Frye & Breaugh, 2004). That is, employees do not take advantage of these policies to manage the interference of work demands on their family domain when they perceive organizational norms to be antagonistic to family concerns. This might be true in a Western culture dominated by values such as individualism and performance orientation and an emphasis on independent self. In such cultures, employees are expected to give priority to their work over their family especially

under situations where such priority is normatively expected. Consistent with this view, Solomon (1994) suggested that employees may be reluctant to use the policy when offered, due to the perception that its use would be perceived by others in their organization as lack of career commitment. Rodgers (1992) found when employees negotiate flexibility deals to achieve a balance between work and family responsibilities "they are likely to be penalized as not being serious about their jobs" (p. 190). However, in the Eastern cultures dominated by relational concerns (Kagitcibasi, 2005) and in-group (i.e., family) collectivism (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002), we expect employees to give priority to their family role and seek ways to cope with the interference of their work with their family lives. In these cultures, employees who perceive their organization to be antagonistic to concerns over work-family balance are more likely to try to manage the interface of work and family by either utilizing available work-life balance policies or negotiating i-deals with their managers when policies are not available. When organizations are family-supportive employees may not need to resort to particular negotiations with their manager to create time and space for their family. Similarly, these employees may not feel it necessary to utilize formal policies to keep their work life interfering with their family life. Hence we only expect a negative relationship between ideals or work-life balance policies and work-to-family conflict when employees perceive family-supportive organizational norms to be absent.

Hypothesis 3a: The relationship between the availability of work-life balance policies and work-to-family conflict will be moderated by perceived family-supportive organizational norms, such that when norms are low relationship between policies and work-to-family conflict will be stronger.

Hypothesis 3b: The relationship between the successful negotiation of i-deals and work-to-family conflict will be moderated by perceived family-supportive organizational norms, such that when norms are low the relationship between i-deals and work-to-family conflict will be stronger.

Methods

Participants: Survey data on study variables are being collected from 64 EMBA students enrolled in two Turkish universities. Original surveys were sent to 100 students with a response rate of 64%. Twenty five of the respondents were female (39%) and their average age was 31 (sd. = 5.1). Thirty respondents were married with either single (n=5) or double income marriage (n=25). Twenty three respondents had at least one child living at home between the ages of 0-18. Forty two respondents had managerial responsibilities with a span of control between 1 and 200 employees. Respondents' average organizational tenure was 59 months (sd. = 45 months). Median organizational size was 800 (range = 10 – 275,000).

Measures: *I-deals* were measured using a Turkish adaptation of Hornung, Rousseau, Weigl, Glaser, and Angerer's (2009) i-deals measure. Participants indicated the extent to which in their current jobs they had "asked for and successfully negotiated individual arrangements different from their peers" in terms of flexibility i-deals (four items), development i-deals (four items), work load reduction i-deals (four items) and location i-deals (three items). Flexibility items included "Flexibility in starting and ending the workday." Development items included "Special opportunities for skill development." Work load reduction items included "Personal arrangements to reduce or limit work hours." Location items included "Personal choices regarding where I do my work." A principle component analysis showed

that the first principle component explained 58% of the variance in the data and all items' communalities were higher than .65. The coefficient alpha for the summated scale was .95.

Work-life balance policies were measured with 7 items adapted to Turkish for this study from the Australia's Queensland Governments "Better Work-Life Balance Employee Survey" (The State of Queensland, Department of Industrial Relations, 2005). Participants indicated their knowledge and awareness of work-life balance policies used in their organization using yes/no/don't know scale. The `yes` answers for the 7 items were added up to create an index measuring the extent to which participant's organization's use of work-life balance policies. Example items include "Self-rostering and/or staggered start and finish times (picking your own start and finish times and/or days as long as you work an agreed number of hours)" and "Telecommuting (e.g. where an employee can work from home or outside of the central workplace using his/her own or the organization's equipment)."

Perceived family-supportive organizational norms were measured using a Turkish adaptation of the 'work-life balance' culture scale from Queensland Governments "Better Work-Life Balance Employee Survey" (The State of Queensland, Department of Industrial Relations, 2005). Eighteen items measuring the shared assumptions, beliefs and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and personal lives (based on Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness (1999) definition of work-family culture) were answered using a 4 point Likert scale (absolutely true – absolutely false).

Work-family conflict was measured by a Turkish adaptation of Grzywacz and Marks' (2000) 8 item scale of negative spillover between work and family. Four of the items measured work-to-family conflict ("Stress at work makes you irritable at home") and the other four items measured family-to-work conflict ("Responsibilities at home reduce the effort you can devote to your job"). A principle component analysis extracted two factors explaining 66% of the variance in the data and a varimax rotation clearly validated the division of 8 items to work-to-family and family-to-work conflict factors. The coefficient alpha for the work-to-family conflict subscale was .87 and for the family-to-work subscale was .75.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients between study variables. As shown there is a positive correlation between the successful negotiation of i-deals and the availability of work-life balance policies. This may suggest that even when the organization has formal initiatives to support work-life balance employees are more likely to negotiate and be successful in getting i-deals. In addition, family-supportive organizational norms correlated positively with both of these variables suggesting that respondents from organizations which use work-life balance policies and who successfully negotiate i-deals are more likely to perceive their organization as being family-supportive. Work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict had a marginally significant positive correlation suggesting that respondents generally feel spillover from both domains.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Coefficients

		Mean	Sd.	1	2	3	4
1.	I-deals	31,57	13,68				
2.	Work-life balance policies	2,16	1,83	.37***			
3.	Family-supportive norms	40,40	11,43	.41***	.38***		
4.	Work-to-family conflict	12,26	3,48	-.15	-.13	-.37***	
5.	Family-to-work conflict	8,17	2,83	-.09	-.24*	-.35***	.22*

Note: * p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01.

Hypothesis 1a suggested that the availability of work-life balance policies will be negatively related to family-to-work conflict. The correlation coefficient between these two variables was marginally significant, providing weak support for hypothesis 1a. Hypothesis 1b suggested that the successful negotiation of i-deals will be negatively related family-to-work conflict. The correlation between these variables was negative but not significantly different from zero. Hypothesis 1b is not supported. Hypothesis 2 suggested that i-deals will be more important for family-to-work conflict than work-life balance policies. This hypothesis was not supported. Consistent with prior research family-supportive norms correlated negatively with both dimensions of work-family conflict and explained more variance in work-family conflict than formal policies (Allen, 2001; Anderson et al., 2002; Behson, 2005; Thompson et al., 1999).

Hypothesis 3a and 3b suggested a moderation of i-deals – work-to-family conflict and work-life balance policies – work-to-family conflict relationships by perceived family supportive organizational norms. We conducted moderated multiple regression to test these hypotheses (Table 2) and draw interaction figures to interpret significant interactions (Figures 1a and 1b).

Table 2. Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis: Tests of Hypotheses 3a and 3b

	Work-to-family conflict		Family-to-work conflict	
	B	B	B	B
I-deals	-1.004	-	1.024	
Work-life balance policies	-	-.812	-	.076
Family supportive norms	-.909	-1.459	.146	-.240
I-deals X Norms	1.357**	-	-1.285**	
Policies X Norms	-	1.725**	-	-.233
R^2	.20	.28	.18	.13
F	4.80***	7.53***	4.33***	3.05**

Note: Coefficients are standardized. * p < .10; ** p < .05; *** p < .01.

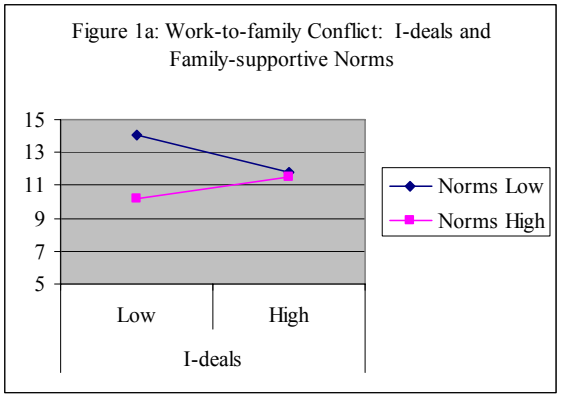

Figure 1a: Work-to-family Conflict: I-deals and Family-supportive Norms

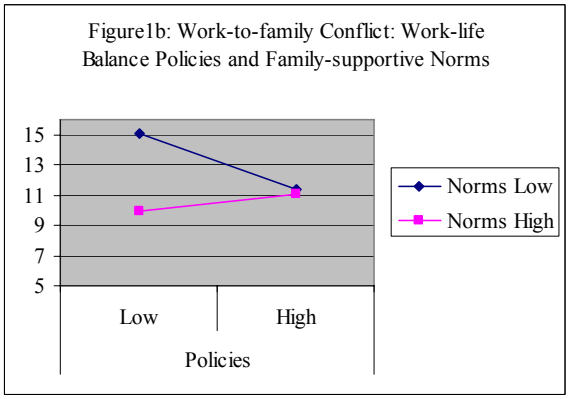

Figure1b: Work-to-family Conflict: Work-life Balance Policies and Family-supportive Norms

As shown in Table 2 the interaction effects of policies and norms (hypothesis 3a) as well as i-deals and norms (hypothesis 3b) on work-to-family were significant supporting both hypotheses. Figure 1a and 1b shows that both i-deals and work-life balance policies had a negative relationship with work-to-family conflict when employees perceived the workplace norms to be antagonistic towards family concerns. These findings support our argument that i-deals and formal policies would especially be useful for Turkish employees when they need to make time for their family in spite of an organization which does not value such behavior. When family-supportive norms existed the slope of the regression lines for both i-deals and policies had a positive trend (Figures 1a and 1b). This might mean that in these organizations i-deals and policies are useful for employees who already feel work-to-family conflict. Although we did not hypothesized, the interaction of i-deals and family supportive norms also predicted family-to-work conflict. However the shape of this interaction (not shown here) suggested that employees who successfully negotiated i-deals when family-supportive norms were absent felt higher levels of family-to-work conflict. This finding suggests that in the absence of family supportive norms i-deals may on one hand decrease the chances of negative spillover from work to the family domain but on the other hand increase the chances of negative spillover from family to work domain. Employees' success in negotiating i-deals might help them spend more time near family. But at times being close to the family might make it harder to accomplish work on time to due to family demands for attention. In a workplace where neglecting work for family reasons is frowned upon, negotiating personal deals is more likely to increase family-to-work conflict. The interaction of work-life balance policies and norms on family-to-work conflict was not significant, suggesting that when the mechanism is official the organizational norms do not matter so much.

The results of this study suggest that balancing work and family responsibilities is not an easy task. Availability of formal support mechanisms helps employees to avoid negative spillover from family to work. It is possible that this relationship was not strongly supported due to small sample size of this study. On the other hand i-deals did not have a main effect on work-family conflict as its effects on both types of conflict were moderated by perceived family-supportive organizational norms. It appears as if employees attempting to secure i-deals are making tradeoffs between work and family domains if their organization does not support family concerns. I-deals were not effective in helping these employees cope with the stressors at both sides of their lives. In fact, at least in this study, success in one domain generally meant failure in the other. This is ironic since this is exactly the group of employees that need more support since both their work-to-family and family-to-work conflicts are quite high. Future research should examine the plight of these employees in more detail.

This study has a number of limitations including small sample size, cross-sectional and single-source nature of the data as well as lack of control variables in analysis. As this is an ongoing study we plan to solve these limitations in the near future. All results should be interpreted cautiously and considered as preliminary.

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Work-Family Conflict and Coping: A Qualitative investigation of Couples from Four Occupational Groups in India

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Abstract

There is mounting evidence which links work-family conflict to reduced health and well-being. As India grows economically, issues concerning work-family conflict are vital for India and its trading partners. The objective of the present study was to investigate via in-depth interviews work-family conflict and coping experiences of a sample of employees and their partners. The sample consisted of 28 couples in full-time employment with the main participant belonging to one of the four occupational groups, namely IT, entrepreneurs, public servants, and social workers. Three main themes emerged from the investigation (a) widespread experience of work-family conflict and its reported consequences including job stress and reduced quality time with family; (b) religious coping as a primary mechanism for dealing with stress and (c) support from colleagues and family as a mechanism for coping.

Introduction

Over the past three decades, substantial concern has been expressed by social commentators over the extent to which work and family roles have become intertwined. In particular, there has been a dramatic increase in the degree of conflict or interference between work and family life (Frone, 2003; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Many possible reasons have been posited including increase in the numbers of dual career couples, greater participation of women in the workforce, changing conditions of employment, and technological advancement which has resulted in increasing pervasiveness of work in people's lives (Jones, Burke & Westman, 2006). Technological revolution such as electronic mail, mobile phones, i-phones which was supposed to free people from the office has in reality eroded the boundaries between work and family, placing greater expectation on individuals to 'work anytime and anywhere' (Brady, 2002). The resulting imbalance between work and family has consequences for the individual, family, organizations and society at large.

In India the situation is even more concerning. The changing social demographics over the last two decades have seen a growing number of dual earner families with more women entering the workforce. However, India largely remains a traditional society where the patterns of family life and role-structures remain unchanged. Women on average, still have responsibility for the family including tasks such as cooking, providing care for children and other related house-hold tasks (Aziz, 2004). The larger societal beliefs on gender role characterisation which associate 'outside paid-work' with men and 'unpaid family-work' with women continue to dominate and impact on ways in which work and family roles are negotiated by men and women. These gender role stereo-types generate an expectation that men should give priority to 'outside paid work' and women should give priority to 'unpaid family work' (Korabik, McElwain, & Chappell, 2008). Thus, the increasing participation of women in paid work alongside unpaid responsibilities at home such as caring for children, in some cases grandchildren, ageing parents/relatives has put increased burden on them to juggle work and family lives (Das, 1999; Noor, 2004).

Defining work-family conflict

The most well known definition of work-family conflict is by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) who define work-family conflict as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role" (p.77). Work-family conflict is conceived as bi-directional that is work can interfere with family life causing work→family conflict, and similarly family can interfere with work life causing family→work conflict. In their definition of work-family conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) conceptualized three types of conflict: *Time based conflict* which occurs when an individual devoting time to the demands of one domain consumes time needed to meet the demands of the other domain. *Strain based conflict* occurs when strain, dissatisfaction, anxiety and fatigue from one domain makes it difficult for the individual to meet the demands of the other domain. *Behaviour-based conflict* occurs when the certain behaviours which an individual develops in one domain are incompatible with the role demands in the other domain. Based on the Greenhaus and Beutell's conceptualisation of work-family conflict the aim of the present study was to explore the personal experiences and coping strategies of working couples in India in juggling their work and family responsibilities.

Theoretical Paradigms

The role strain theory has been instrumental in guiding much of the literature on work-family conflict (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). The fundamental tenets of this theory is that societal structures are made up of several roles; each with its own demands in terms of performance, time lines, and role expectations which people are unable to satisfy because of the limited time and energy they have. Therefore, individuals must negotiate and make decisions on the roles to satisfy. Thus, if an individual conforms to fulfilling some roles it can deplete the resources required for the adequate fulfillment of the other roles. Multiple roles and the demands of each role therefore contribute to strain and other pathology experienced by the individual (Goode, 1960).

Spillover theory has also been influential in understanding the dynamics of work-family relationships (Staines, 1980). Spillover refers to the effects that work and family have on one another that generate similarities between the two domains (Frone, 2003; Staines, 1980). According to this theory despite the physical and temporal boundaries between work and family, emotions and behaviours in one sphere carry over to the other (Clark, 2000). Spillover can be positive when skills, knowledge, experiences, values, and attitudes that are acquired in one domain (work or home) can be put to use in the other domain (work or home). Similarly negative experiences, attitudes, behaviours of one domain can transfer to the other.

Research Design

This research was supported through a grant received from the Australian National University by the second author. The study was located in the Indian Institute of Management, Bangalore, South India. India was a preferred site because the rapid growth in the Indian economy has witnessed a dramatic increase in the numbers of dual earner couples in the work force. Bangalore served as an ideal location for the study because more recently it has become the

hub of rapid economic growth attracting a vibrant migrant population from across India. Despite its growth the city like the rest of India largely conforms to traditional beliefs regarding work and family role characterisation, with women continuing to be responsible for family-related tasks (Aziz, 2004).

Methodology

A qualitative methodology of in-depth interviews using a semi-structured interview guide was chosen for the collection of data. This methodology enabled understanding of cultural sensitivities associated with 'work' and 'family' by the participants in an Indian context. In-depth interviews also enabled the researchers to hear the 'stories and the lived experiences' of participants (Sarantakos, 2005).

Sample

The sample consisted of 28 couples; seven couples each from four of the following diverse employment categories: Information technology, public service, social work, and self-employed entrepreneurs. These employment categories were chosen for the diversity it offered in terms of work pressures and expectations, salaries associated with each. It was envisaged that in the current climate of dramatic economic, social and demographic changes in India, certain sectors (e.g., IT) would place high work pressure on its employees than other sectors (e.g., public sector). The couples were chosen through personal contact of the research assistants involved in the study or through snow ball technique. The criterion for selection was for both partners to be in full-time employment. The main participants for each of the occupational group included four males and three females; the only exception being social work which had four females and three males as main participants. Table 1 provides demographic information on the sample.

Table 1. Demographic Profile of the Sample

Employment Type	Age Range	Years of Marriage	Children	Monthly Income
IT	27-36 years	<1 to 10 years	0-1	46,000-210,000
Entrepreuners	30-49 years	2-27 years	0-2	40,000-300,000
Public Service	37-47 years	8-17 years	1-2	19,000-50,000
Social Work	28-52 years	3-27 years	0-2	7,000-35,000

Method

In-depth interviews were conducted using a semi-structured interview guide. The interviews aimed at capturing the experiences of the participants and their partners in juggling their work and family responsibilities, as well as the strategies adopted by them in coping with the demands. The interviews were approximately one hour long. To ensure cultural sensitivity the

male participants were interviewed by a male interviewer and the female participants were interviewed by a female interviewer. Each partner was interviewed separately but at the same time to allow objectivity and to prevent any information being shared between the partners. Each couple was paid Rs.1000 as an incentive for participation. The location of the interviews was adjusted according to the needs of the participants. A pilot test was carried out with two couples. This information was useful in refining the interview guide and for the interviewers to assess their interviewing skills.

Data Analysis

The interviews were taped using a digital tape recorder and transcribed. The data were analysed using thematic analysis. In the *initial phase* the researchers spent time familiarising themselves with the data. In the *second phase* the researchers generated an initial list of ideas about what was interesting in the data. Initial codes were generated to organise the data into meaningful categories (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The *third phase* involved sorting the different codes into potential themes. Tables were used to map out overarching themes and arranging codes that best represented the theme. The *fourth phase* involved reviewing the themes to see if there was sufficient data to support them or if some themes could be collapsed to form a single theme. The *final phase* involved defining and naming the themes (Brawn & Clarke, 2006).

Results

Work→family conflict

Regardless of the occupational group, all participants and their partners reported that they had stressful jobs and they experienced work-family conflict; in particular time-based conflict and strain based conflict. The experiences of work→family conflict were more prevalent for the male participants; while the female participants reported experiencing more family→work conflict.

The dominant theme for the male participants was 'time pressures' at work which affected their involvement in the family domain. A 46 year old male participant reported the following: "I work late and travel a lot between my office and residence, so the amount of time that I spent with my family has been drastically diminishing". Another comment made by a 36 year old participant was: "I have many tensions at work which makes me feel bad. So I feel depressed some time. I carry over the tension at home also and I can't be that calm". Pre-occupation with work-related matters at home was a common theme among the male participants, as reflected in the following statement: "I actually took broadband connection at home, so that I can take work home and can work late". Another male participant reported "When there is work, you are expected to work more. You cannot leave your work in the middle. I have to keep to time-lines and that is expected of me so I will work very late if needed".

In comparison to male participants, a majority of the female participants reported that they did not allow their work to interfere with their family life. As one participant reported: "when I am home, I forget all about work and focus on my child". The dominant theme for the female participants was 'inability to spend time with children'. One female participant

reported: “what my mother has done for me, I have not given to my child, because my mother fully engaged and spent more time with us”. Another female participant said: “children are a precious thing that God has given. It is a woman’s responsibility to care for them, because men cannot bear children”. The women reported experiencing family→work conflict and were often pre-occupied with family related matters at work; especially if there was illness in the family, family dispute, or other matters concerning their children. This is supported by the following comment made by a participant: *“*sometimes I cannot focus at work when there are concerns at home, or if my child is sick, or if the servant has run away”.

Inability to spend time as a family was a concern expressed by many couples. For example a male participant commented: “I can’t give time to my family, that’s the main problem. My wife always fights with me because I am not available to the family”. Another comment from a male participant was: “sometime I am not able to come home because I have deadlines to meet at work. I cannot simply leave my work and come home. It is just not possible to do”. Similarly a female participant reported: “I feel mentally stressed from work and need rest. There is so much to do at work and at home that we can’t spend time together”. Another female reported “when I am tensed, I’ll make some mistakes while cooking food and I can’t concentrate on daughter’s home-work”. What was evident in the data was that work-family conflict had a toll on couple relationships. For example a male participant reported: “if I am working then I am not able to concentrate much at home. This is one area we are lacking and we *both* feel it”.

Following the theme of dominance of work in men’s lives, more men than women considered their paid work to be deserving of their time and effort more so than their family. For example, one of the male participants commented: “yeah I think career is very important to each one of us and we want to give little more importance to career”. For women, while work was important, it did not dominate their lives as they considered their family to be deserving of time and attention, as stated by one female participant: “compared to job life my family life is very important to me and I would like to spend more time with my family”.

Mechanisms of coping

Some interesting themes emerged with regards to coping with work and family demands. These themes have been identified as: belief in God, attitude to life, strength from helping others, and support from family. Belief in God was identified as a mechanism for coping by all participants although was more dominant among social workers. As one of the female social workers reported: “belief in God is one major part in coping with stress….like when I come home we pray together. If anything comes up we settle it immediately, we don’t keep it for the next week. We talk it over, and then pray over it and then reconcile”. One male entrepreneur participant said “if you believe in God and that things which are going to happen in your life will happen…then there is no need to stress”. A female participant from the public sector commented: “you should not worry but we should have full faith in God, he will help us”. General attitude to life was also identified as a mechanism for coping. For example a male respondent said “We should always think positive that’s very important. When we think positive then we can grow and then our life will be happy…you should not feel bad because what is happening is good for the well-being of our people and for my family”. For social workers in particular, strength gained from helping others was identified as an important theme in coping. As one respondent said “we help people in the community who are all very poor and have problems. When we reach out, people are very happy and I can see it in their faces. This makes me very happy to help them”. Another social work respondent said “at the end of the day when you come back home, relaxed and say I have done a good job today, I have helped

somebody, and that's the most important thing for a person to be happy". Support from family members was also identified as a way of coping. Many female participants reported that they received help from extended family members such as parents or parents-in-law who provided child care, assistance in times of emergency, or just peace of mind in knowing that they could depend on family when in need. As one female participant reported "My mother lives close by and I know she will be there to help me if I need it". Interestingly, more men reported receiving support from their spouse than did women. As one male respondent said "I have an understanding wife who understand me, and we both share similar vision of serving people". The spouse of this participant who was also in full-time employment said "my work is to my family but **his** (bolded for emphasis) work is for society" (bolded for emphasis). Another response was "we are together and we both know what is happening…even through difficulties we are together". Support from colleagues was also identified as an important way of coping. A female participant said "I have a nice team, we are like a family, and we share what ever happens at home and at work". A male participant said "we have our team meeting and we allow some time for sharing our personal concerns which is very helpful". Sharing of concerns with colleagues whether these were work or family related was considered to be important by most participants.

Discussion

Accumulating evidence in work-family literature has identified work-family conflict to be a widespread phenomenon with detrimental consequences on psychological well-being (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003), job dissatisfaction (Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Bass, Butler, Grzywacz & Linney, 2008), lowered performance and commitment and increased turnover (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). There are deficiencies in this stream of research including overwhelming emphasis on North American samples, focus on quantitative design, and the unit of analysis being individuals, as compared to couples. The present study explored work-family conflict experiences of Indian working couples belonging to four occupational groups using a qualitative design.

Work→family conflict: The centrality of family as an institution in Indian society is an important contextual note in this research. The family-role structures generate gender based social pressures on women to be a good mother, a good wife, and a good home-maker even if she is working in full-time employment. The larger societal beliefs on gender role responsibilities associate 'outside paid-work' with men and 'unpaid family-work' with women. As such, it is acceptable for men to give priority to paid work and for the women to give priority to unpaid work in the family. A father's contribution to raising a family is limited to income generation and general oversight of family needs. The participants in the present study reported experiencing widespread work→family conflict and its consequences in the form of stress and lack of quality time with family. Female respondents were concerned about the intrusion of work demands into home life that resulted in neglect of parental duties.

Family and colleague support. If the working women are seen as being ambitious about her career, she risks blame in neglecting her primary role at home--raising a family. Thus women have to be very careful in not upsetting the delicate balance between home and career. It was clear from the comments made by male and female respondents in this survey that spousal support played an important role in providing a sense of security and stability at home, and in

reducing work→family conflict for women. In a study assessing the wellbeing of married working women, Rao, Apte and Subbakrishna (2003) found that the availability of spousal support was a significant predictor of women's wellbeing which was an underlying theme in the pesent study. Rao et al's study reported that the female respondents in their study would not have been able to continue working after marriage had there been no support from their spouse, which was consistent with findings of Rajadhyaksha and Bhatnagar (2000). Ramu (1987) observed that husbands in dual-earner families in India enjoy the economic benefits of their wives' employment, along with the public image of being benevolent, liberated men who have permitted their wives to work outside the home.

Religious coping: An important finding of this study is the widespread use of religious coping among Indian couples in dealing with stressful situations at work and home. Both male and female respondents reported that they relied on their faith in God to deal with adverse circumstances in life. This finding is in concordance with recent investigations among White/European-American, Black/African-American and other ethnic samples that show religion as the single most important influence in their lives. In a recent meta-analysis involving 49 studies (N=13,107) investigating the influence of religious coping in psychological adjustment to stress by Ano and Vasconcelles (2005) found that 72% of those surveyed identified religion as the single most important influence in their lives. The declared religious affiliations of individuals in these samples included Protestant (57%), Catholic (13%), Judaism, Buddhism and Islam (2%). The meta-analysis showed that individuals who used positive religious coping strategies experienced less depression, anxiety and distress. Pargament, Koenig, and Perez (2000) make a distinction between *positive religious coping* and *negative religious coping*. Positive religious coping include forgiveness, helping, seeking support from clergy/ members, collaborative religious sharing, religious focus, active religious surrender, benevolent religious reappraisal, spiritual connection, and marking religious boundaries. Negative religious coping include spiritual discontent, demonic reappraisal, passive religious deferral, interpersonal religious discontent, reappraisal of God's powers, and pleading for direct intercession. Although our interview data indicate that the couples used positive religious coping strategies to deal with life stressors; further investigation is recommend to examine if the use of positive coping strategies results in better mental health outcomes for individuals.

Conclusion

In our investigation of work→family conflict and the mechanisms adopted for coping by working couples, three dominant themes emerged (a) the widespread experience of work-family conflict and its reported negative consequences including stress, and reduced time with family; (b) religious coping as a primary mechanism for dealing with work related stress; and (c) spousal and family support as a mechanism for coping. Our findings are in concordance with the findings in the extant literature sourced in the West in a number of respects. However, the use of religious coping as a primary mechanism for dealing with life stresses appeared to be more widespread among Indian couples. The dominance of family as an institution in India makes it impossible for Indian women to work, without strong spousal support and support from extended family. Further research to establish link between positive religious coping and mental health is recommended.

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Anticipated Work-family Conflict amongst South African Students

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Abstract

This study investigated the nature and predictors of anticipated work-family conflict (AWFC) amongst business students in South Africa (N=645) who intended to both work and start a family. Anticipated work-family conflict is the belief that future demands from work and family will be incompatible. The results indicate moderate levels of anticipated work-family conflict with differences across gender but no differences across race, socio-economic status, parental employment or parental education level. Further analysis showed an interaction effect between gender and maternal employment in explaining AWFC amongst female students. As expected, the personal factors of positive affectivity and specific self-efficacy beliefs helped predict significant variance in AWFC. Social context factors did not help explain the variance in AWFC above that explained by demographic and personal variables.

Introduction

Anticipated work-family conflict (AWFC) is the anticipated inter-role conflict between future work and family roles, predicated on the assumed incompatibility of these roles (Weer, Greenhaus, Colakoglu, & Foley, 2006). While there is a plethora of literature on work-family conflict, little attention has been paid to anticipated work-family conflict amongst those contemplating life choices (e.g., marriage, children, and career changes) or life transition (e.g., those preparing to enter the workforce for the first time after completing their studies).

The nascence of the literature on anticipated work-family conflict means that the construct is still theoretically underdeveloped and few empirical studies have been conducted. This is not to imply that no valuable work has been conducted or that no debates have emerged. For example, there is some debate regarding the directionality of AWFC with Cinamon (2006) adopting the bi-directionality found in the work-family conflict literature (from family to work and work to family) and Weer et al. (2006) arguing for the acceptance of a unidimensional construct because young adults with no direct experience of work-family conflict will be unlikely to be able to distinguish different directions of the anticipated conflict between work and family.

Regarding the predictors of work-family conflict, there is no generally accepted overall theory regarding the predictors of work-family conflict from which to extrapolate predictors of AWFC. Personal, social and demographic variables have been extensively investigated in the work-family literature (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005) and this suggests that these three categories of variable be examined to help propose predictors of AWFC.

Two personal characteristics are posited as predictors of AWFC: self-efficacy to manage future work-family conflict (SE-FWFC) and positive affectivity (PA). Self-efficacy is an individual's belief that their actions will lead to desired effects, even in the face of adversity (Bussey & Bandura, 1999) and has been found to be negatively related to work-family conflict (Hennessy & Lent, 2008). It is reasonable to expect (in the absence conclusive empirical data) that

students with a high level of self-efficacy to manage future work-family conflict will experience less anxiety about future work-family conflict. Positive affectivity is a disposition characterised by a tendency to be engaged and joyful (Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993). It is stable over time and situation (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988) so that a student with high positive affectivity will tend to interpret the prospect of dual work and family demands as enriching rather than problematic. It is therefore proposed that positive affectivity will influence perceptions regarding future conflict between work and family roles in that those students with higher positive affectivity will be less fearful about the anticipated future conflict between these roles.

Social-cognitive theory provides a useful theoretical lens that may also prove helpful in helping to determine the predictors of anticipated work-family conflict (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Ali & Saunders, 2006). That is, the self-concepts that form through social experiences provide a strong socialisation effect that influences students' expectations of their future work-family conflicts and their belief that they will be able to manage this conflict in the future. Relevant social context factors for students include the nature of their parents' employment patterns and level of education. Weer et al. (2006) found that male students' AWFC was positively related to maternal employment but that female students' AWFC was not related to maternal employment patterns. Whether the male and female students experienced family life with their employed mother as a positive or negative experience was not measured.

Parental education may affect students' perception of their own future career and how this may impact on their future work and family interaction. O'Shea and Kirrane (2008) found that AWFC of students did not significantly differ in terms of their mothers' educational level, but a significant negative relationship was found between the students' paternal level of education and AWFC. Barnett, Gareis, James and Steele (2003) investigated maternal education level as a predictor of anticipated career-marriage conflict, a similar but more limited construct, and found no significant relationship. Socio-economic status may also help predict AWFC because students from disadvantaged backgrounds are more likely to vicariously experience their parental role models suffering from work-family conflict exacerbated by their lack of resources (e.g., domestic help) available to more resourced families. No previous research has considered the relationship between socio-economic status and AWFC.

The above gives rise to the following propositions that will be investigated in this study:

1. Personal characteristics (i.e., self-efficacy to manage anticipated work-family conflict and general positive affectivity will explain significant variance in anticipated work-family conflict over and above that explained by demographic characteristics (i.e., gender and race).

2. Socialisation characteristics (i.e., maternal and paternal employment, maternal and paternal education, and socio-economic status) will explain significant variance in anticipated work-family conflict amongst students over and above that explained by demographic and personal characteristics.

3. Female students whose mothers were employed full-time during the student's childhood will experience significantly more anticipated work-family conflict than those whose mothers were not employed full-time and this relationship will not apply to male students.

Method

Applying a cross-sectional descriptive research design, a self-report survey was distributed via electronic mail to business students at a leading South African university. Participation was voluntary and the research protocol was approved by the participating university's ethics in research committee.

Participants

Participants in this study consisted of single, childless business students. Most (over 97%) intended to have children, the rest intended to get married but not have children. Student ages ranged between 17 years and 27 years (M = 20.5, SD = 1.75). The demographic composition of the participants was 49% female and 60% black (including those self-identifying as Black African, Coloured and Indian). Most students (58%) indicated that their mothers had a university degree or diploma with a smaller group (15%) reporting that their mothers did not complete Grade 12. Sixty six percent (66%) of the participants' fathers had a tertiary qualification. Eleven percent (11%) of the participants reported that they had been raised under conditions of significant disadvantage, with the remainder reporting that they had 'enough' (61.6%) or 'more than enough' (27.5%) during their childhood. More than half the respondents (55%) indicated that they were concerned about future conflict between their work and family responsibilities.

Measures

Anticipated work-family conflict (*AWFC*). *AWFC* was measured by adapting Gutek, Searle and Klepa's (1991) eight item measure of work-family conflict to the future tense. A 5-point Likert response scale was used. Students were expected to think about their expectations of future conflicts between work and family demands. An example of an item from the adapted scale is "After work, I will come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do".

Self-efficacy for managing future work-family conflict (SE-FWFC). SE-FWFC was measured using six items adapted from Hennessy and Lent (2008). An example of an item is "How confident are you that you could invest in your job even when under heavy pressure due to family responsibilities". Possible responses ranged from 0 = "Complete lack of confidence" to 9 = "Totally confident".

Positive affectivity (PA). PA was measured using all 10 positive affect items from the positive and negative affect schedule (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). A time period of 7 days was with responses over a five-point response scale ranging from 'very little' to 'extremely'.

Background variables. Maternal and paternal education levels (on three levels: less than Grade 12; Grade 12; tertiary qualification), maternal and paternal full-time employment during the student's childhood, overall concern for future work-family conflict, intention to have children, race, gender and socio-economic status (*SES*) were all measured with a series of single items.

Results

Principle axis factor analysis with varimax normalized rotation using Kaiser's criterion (retaining Eigenvalues > 1) was conducted on all multi-item scales. All the items measuring anticipated work-family conflict *(AWFC)* loaded on a single factor. One item had a low loading and was removed. Items measuring self-efficacy to manage future work-family conflict (*SE-FWFC*) loaded onto a single factor. The *positive affectivity (PA)* items also loaded onto a single factor.

Table 1 shows the correlation analysis and reliability analysis for the variables. The Cronbach's coefficient alpha for all the multi-item scales exceeded .7, the widely accepted threshold of acceptability (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Pearson correlations between the continuous variables were all highly significant but this may be a result of the large sample size.

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, correlation and reliability coefficients

Variable	M	SD	*1*	*2*	*3*
1. SE-FWFC	6.41	1.14	(.85)		
2. PA	3.39	0.90	0.30*	(.88)	
3. AWFC	2.67	0.58	-0.27*	-0.15*	(.74)

Note. N = 640 (casewise deletion of missing data); * p < .0001; AWFC = Anticipated work-family conflict, SE-FWFC = Self-efficacy to manage future work-family conflict, PA = Positive affectivity

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to test the two propositions concerning the prediction of AWFC. The demographic variables, race and gender, were entered first. The personal variables were entered second and the social context variables were entered third. The final regression model is shown in Table 2. The regression model after Step 1, with the inclusion of race and gender, was not significant and neither predictor was significant (though gender is only marginally not significant, the large sample size, which inflates the probability of obtaining a significant result, militates against over-empathising this). After entering the personal variables (*SE-FWFC* and *PA*) in Step 2, the model was significant and gender, *SE-FWFC* and *PA* were significant predictors of *AWFC* (race was not significant predictor). The inclusion of the personal variables in Step 2 made a significant difference to the model (ΔR^2 = .09, $p < .0001$) and the overall model was significant (R^2 = .10, $p < .0001$). After entering the social context variables in Step 3, the overall model was significant (R^2 = .15, $p < .0001$) with gender (β= .01, p = .01), *SE-FWFC* (β= -.23, $p < .0001$) and *PA* (β= -.13, $p < .0001$) as significant predictors. None of the five socialisation variables were significant in the final model and the inclusion of these variables did not add significantly to the model (ΔR^2 = .10, p = .12). That is, the final model predicted only 11.5% of the variance in AWFC, with an effect size indicating a small to medium effect (f^2 = .13). The final regression model is shown in Table 2.

Tolerance values for each independent variable were examined and there was no indication of multicollinearity. A normal probability plot of residuals was constructed, which did not indicate any violation of assumptions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Table 2. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis: DV = AWFC and proposed predictors

Variable	beta	SE beta	t(532)	p
Step 1: Demographic				
Gender	0.10	0.04	2.4	.01
Race	-0.05	0.05	-1.1	.28
Step 2: Personal				
SE-FWFC	-0.23	0.04	-5.3	**< .001**
PA	-0.13	0.04	-2.9	**< .001**
Step 3: Social context				
MOMWORK	-0.07	0.04	-1.6	0.12
MOMEDUC	0.03	0.05	0.7	0.51
DADWORK	0.05	0.04	1.1	0.27
DADEDUC	-0.10	0.05	-2.0	0.05
SES	0.05	0.05	1.1	0.27

Note. N = 542 (casewise deletion of missing data). AWFC = Anticipated work-family conflict; SE-FWFC = Self-efficacy to manage future work-family conflict; PA = positive affectivity, SES = Socio-economic status while growing up; MOMWORK = Maternal employment; MOMEDUC = Maternal level of education; DADWORK = Father's employment; DADEDUC = Father's level of education. beta = the standardised regression coefficients; SE beta = the standard error of beta. R= .338, R^2= .115, Adjusted R^2= .100, F(9,532)=7.64, p<.0001, f^2 = .13.

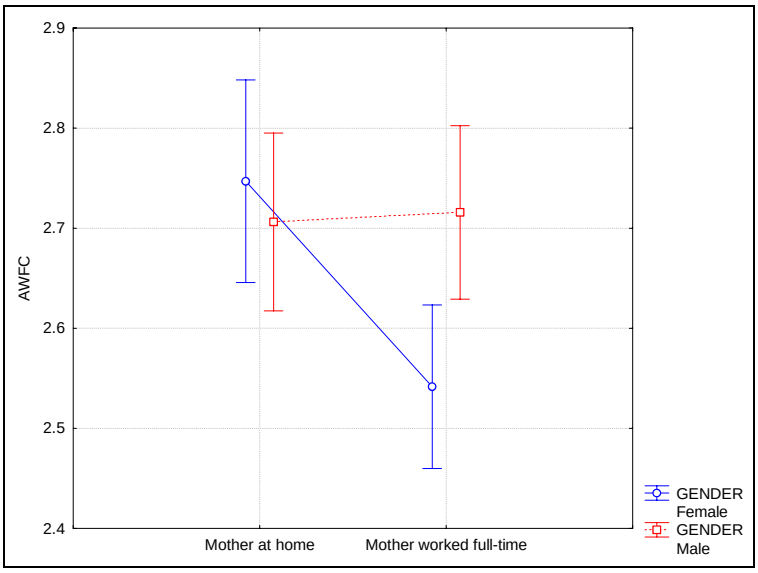
Factorial ANOVA (a two-way between-groups analysis of variance) was conducted to investigate the proposition concerning the direct and moderating relationship between gender, maternal employment and AWFC (Proposition 3). Table 3 details the results of this analysis. The interaction effect between maternal employment and gender was statistically significant, F (1, 636) = 5.51, p = .02. There was also a statistically significant main effect for maternal employment, F (1, 636) = 4.58, p = .03. However, the effect sizes (partial eta-squared) for both these significant effects were small (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The main effect for gender did not reach statistical significance, F (1, 636) = 2.13, p = 16. Figure 1 shows the direction and influence of gender and maternal employment on AWFC, it clearly illustrates that female students whose mothers worked full-time experienced significantly less AWFC than female students whose mothers did not work full-time, and that this is not significant for male students.

Table 3. Univariate tests of significance, effect sizes, and powers for AWFC

Variable	SS	df	MS	F	p	Partial eta-squared
MOMWORK	1.496	1	1.496	4.58	0.03	0.01*
GENDER	0.695	1	0.695	2.13	0.16	0.00
MOMWORK*GENDER	1.801	1	1.801	5.51	0.02	0.01*
Error	207.824	636	0.327			

Note. MOMWORK = Maternal employment 0 = mother did not work full-time, 1 = Mother worked-full time); Sigma-restricted parameterization, effective hypothesis decomposition; * = small effect size

Figure 1. The interaction of gender and maternal employment on AWFC



Discussion

Anticipated work-family conflict was a unidimensional scale indicating that South African students do not distinguish between the family to the work and work to family directionality of AWFC (c.f., Cinamon, 2006; Gutek et al. 1991), which is consistent with many other applications of AWFC (Weer et al., 2006; O'Shea et al., 2008; Bu et al., 2000; Livingston et al., 1996). Similarly, self-efficacy to manage future work-family conflict (SE-FWFC) was a unidimensional scale (Hennessy et al., 2008). Students have not yet experienced the distinct pressures that participation in work roles and family roles could have on one another and the distinction may therefore not be clear to them (Barnett et al., 2003).

Both race and gender were investigated in this study, with race as a control variable. ANOVA showed no significant main effect for gender, which means that males and female students do not differ in terms of their AWFC; though there is a difference depending on whether the student's mother worked full-time or not. Both Cinamon (2006) and Livingston et al. (1996) found that females had significantly higher levels of AWFC than male students did; they did not consider whether students' mothers had worked full-time during the students' childhood. There was no significant difference between black and white students on AWFC. In South Africa, race may be considered a crude proxy for cultural and socialisation differences not investigated in this study; it was included because cultural differences in experiencing work-family conflict have been found in previous research (Bu & McKeen, 2000).

The two personal factors investigated in this study emerged as important predictors of AWFC, positive affectivity (PA) and self-efficacy to manage work-family conflict (SE-FWFC). As predicted, students with high positive affectivity were less likely to anticipate conflict between future work and family roles. Given the temporal stability of positive affectivity, the results of this study indicate that interventions to reduce anticipated work-family conflict may not be very effective. Nevertheless, this finding emphasises the relevance of examining dispositional affect in future work-family research. Future research should include both positive and negative affectivity as predictors because there is a cogent

argument that negative affect, the general tendency to be anxious and fearful, may be an even stronger predictor of AWFC than positive affectivity. Students' belief that they will be able to manage future work-family conflict was a significant predictor of AWFC. This is reassuringly consistent with the known relationship between general self-efficacy and workplace success (Judge & Bono, 2001). These findings may encourage universities to design programmes that help foster self-efficacy to manage future work-family conflict amongst students. The findings may also help students consider the issue and make choices that sustain their preferences (Byron, 2005).

The social context variables, including maternal full-time employment during childhood, were not significant predictors of the variance in students' level of AWFC over and above the demographic and personal variables entered in earlier steps of the regression model. The interaction between gender and maternal employment in the prediction of AWFC is particularly interesting because it suggests that female students who had working mothers that worked full-time and inevitably needed to balance work and family demands drew a positive lesson from this that may have helped reduce their anticipated conflict between work and family. Further research is needed to investigate how this finding articulates with levels of maternal coping with work-family conflict and the influence of this on students' self-efficacy beliefs. This study confirms previous findings regarding the importance of considering maternal employment patterns during the students' childhood (Barnett et al., 2003; O'Shea et al., 2008). Of further interest is the strong suggestion that socialisation into the world of work begins in childhood, through an extensive social learning process, and that the attitudes and values formed during this socialisation process endure into later life.

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Chapter 13: Measurement

Assessing Personality via Frequency Estimation: More Evidence for a New Measurement Approach

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Abstract

An increasingly important focus of research on individual differences is the assessment of within person (in)consistency. Popular methods of assessing consistency (e.g., multiple survey administrations) are typically impractical. An alternative approach that provides variability information in a single administration is *frequency-based personality measurement* (Edwards & Woehr, 2007). The purpose of this paper is to further examine the viability of this approach. Toward this end, two studies are presented which examine: 1) the moderating role of temporal consistency information on relationships between personality and performance; and 2) frequency measures susceptibility to deliberate response distortion. Results indicate positive support for the viability of frequency-based personality measurement.

Introduction

The examination of within-person (in)consistency is an increasingly important focus of research in areas as varied as personality assessment (e.g., Fleeson, 2001; 2007), managerial assessment centers (Gibbons & Rupp, 2009), and entrepreneurship (Uy, Foo, & Aguinis, 2010). Within-person consistency of trait-relevant behavior has been put forth as an important variable to consider, in addition to individuals' mean level or relative standing on personality traits (e.g., Baird, Le, & Lucas, 2006; Biesanz, West, & Graziano, 1998; Fleeson, 2001; 2007). The general idea is that any given individual behaves differently on different occasions. Thus, an individual's behavior over time forms a distribution with respect to a given trait, and the various characteristics of this distribution (e.g., mean, variance, etc.) are relevant to the measurement of personality. Other reasons for investigating new measurement approaches for assessing personality include two primary criticisms leveled at traditional direct report, self-perceptions of personality: (a) weak correlations with behavior (e.g., Arthur, Woehr, & Graziano, 2001; Mischel, 1968), and (b) susceptibility to socially desirable responding (e.g., James, 1998).

Within-person variability has been suggested as a potential moderator of the relationship between personality and relevant external criteria (e.g., Baumeister & Tice, 1988). This view is based on the assumption that low correlations between measured personality and relevant outcomes might occur if personality influences behavior to a larger extent for some individuals than for others (Bem & Allen, 1974). Thus, accurate measurement of personality, as well as the prediction of behavioral outcomes, requires not only information about an individual's trait level, but also the extent to which that trait will influence behavior for the individual (i.e., degree of consistency). A number of researchers (e.g., Biesanz et al., 1998; Biesanz & West, 2000) have operationalized within-person variability as variance in responses to the same scale items over time. In fact, to date the predominant approach to the

assessment of within-person variability has been the use of experience sampling methodology (e.g., Fleeson, 2007, Uy et al., 2010). One of the primary limitations of assessing temporal stability over multiple measurements, however, is that multiple measurements are required. Thus, it would be beneficial to develop personality assessment systems that provide a measure of temporal stability in a single testing session. The use of frequency estimation-based assessment offers a potential solution to this problem.

Measurement systems based on frequency estimation require individuals to report the frequency of occurrence for specific outcomes or behaviors over a specified time period (Kane, 1986). The result is a frequency distribution that portrays the range of an individual's behavior, including central tendency and variability (Kane & Woehr, 2006). The efficacy of this approach has been demonstrated in the job performance (e.g., Woehr & Miller, 1997) and personality literatures (Edwards & Woehr, 2007). Edwards and Woehr proposed the application of a frequency-based measurement system to the assessment of personality. An example item from their frequency-based scale is presented in the Appendix. As demonstrated by the example item, the frequency-based format requires respondents to report three frequencies for each item. Using this approach, Edwards and Woehr (2007) operationalized both overall level (i.e., mean) and consistency (i.e., within-item variability) on the basis of the distribution reflected in the percentages assigned to each response category. Consistency was operationalized as the mean within-item standard deviation (SD) across items assessing a given personality dimension. Edwards and Woehr (2007) found that mean scores obtained via frequency-based personality measurement were equivalent to those obtained with Likert-type scales and that within-item SD (available only with frequency-based scales) moderated self–other agreement on ratings of personality such that lower variability (more consistency) coincided with stronger self–other agreement.

Our primary goal in the present paper is to extend the preliminary work done by Edwards and Woehr (2007) by providing a more detailed examination of frequency estimation-based personality assessment. Specifically, we examine the extent to which the within-person variability index provided by the frequency-estimation based approach add to the prediction of external criteria, either directly or by moderating the relation between personality level and the criteria? We present the results of two studies designed to address this question.

Study 1

Previous research has demonstrated the psychometric equivalency of traditional Likert type and frequency estimation-based scales using the same items stems as well as similar relationships with non-personality individual difference. To date, however, research has not fully addressed the potential added impact of assessing consistency in the prediction of external criteria. Arguably the real value of a consistency measure is that it moderates personality–behavior relationships. Consequently, we sought to investigate the extent to which a frequency estimation-based measure of consistency does indeed moderate the personality–behavior relationship. Thus, in this study we examined the relationship of frequency-based personality assessments of both level and variability with external observer ratings of team performance. We posit that temporal consistency in behavioral expression should moderate the predictive relationship between personality and behavior such that more consistent individuals will have stronger relationships between personality and behavior than participants with less consistent behavior.

Study participants were 133 undergraduate business students. All participants completed two measures of each of three personality dimensions (agreeableness, conscientiousness, and emotional stability). The first measure was a subset of 30 items from the 50-Item International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) Scale (Goldberg, 1999; IPIP, 2008). An example item is provided in the Appendix. The frequency-based responses were collected in the form of three percentages for each item (with the percentages summing to 100). These percentages needed to be combined into a single score for each item. To do this, each response level was assigned a scale value (very inaccurate = .01, neither accurate nor inaccurate = .04, very accurate = .07), and each scale value was weighted by the percentage reported for the response level. Finally, the set of 3 weighted scale values was summed. This resulted in a score *on each item* ranging from 1 to 7. The item scores were then used to compute scale scores and internal consistency estimates. The second measure was the subset of 24 items from Saucier's (1994) 40-item "Mini-Marker" unipolar markers. All participants completed the personality measures via online survey prior to participating in a semester-long group project. The group project was created to simulate an organizational work team. Groups consisting of six randomly assigned participants were required to develop an idea for a new business and deliver several written reports and presentations regarding how they would launch the new business, compete with other companies, and maintain and grow the company. At the end of the semester, students were asked to rate the performance of their team members with respect to frequency of participation, quality of participation, and teamwork skills.

The frequency-based response format allows for a measurement of within-item variability not possible with the standard response format. As described by Kane (1986), we calculated a measure of this variability as the standard deviation of the distribution of an item reflected in the percentages assigned. For example, if percentages were assigned to an item such that the respondent indicated that half of their behavior was not at all accurately described by the item and half of their behavior was very accurately described by the item, then the standard deviation of a distribution in which half of the scores were 1's and half of the scores were 7's would reflect the within-item variability. We then used the mean within-item SD across the 10 items corresponding to each of the five personality dimensions as a measure of dimensional (in)consistency. Coefficient alpha calculated for each index of temporal consistency for each dimension ranged from .85 to .87.

At the mean level, only conscientiousness from the frequency-based scale was significantly related to peer ratings of individual performance (r = .18, p < .05). In order to test the hypothesis that temporal stability moderates the relationship between personality and performance ratings, moderated multiple regressions were performed by centering the main effects (e.g., personality dimension scores and personality dimension within-item SD values), computing the cross-products of these values for each dimension, and entering each in a hierarchical regression for each personality dimension (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Also, Likert-type personality scores were entered as the first step in each regression as a control variable. Thus, we conducted a 4-step hierarchical regression for each personality dimension. Three moderated multiple regressions were performed for agreeableness, conscientiousness, and emotional stability with the peer ratings of individual performance as the dependent variable. Significant interactions were found for agreeableness and conscientiousness (Table 1). Further, an examination of the simple slopes for both personality dimensions revealed that individuals demonstrating lower within-item variability exhibited stronger relationships between personality and performance than did individuals with higher within-item variability. More specifically, the sample was split into two sub-samples of participants for each dimension, one with low within-item SD scores and one with high

within-item SD scores. At low levels of agreeableness within-item SD, the correlation between agreeableness and total peer evaluation was .25. At high levels of agreeableness within-item SD, the correlation between agreeableness and total peer evaluation was -.14. At low levels of conscientiousness within-item SD, the correlation between conscientiousness and total peer evaluation was .39. At high levels of conscientiousness within-item SD, the correlation between conscientiousness and total peer evaluation was .16.

Study 2

To date, there is a sizable amount of empirical evidence indicating that response distortion reduces the accuracy of self-reports and also attenuates the criterion-related validity of personality tests (e.g., Bing, Whanger, Davison, & VanHook, 2004; Holden, 2008). In Study 2, we sought to examine the potential moderating role of measurement format on susceptibility to socially desirable responding. Thus, we examined the extent to which frequency-based estimation of personality differs in susceptibility to conscious response distortion as compared to the traditional Likert-type response format. In developing the distributional assessment model, Kane (1986) posited that frequency-based estimation should be less susceptible to deliberate response distortion than traditional performance assessment techniques (e.g., Likert-type format) because estimating frequencies are less transparent to raters than traditional approaches. Thus, we hypothesize that response distortion on a frequency-based personality measure will be lower than response distortion on a Likert-type personality measure when respondents are instructed to fake.

Undergraduate students (N = 476) from two large southeastern universities were recruited to participate in return for extra credit in psychology and management courses. The same 50-item IPIP scale was used to measure the Big Five as in Study 1 via online survey. However, half of the participants completed the measure with a frequency-based format and half completed the measure with a 5-point Likert-type format. The item stems were identical for all participants. Each participant was randomly assigned to one of four conditions: (a) frequency-based / honest, (b) frequency-based / fake-good, (c) Likert-type / honest, or (d) Likert-type / fake-good. The honest and fake-good instructions were as follows: “The nature of the project requires that you answer the following questions as honestly as possible, so please provide as accurate answers as you can” (Honest); “While you are taking this personality test imagine that you are applying for a job that you would like to get. Please describe yourself in a way that you think will ensure that you will be hired for the job” (Fake-good).

In order to test the hypothesis that scale means on a frequency-based personality measure will be lower than scale means on a Likert-type personality measure when respondents are instructed to fake, we conducted 2 x 2 Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs) for mean scores on each personality construct separately. As predicted, there was a statistically significant interaction between response format and instruction condition for conscientiousness, $F(1, 472) = 6.23$, $p < .05$, emotional stability, $F(1, 472) = 12.29$, $p < .001$, and openness to experience, $F(1, 472) = 8.50$, $p < .01$. An inspection of the means revealed that differences between honest and faking conditions were significantly greater for the Likert-type response format than for the frequency-based format. Although significant differences were found between the honest and faking conditions for the frequency-based response format, these differences were greater for the Likert-type response format. Moreover, the differences were such that mean scale scores were higher in the fake-good condition than the honest condition.

These results supported the hypothesis that scores from the frequency-based personality format would be significantly less influenced by instructions to fake than scores from the Likert-type personality format. Although interactions for extraversion and agreeableness were not statistically significant, the trends were in the hypothesized direction. Also, effect sizes for mean differences across instruction conditions were larger for the Likert-type format than the frequency-based format for all five dimensions.

Discussion

The present study adds to the growing trend in the organizational sciences of assessing variability in the measurement of variables related to entrepreneurship, assessment centers, performance appraisal, emotions, work-family conflict, attitudes, and personality (e.g., Baird et al., 2006; Fisher, 2000; Fleeson, 2001; Gibbons & Rupp, 2009; Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006; Uy et al., 2010). However, the predominant approach to the assessment of within-person variability has been the use of experience sampling methodology (e.g., Fleeson, 2007, Uy et al., 2010) which requires multiple measurements and thus is often time consuming, expensive, and cumbersome for test takers. We posit that the use of frequency estimation-based assessment offers an additional approach to the study of within-person variability. The results of the present research demonstrated that the psychometric properties of a frequency-based personality measure of the Big Five are adequate and similar to other measures of the Big Five. Further, frequency-based personality measures have the added advantage (over traditional Likert-type approaches) of providing an index of temporal consistency (i.e., within-item SD) that can be obtained from a single administration rather than requiring multiple administrations of the same measure.

The results of Study 1 supported the personality–behavior moderation hypothesis for two of three personality dimensions. For both agreeableness and conscientiousness, the index of temporal consistency uniquely provided by frequency-based measurement moderated the relationship between mean level personality and individual performance. More specifically, we obtained stronger agreeableness–performance and conscientiousness–performance relationships among individuals with lower within-item SD (i.e., greater consistency).

The primary implication is that behavioral variability is a viable explanation for historically low personality–performance relationships. It is entirely likely that personality is predictive of performance for some people but not others and that consistency in behavioral expression is a likely explanation. For example, in Study 1 there was a small (nonsignificant) bivariate relationship between agreeableness and performance (r = .10). However, separating the participants into groups high and low in behavioral consistency showed that the relationship was r = .25 for those with consistent behavioral expression which, although small-to-moderate, was statistically significant and higher than the relationship between agreeableness and interpersonal facilitation (ρ = .20) reported by Hurtz and Donovan (2000). What was also interesting was the small correlation between agreeableness and performance in the inconsistent sample (r = -.14) that was in the *opposite* direction and presumably "cancelled out" the positive correlation in the consistent sample, thus yielding a small, nonsignificant bivariate correlation in the overall sample. Furthermore, the uncorrected bivariate correlation between conscientiousness and performance for the consistent sample in Study 1 was r = .39, which is far stronger than previous selection research would suggest and breaks the so-called "correlational ceiling of .30 between personality and behavior" suggested by Mischel (1968).

In addition to providing more precision in predicting behavior, we also found that frequency-based measurement are more resistant to faking than traditional Likert-type measures in Study 2. Significant interactions were found between response format and instruction condition for three personality traits (i.e., conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience) such that deliberate response distortion was larger for participants who completed a Likert-type measure than for participants who completed a frequency-based measure. Previous research has indicated that the Big Five, especially conscientiousness, are predictors of work-related success (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). However, response distortion may threaten the integrity of measures of these dimensions. It is quite easy to see how measures of the Big Five that are less susceptible to response distortion could be useful to both researchers and practitioners alike.

In conclusion, the present studies as well as previous research (e.g., Edwards & Woehr, 2007) have provided a favorable body of evidence for frequency estimation-based personality measurement, thus opening the door for future research in this area. The generally positive findings reported here suggest that frequency-based measurement may be a fruitful area of research if extended to other behavioral, attitudinal, and value-based constructs, such as affect, emotion, work values, or any other variables with state-like properties.

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Appendix

Example Item for the Frequency-Based Response Format

The first statement is "I am the life of the party". Of all the opportunities you've had to display this behavior in the past 6 months, think of how frequently this statement was descriptive of your actual behavior at each of the three levels. If you feel that "I am the life of the party" was very descriptive of your behavior 50% of the time, somewhat descriptive of your behavior 35% of the time, and not at all descriptive of your behavior 15% of the time, then your response would look like:

	% very inaccurate	% neither inaccurate nor accurate	% very accurate
I am the life of the party.	15	35	50

Table 1. Moderated multiple regression results from Study 1

DV = Total Peer Evaluation

Step	Variable	β	*t*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
1	Likert-type Agree	.00	0.02	.05	.00	.00
2	Frequency-based Agree	.01	0.08	.10	.01	.01
3	Agreeableness WSD	-.09	-0.70	.11	.01	.00
4	Agreeableness Interaction	-.23*	-2.60	.25	.06	.05*
1	Likert-type Consc	.05	0.36	.11	.01	.01
2	Frequency-based Consc	.34*	2.17	.18	.03	.02
3	Conscientiousness WSD	-.10	-0.81	.19	.04	.00
4	Conscientiousness Interaction	-.20*	-2.15	.26	.07	.03*
1	Likert-type Emotional St	-.13	-1.03	.11	.01	.01
2	Frequency-based Emotional St	-.06	-0.40	.11	.01	.00
3	Emotional Stability WSD	-.01	-0.10	.11	.01	.00
4	Emotional Stability Interaction	.12	0.90	.14	.02	.01

Note. * $p < .05$; $N = 133$; β is the standardized regression estimate; Agree = Agreeableness; Consc = Conscientiousness; Emotional St = Emotional stability; WSD = Within-item standard deviation; Interaction is the cross-product of the variables entered in at steps 2 and 3.

Attempt to Use Organizational Leadership Model for Measuring Job Satisfaction: The Case of IT Service Organization in Estonia

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Abstract*

The aim of the article is to explore to what extent organizational leadership model can be used for measuring job satisfaction. Considerable research has been devoted to leadership and job satisfaction, however this not sufficient as it does not study links between organizational leadership and job satisfaction. In order to fill that gap the authors attempt to use organizational leadership model for measuring job satisfaction.

A survey was carried out in a small sized IT company in Estonia using Institutional Leadership Questionnaire (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010) for analyzing leadership on the organizational level. Information about job satisfaction was collected through interviews. The authors present key findings and analyze the extent to what organizational leadership model reflects job satisfaction.

Organizational leadership capability

The leadership exists at individual and collective level, which in their sum, form organizational leadership. Traditional view of leadership presumes a top-down influence of the leader on followers, where the leader is the primary originator and conductor of leadership (Drath, 2001; Pearce & Conger, 2003). However, leadership is also a property of the whole organization (O'Connor & Quinn, 2004) where collective leadership qualities are embedded in the organization's systems and structure (Pasternack, Williams & Anderson, 2001).

Success of an organization as a whole depends not on the performance of some remarkable individuals, but on the collective contribution of all members (Jacobs, 1981). For such success, many people have to support the well being of the organization and the organization should be aware of its members' willingness to support their organization and understand the essence of collective work.

Several authors have discussed the broad variety of notions of leadership at different collective levels: group, team and organization (e.g., Hiller et al., 2006; Day et al., 2004; O'Connor & Quinn, 2004; Pasternack et al., 2001). Organizational leadership is defined as the collective ability of leadership to detect and cope with changes in the external environment by maintaining the primary goals of the organization (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010). In the current study the model of organizational leadership capability developed by Kivipõld and Vadi (2010) is used. The model marks three main factors of organizational leadership:

- alignment and cohesion;

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- the architecture of the internal network;
- control-feedback system.

Alignment and Cohesion factor represents the strategic process as an aggregated principle of organizational leadership to define organizational orientation and to create the future of an organization through the implementation of strategy. The strategic process itself is characterized by external and internal dimensions where processes across all organizational levels focus on the central goals and objectives of the organization. Organizational goals and objectives bring organizational members together throughout the organization to act as a single entity by giving sense to their job and creating commitment (Wheatley, 1999).

The architecture of the internal network represents the ability of the organizational network to process the information flow throughout the organization: its registration, transition and interpretation in leadership processes. Information itself could be "action oriented" or merely background or contextual information and follow both: formal and informal networks of the organization.

Control-feedback System represents self-regulatory processes as a part of leadership processes that creates organization's self-organizing dynamics. Self-regulating behaviour in systems is revealed through feedback processes that allow organizations to establish dynamic balance (dynamic equilibrium) (Capra, 1996). Organizations behave in response to available information and interpretations of that information.

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction as employees' emotional well-being with their behaviour implies in functioning of an organization. It has been defined as the emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job (Arvey, 2006; Locke, 1976). Scholars have drawn out different aspects and factors reflecting and influencing job satisfaction (Table 1).

Table 1. Comparison of main facets of job satisfaction proposed by different authors

Wanous & Lawler (1972)	Weiss et al. (1967)	Kalleberg (1977)	Snipes et al. (2005)	Arvey (2006)
(*not divided into intrinsic and extrinsic facets*) - self-esteem; - growth; - security; - social; - autonomy; - pay.	**Intrinsic:** - type of work; - achievement; - ability utilization. **Extrinsic:** - working conditions; - supervision; - co-workers; - company.	**Intrinsic:** *(separate facets not listed)* **Extrinsic:** - convenience; - financial; - co-workers; - career; - resource adequacy	**Intrinsic:** - nature of work; - satisfaction with customers. **Extrinsic:** - supervision; - pay; - benefits; - contingent rewards	**Intrinsic:** - features associated with the work itself; - achievement; - recognition. **Extrinsic:** - working conditions; - supervision; - components of the environment context

Source: compiled by the authors

Wanous and Lawler (1972) draw distinctions between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with a particular *facet* of one's job – job facet satisfaction. They defined overall job satisfaction as a sum of job facet satisfaction across all facets of a job. Other scholars are more detail by dividing facets between individuals experiences of the job (intrinsic facets) and satisfaction of working environment (extrinsic facets) (e.g., Arvey, 2006; Snipes et al., 2005; Kalleberg, 1977; Weiss et al., 1967).

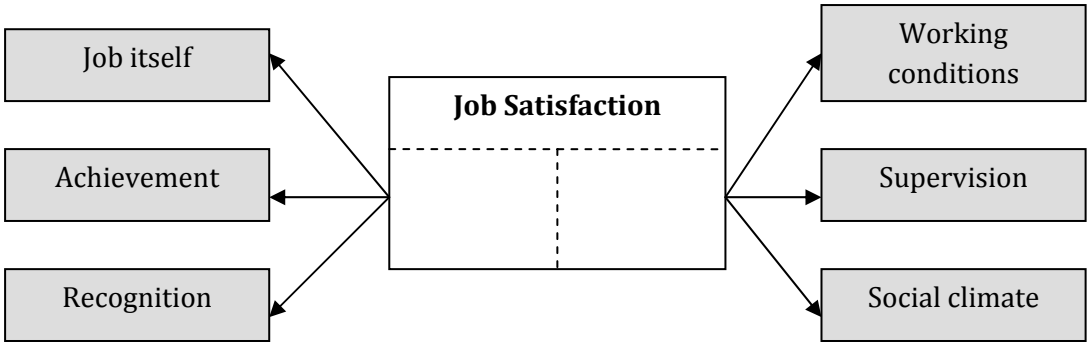
Intrinsic aspects of the job are related to the tasks (Dormann & Zapf, 2001) and experiences of the job by individuals (Arvey et al., 1989). The job tasks allow employees to develop and use their abilities providing them to be self-directive, and to see the results of the work. One of the most important intrinsic facet is *work itself*, mentioned by Weiss et al. (1967), Snipes et al. (2005), Arvey (2006) (Table 1), and generally described by Kalleberg (1977).

Other important intrinsic facet is *achievement* of results (goals) and ability to utilize the skills for this (Arvey, 2006; Kalleberg, 1977; Weiss et al., 1967). Employees' work efforts and self-efficiency are important variables that influence job satisfaction (Karatepe, Uludag, Menevis, Hadzimehmedagic & Baddar, 2006). A third important job facet is *recognition* mentioned by Arvey (2006), Busch, Fallan and Pettersen (1998). Weiss et al. (1967) use it also, but in the limited mode "The praise I get for doing a good job", referring to some symbols or ceremonies used by management of organisational hierarchy. Recognition involves stakeholders, managers, colleagues (Busch et al., 1998), customers (Snipes et al., 2005), competitors and public with their attitudes.

Extrinsic aspects of the job are related to work environment (Arvey et al., 1989): physical and social organizational environment combined with the management processes and systems. A significant facet is *working conditions*, mentioned by Weiss et al. (1967), Arvey et al. (1989), Arvey (2006). Kalleberg (1977) described this as a convenience dimension, which refers to characteristics that provides solid creature comforts, i.e., a "soft" job. According to him this includes: convenient travel to and from work, good hours, freedom from conflicting demands, pleasant physical surroundings, no excessive amount of work, and enough time to do the work and an opportunity to forget about personal problems. It also includes pay and other benefits.

Other important job facet in extrinsic category is *supervision* (Weiss et al., 1967; Snipes et al., 2005; Avrey, 2006), which expresses both: management processes and leadership activities. The third is *social* (or *organizational*) *climate*, mentioned by Weiss et al. (1967) and Kalleberg (1977) as a relationship with co-workers. This reflects a worker's desire for the satisfaction of social needs from work activities. Figure 1 summarizes all three main intrinsic facets (*job itself*, *achievement*, and *recognition*) and three main extrinsic facets (*working conditions, supervision,* and *social climate*) of job satisfaction, which were formulated for the current research.

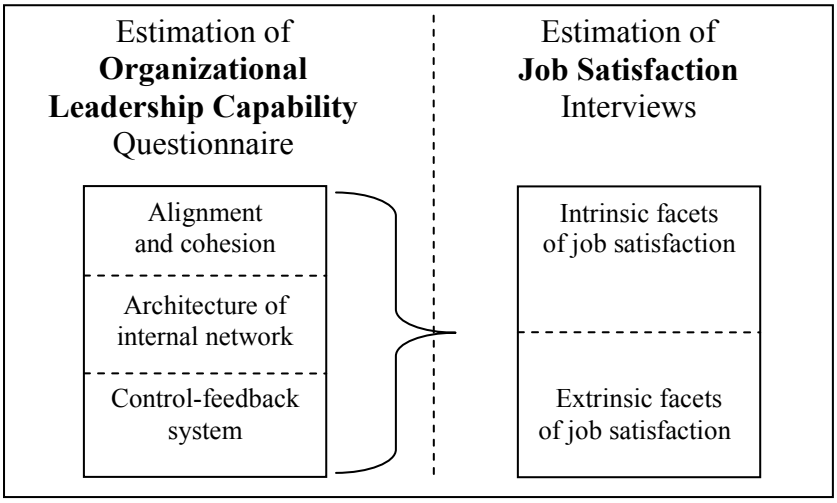
Figure 1. Job satisfaction facets (Source: compiled by the authors)



Methodology

In order to examine to what extent organizational leadership capability (OLC) model could be used for measuring job satisfaction the authors developed the measurement frame (Figure 2). A study in a small sized (18 employees) IT company in Estonia was carried out using quantitative and qualitative methods. The study was conducted in three steps (1) measurement of OLC; (2) measurement of job satisfaction; and (3) analyses of results gained from studying organizational leadership and job satisfaction.

Figure 2. Measurement frame for measuring job satisfaction with OLC (Source: compiled by the authors)



In the first step, OLC was measured by the organizational leadership questionnaire, designed by Kivipõld and Vadi (2010), which consisted of closed-ended questions with seven-point scales (strongly disagree to strongly agree). All 18 employees were asked to fill in the questionnaire and for analyses they were divided into four groups (administration, sales, technicians, and help desk service). In order to examine the differences between these four groups the data received from the questionnaire were treated by t-test ($p < 0.05$). The t-test showed differences between two groups: administration and sales on one side, and groups of technicians and help desk service on the other side. Therefore, these two groups were used in the further analyses. In the second phase, interview questions based on job satisfaction facets were developed and semi-structured in-depth interviews were carried out. Finally, results of the study were analyzed and conclusions about the possibilities on measurement job satisfaction facets with OLC were brought forward.

Results and discussion

OLC factors were measured separately in two groups: administration and sales ($n = 7$), and technicians and help desk service ($n = 11$). Table 2 summarizes results of organizational leadership factors values and t-test values ($p < 0.05$) confirming differences between two groups (administration and sales; technicians and help desk service) across OLC factors. Comparing results of two groups we can bring out two important findings: 1) administration and sales group are more homogeneous than group of technicians and help desk service

(values of standard deviation); 2) OLC is higher in the group of administration and sales, and lower in group of technicians and help desk service (all OLC factor values are higher in this group compared to the group of technicians and help desk service).

Table 2. OLC factors values in two different groups in IT organization

	Administration and sales (SD)	Technicians and help desk (SD)	**t-test** (p value)
Alignment and cohesion	**6.11** (1.13)	**5.21** (1.57)	0.007
Architecture of internal network	**5.86** (1.08)	**4.86** (1.37)	0.001
Control-feedback system	**6.26** (0.66)	**4.86** (1.32)	0.000

Source: compiled by the authors

In regard to job satisfaction the results of the interviews also showed difference between functional work groups. In particular technicians' understandings, followed by the help desk employees, stood out for emphasizing *intrinsic* facets, particularly *job itself*. For example in answering the question: "Why do you value working for this company?" all technicians brought first forward the possibilities for high level professional development, knowledge sharing and learning. Employees in help desk valued company's reputation, learning different skills and being surrounded by clever people.

Achievement as the second intrinsic factor was not expressed by the praise but rather through the value technicians created to the customers when satisfying their high level IT security service needs. Variety of job due to different projects and certain freedom in developing complex and latest info technological solutions for customers was considered as a major driving force and *recognition* by technicians and help desk group. Also, company's high reputation, access to latest IT knowledge and equipment was mentioned as influencing factors for well being at work. Findings from the interviews confirm the statement that intelligence of a person is positively related to desired job complexity (more intelligent person desire more complex work) and this positively influences job satisfaction of an employee (Ganzach, 1998).

People working in administration and sales answered the same question by stressing *social climate*, e.g. informal relations, ease of communication and good manager-supervisor relationship. This reflects *extrinsic* factors being more dominant in their job satisfaction. Possibility to work with intelligent people and a good pay were also mentioned as pleasant factors. The latter also belongs to the category of extrinsic factors.

Representatives of all functions considered modern and comfortable *working conditions* positive factor influencing their motivation however technicians and help desk employees seemed to think of their good surrounding as something obvious but not important to mention specially. Employees in sales and administration were much more eager to express satisfaction with physical working environment, which again reflects stronger presence of *extrinsic* factors among this group.

The question, which focused on the last category of extrinsic factors aimed to understand interviewees' satisfaction with *supervision* and management style. It was also answered slightly differently across functions. People from sales and administration appreciated manager's openness, fairness, availability and inspiring nature. Technicians and help desk

employees emphasized flat structure, vision sharing, good sense of humor and open communication. Authors observed technicians views about supervision being more related to leadership on individual level: interaction between leader and follower. At the same time sales and administration view on supervision was more on the overall collective-organizational level. In addition, sales and administration were positive about supervision, technicians and help desk people also expressed critical views either on how they prefer to be supervised or how manager should treat people. Quotes from the interviews: "More attention should be paid to people's stress and problems and not make face as they are not there". Among technicians there was a view that: "Skills give power and develop hierarchies in our organization. The more you knowledgeable you are the more authority you have". In authors' opinion technicians clearly realized their value for the company and felt free to criticize management style, however they did not emphasize manager's role in their emotional well-being at work.

Altogether the results of the interviews showed that *intrinsic* facets of job satisfaction were stronger represented in the group of technicians and help desk (T&H) than in administration and sales (A&S) – Job Satisfaction: T&H > A&S. However the results with OLC measurement tool showed the opposite distinction between groups – OLC: T&H < A&S. It was found, based on the survey, that OLC model does not cover *intrinsic* facets of job satisfaction.

In regard to extrinsic facets, it turned out that the facet *working conditions* was considered almost equally important by both groups. However other two facets *social climate* and *supervision* were expressed with different strength across groups. Administration and sales placed stronger emphasize on *social climate* and *supervision* – Job Satisfaction: T&H < A&S. Also OLC reflected higher values in administration and sales – OLC: T&H < A&S. To sup up, the study showed that OLC model covers extrinsic facets of job satisfaction.

Conclusion

The authors used OLC model, designed to measure the extent to which leadership skills and knowledge of organizational members are embedded in the structure of an organization (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010) for measuring job satisfaction. Based on the empirical survey conducted in IT service organization the authors found that the OLC model sheds also light on extrinsic facets (*working conditions, supervision, social climate*) of job satisfaction, however it ignores intrinsic facets of job satisfaction (*job itself, achievement, recognition).*

Findings of the study show additional measurement possibilities of OLC and bring forward its shortcomings when assessing organizational performance in terms of job satisfaction. The latter should be especially important when using OLC in service sector organizations as according to Huffman and Ingram (1992) study the intrinsic job satisfaction dimensions are positively and significantly correlated with a customer orientation, when satisfaction with extrinsic facets was not found to be significantly related to a customer orientation.

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Assessing the Generalizability of Organizational Justice across Seven Countries

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Abstract

To date little if any research has fully examined the cross-cultural generalizability of measures of organizational justice (OJ). We use an application of generalizability theory to examine the generalizability of the three factor model of OJ across seven countries (Brazil, France, Mexico, Moldova, Romania, Spain and Venezuela), four languages (French, Spanish, Romanian, and Portuguese), and three geographical regions (Western Europe, Eastern Europe, and Latin America). Results indicate that the three dimensional model of OJ generalize well across countries – internal consistency was relatively high across all divisions, and language, country and region accounted for relatively small proportion of overall variance. However, although relatively small, language accounted for more variance than did country or region.

Introduction

Organizational justice is a term used to describe the role of fairness in the workplace (Greenberg, 1995) and represents a key construct in the organizational literature. This is certainly not surprising given that a productive relationship between the organization and its employees depends on individual perceptions of organizational environment (e.g., the compensation system, rewards, etc). Moreover, justice is a subjective and descriptive concept in that it captures what individuals believe to be right, rather than an objective reality or a prescriptive moral code (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Therefore, justice is a very volatile concept, that can be detrimental in a work setting if is not managed carefully. In addition, as stated by Cropanzano et al. (2007) "justice defines the very essence of individuals' relationship to employers" (p. 34). Thus, organizational justice represents a core construct that defines organization's identity with its stakeholders, both internal and external. Moreover, organizational justice should be universally relevant and applicable across countries and cultures. Although there has been an ongoing debate regarding the structure of organizational justice, three types of justice perceptions have generally been examined. These are distributive justice (i.e., fairness about outcomes, Adams, 1965), procedural justice (i.e., fairness about the processes by which outcomes are allocated, Leventhal, 1980), and interactional justice (i.e., fairness about interpersonal treatment, Bies & Moag, 1986).

An important aspect of organizational research is the direct comparison of different countries and cultures with respect to relevant constructs. Cross-cultural perspectives on organizational justice are important, since they contribute to assessing the generalizability of organizational justice theories beyond North America (Greenberg, 2001). Cross-cultural research can also contribute to a greater understanding of justice principles. From a practical perspective, it can assist managers of a culturally diverse workforce to better understand how organizational policies and practices affect employees' perceptions of justice, as well as the consequences of those perceptions (Skarlicki, 2001).

Yet, direct cross-cultural comparisons are meaningful only to the extent that measures of the constructs are shown to be equivalent. Without an explicit examination of equivalence, no claims can be made about cross-cultural similarities and differences. Yet, to date little if any research on organizational justice (OJ) has fully examined the cross-cultural generalizability of measures of the construct.

Generalizability (G) theory formally presented by Cronbach, Gleser, Nanda, and Rajaratnam (1972) can be used to provide an index assessing the degree of generalizability achieved for a given scale. It also provides supplementary evidence of measurement invariance across countries. G theory is a statistical theory for evaluating the dependability ('reliability') of behavioral measurements (Webb and Shavelson, 2005). Each characteristic of the measurement situation that a decision maker would be indifferent to (e.g., test form, item, occasion, rater, error) is a potential source of error and is called a facet of a measurement. The universe of admissible observations, then, is defined by all possible combinations of the levels (called conditions) of the facets. In order to evaluate the dependability of behavioral measurements, a G study is designed to isolate and estimate as many facets of measurement error as is reasonably and economically feasible (Webb and Shavelson, 2005). Sharma and Weathers (2003) discusses the use of G theory to assess the extent to which a previously administered scale can be generalized across countries. The article further illustrates how G theory can be used in conjunction with a confirmatory factor analytic (CFA) framework to provide supplementary evidence of measurement invariance across countries. The article concludes with a discussion of the unique benefits of CFA and G theory and suggests that the two techniques should be treated as complementary techniques.

Thus, in the present study we use an application of G theory to examine the generalizability of the three factor model of OJ across seven countries (Brazil, France, Mexico, Moldova, Romania, Spain and Venezuela), four languages (French, Spanish, Romanian, and Portuguese), and three geographical regions (Western Europe, Eastern Europe, and Latin America).

Method

Participants and Procedure

In this study, questionnaires were completed by 748 participants across seven countries, four languages, and three distinct geographic regions (Western Europe – France and Spain; Latin American - Venezuela, Mexico, and Brazil; Eastern Europe - Romania and Moldova). All participants were currently employed. The overall response rate was 35%. The mean age of the respondents from all countries was 32.03 (min=18, max=73, SD=10.52), and 44.3% (n=331) were male.

Brazilian sample. The Brazilian sample was recruited from six different social networks from all over the country. The link with the Portuguese version of the questionnaire was sent to a total of 235 employees, and 77 usable questionnaires were received in return (33 %). The mean age of the respondents was 34.77 (min= 20, max=73, SD=11.26), and 45% (n=42) were male.

French sample. The French sample was recruited from four different sources from all over the country: (a) two sources from academic environments, (b) one from a multinational manufacturing company, and (c) one from an architecture network. The link with the French version of the questionnaire was sent to a total of 477 employees, and 148 usable questionnaires were received in return (32 %). The mean age of the respondents was 27.33 (min=18, max=57, SD=9.4), and 56% (n=83) were male.

Mexican sample. The Mexican sample was recruited from four different social networks from all over the country. The link with the Spanish version of the questionnaire was sent to a total of 98 employees, and 58 usable questionnaires were received in return (59 %). The mean age of the respondents was 33.21 (min= 23, max=57, SD=8.22), and 53% (n=31) were male.

Moldavian sample. The Moldavian sample was recruited from six different sources: (a) a network of non-profit organizations, (b) a local distribution company and (c) four different group networks. Both sources were located in the capital city, which assured a large heterogeneity of the population (the capital attracts people from all over the country). The link with the Romanian version of the questionnaire was sent to a total of 162 employees, and 75 usable questionnaires were received in return (47 %). The mean age of the respondents was 27.25 (min=19, max=58, SD=5.74), and 36% (n=27) were male.

Romanian sample. The Romanian sample was recruited from a big multinational company located in the capital city, which assured a large heterogeneity of the population (the capital attracts people from all over the country). The link with the Romanian version of the questionnaire was sent to 1143 employees, and 160 usable questionnaires were received in return (14 %). The mean age of the respondents was 27.6 (min=20, max=56, SD=6.71), and 22% (n=35) were male.

Spanish sample. The Spanish sample was recruited from seven different social networks. All of them were working in national or multinational companies all over the country. The link with the Spanish version of the questionnaire was sent to a total of 297 employees, and 110 usable questionnaires were received in return (37 %). The mean age of the respondents was 32.7 (min=24, max=55, SD=6.6), and 45.5% (n=50) were male.

Venezuelan sample. The Venezuelan sample was recruited from three different sources: a) a big university and b) two networks. The link with the Spanish version of the questionnaire was sent to a total of 11000 employees, and 120 usable questionnaires were received in return (11 %). The mean age of the respondents was 44.1 (min=23, max=69, SD=11.4), and 57.5% (n=69) were male.

Organizational Justice Measures

Distributive justice (DJ). Price and Mueller (1986) measure distributive justice with a six-item scale. These items were related with the perceived fairness of the rewarding system. The internal consistency for this dimension by country was: Brazil α = .92, France α = .85, Mexico α =.94, Moldova α = .90, Romania α = .90, Spain α = .89, and Venezuela α = .96.

Procedural Justice (PJ). Sweeney and McFarlin (1993) constructed four items to measure procedural justice. These items asked respondents about the fairness of four general procedures: those used to communicate performance feedback, to determine pay raises, to evaluate performance and to determine promotions. The internal consistency for this dimension by country was: Brazil α = .88, France α = .86, Mexico α =.89, Moldova α = .87, Romania α = .89, Spain α = .88, and Venezuela α = .88.

Interactional justice (IJ). Moorman (1991) developed four items to tap the fairness perceptions of the interactions that accompanied an organization's formal procedures. Items for this factor included questions that focused on the interpersonal behavior of the supervisor. The internal consistency for this dimension by country was: Brazil α = .90, France α = .84, Mexico α =.90, Moldova α = .88, Romania α = .88, Spain α = .86, and Venezuela α = .90.

Translation

In the present research were used a combination of translation procedures. First we started with translation - back translation (Brislin, 1980, 1986), but because this method usually provides just a verbatim translation, which is not necessarily the best one (Silverthorne, 2005) in a second step we checked for the accuracy of the translation in order to provide a more fluent version, which also takes in consideration the natural flow of the language.

The last step was to pre-test the measures on two people for each language, and final adjustments were made. Pre-testing the translated measure is an important step in consolidating the final version of the measure (Brislin, 1980, 1986). Furthermore, the Spanish version was double checked for Mexico and Venezuela before the measure was applied. In addition, the Portuguese version was pre-tested in Brazil and some small differences were reconciliated. The Romanian version was checked in Moldova (where the official language is Romanian, but there are Russian influences) but no important differences were found.

Data Analysis

In this study both countries and subjects within each country are selected at random. The scale is administered to each subject, and variances due to the five sources are estimated. Subjects' scores are expected to differ, as subjects would obviously vary with respect to the construct of interest. Also is expected that scores across countries to differ due to, for example, different cultural orientations. Subjects and countries, therefore, contribute desired or expected variance, and in G theory terminology, these factors are known as differentiation factors or objects of measurement (Sharma and Weathers, 2003). One would also expect some variance of scores across items, as no variance would imply complete item redundancy; however, large variance across items is not desired, as this would imply lack of internal consistency. That is, one would like to control for variation due to items, and such factors in G theory are called controllable or generalization factors. The extent to which subjects' and countries' (and language and region) scores can be generalized across items is given by the generalizability coefficient (GC; Sharma and Weathers, 2003) which can be computed from the following equation:

$$GC = \frac{\sigma_C^2 + \sigma_{S:C}^2}{\sigma_C^2 + \sigma_{S:C}^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_{error}^2}{k} + \frac{\sigma_{I\times C}^2}{k}\right)}.$$

Results and Discussion

Table 1 presents the summary of variance components by country, language and region. The items-by-countries, item-by-language, and item-by-region term have the smallest source of variation. This suggests that there is consistency in item response patterns across countries, languages and regions. The items measuring the construct do not appear to be country, language, and region specific further suggesting that they have the same meanings across countries. Results indicate that the three dimensional model of OJ generalize well across countries – internal consistency was relatively high across all divisions, and language, country and region accounted for relatively small proportion of overall variance. However, although relatively small, language (.055) accounted for more variance than did country (.040) or region (.009). As desired the item variance was small (between .017 and .021).

Table 1. Estimates of variance components for OJ data

Source	Variance by:		
	Country	Language	Region
C or L or R	.040	.055	.009
Subject within C or L or R	.857	.863	.895
Item	.021	.017	.019
Item by C or L or R	.005	.008	.008
Error	.456	.495	.496

Note: C = country; L = language, R = region.

The extent to which subjects' and countries' scores can be generalized across items is given by the generalizability coefficient (GC). The GC for country is .962, for language .963, and for region .963. This values are greater than the cutoff value of 0.90 suggested by Shavelson and Webb (1991), suggesting that the OJ three factor model can indeed be generalized over items and further implying that the scale is not country, language or region specific.

Conclusion

Evidence of generalizability of a measure across countries is important in order to assure scientific conclusions. A large GC, small items-by-countries interaction, or insignificant differences in item variance across countries would suggest that the scale can be used to test theories across countries (Sharma and Weathers, 2003). This is the case with the three factor model of organizational justice in this study.

In conclusion, we strongly encourage that future research in the area of cross-cultural studies to demonstrate measurement equivalence or generalizability first, before proceeding to compare between counties. Any analysis that skips this important step will weaken the entire results.

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Mapping the Managerial Domain

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Abstract

Managing effectively in today's world requires a variety of skills in order to accomplish multiple tasks and functions in various organizational settings. This paper attempts to develop a multi-facet framework for understanding the combinations between the required skills, the managerial roles and functions and the job contexts. We propose a mapping sentence of the managerial domain that defines the construct of "management effectiveness". This definitional framework covers the multiple aspects of the management process, and provides a comprehensive view of the construct. We discuss in depth the usage of this mapping sentence in defining the observations required for measuring and evaluating management effectiveness.

Introduction

In his sharp and clear view, Drucker (1966) sees the verbs "to effect" and "to execute" as near synonyms. He claims that being effective is actually the job of the executive. "Whether he works in a business or in a hospital, in government agency or in a labor union, in a university or in the army, the executive is, first of all, expected to *get the right things done*. And this is simply that he is expected to be effective." (Drucker, 1966: 1).

Managers are regularly measured on their financial performance. Bottom line is the main index for managers' evaluation. However, since the financial performance is only partially depends on the executive effectiveness, it doesn't really draw the full picture on this matter. It goes to both directions. Some executives are over evaluated and others are under evaluated. In certain cases the financial performance is high, in spite of non effective management. In these cases the contribution of the executive to the financial performance is limited and the results depends on other factors, such as low competition rate, high demand for the product or services provided by the organization, significant contribution of other "agents", etc. On the other hand, in some cases low financial performance coexists with high management effectiveness. In these cases the executives are struggling with external and internal conditions that significantly influence the results. Competitive pressure or economic crisis will affect dramatically the results in spite of hard and effective work of the managers.

In the current study we attempt to develop a framework that enables a direct measure of management effectiveness. If being effective means getting the right things done, then we have to ask first "what do managers do?" or "what are managers supposed to do?". Mapping the entire domain of managerial functions will enable us to list the issues to be evaluated while examining managerial effectiveness. For this purpose we use the mapping sentence device (Guttman, 1954, 1959; Shye and Elizur, 1994). The mapping sentence was introduced by Guttman (1954), to incorporate formal facets with informal verbal connectives needed for actual empirical work. Such a sentence states the population being studied, the variables under study and the range of those variables (Levy, 2003). It is actually a set of sentences of

ordinary speech, which have common connectives and differ according to their facet elements. The mapping sentence is, at the same time, both a formal and a flexible device (Levy, 2003). Manager's job is very suitable to define by mapping sentence because, apparently, management is multi-facet concept.

In discussing the question of "what do managers do?" the literature looks at different aspects or facets. The most common facets are: *Managerial Skills, Managerial Functions* and *Managerial Roles*. The skills, functions and roles take different forms in different contexts, so *the* Context would be the fourth facet. Each of these facets contains a list of elements that compound it. We argue that the combination of these four facets systematically define the domain of management. Evaluating the effectiveness of the manager's execution of each of these activities provides a detailed picture of the overall effectiveness.

In the following sections we'll review the four facets that our mapping sentence emerges from, namely, Managerial Skills, Managerial Functions Managerial Roles and Context. Right after, we'll present the mapping sentence and discuss it's implications for both research and practice.

Managerial Skills

Like other jobs, managing involves exercising of highly developed activities and competencies, which we call skills. They are developed in the course of education, training and experience. The following skills are identified as critical for management: *technical, interpersonal* and *conceptual*.

Technical skills involve specialized knowledge about processes, procedures and equipments and also when and how to use the skills. Interpersonal skills, such as sensitivity, compassion, expressiveness and empathy are very important at all levels of management. Lack of these skills limits management advancement. However, McCall and Lombardo (1983) found that interpersonal skills alone are not enough and in some cases managers with acceptable level of interpersonal skills eventually derailed due to lack of other skills. Conceptual skills, often called cognitive abilities, are logical reasoning, analytical abilities and judgment capabilities. These skills are often very good predictors of promotion rate in the organization.

Managerial Functions

Analyzing managers' work according to the different functions they carry out is widely utilized (Carrol & Gillen, 1987; Kim & Yukl, 1995). Four principal managerial functions seem to be most applicable to modern organizations (Hitt, Black & Porter, 2005). They are: *Planning, Organizing, Directing* and *Controlling*.

Planning can be categorized in three different types: strategic planning, which aimed at achieving long term goals; tactic planning, which translate strategic plans into short-terms objectives; and operational planning, which specifies the actual actions required to accomplish goals of particular department of the organization.

Organizing is defining and grouping activities and allocating the required resources to carry them out. The purpose of organizing is to bring order to the organization activity.

Directing is the function of managing people. It entails the process of influencing or motivating other people to achieve organizational objectives. A close term is leading. In order to direct, proper leadership, effective communication and coordination are required.

Controlling is the process of regulating the work of subordinates. This is done by setting in advance standards and measures of performance, monitoring ongoing work, evaluating quality of work, etc.

Managerial Roles

Mintzberg (1975) studied how managers spent their time at work. He propose that different aspects of a manager's job cause managers to be involved in "organized set of behaviors". These behaviors are a series of interpersonal, informational, and decisional roles, each contains specific roles. There are, altogether, ten roles which are not easily separable.

Interpersonal roles are derived directly from the manager's formal authority obtained from the organization, and they include the figurehead, the leader and the liaison roles. They are necessary under different circumstances. Adopting one or another of the three interpersonal roles is made easier by the formal authority the manager granted by the organization.

Informational roles are affected by the network of contacts with both subordinates and individuals outside the organization built up and maintained by the manager. Monitor, disseminator, and spokesperson are the three informational roles that a manager may assume. These informational roles build on the set of interpersonal roles mentioned before. The network of interpersonal contacts serves to establish the manager as an informational nerve center, responsible for gathering, receiving, and transmitting information that concerns members of the organization.

Decisional roles relate to the decision-making requirements of the manager, and include: entrepreneurial, disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator roles. These decision roles come into action in different circumstances. For example, the entrepreneurial role is necessary when the manager is involved in activities that explore new opportunities or new projects. Other decisional roles come into action in various situations, while not excluding each other.

The Mapping Sentence

Based on the four facets and the range of the degree of effectiveness, a systematic definition of the management effectiveness domain could be suggested. The definition is drafted by means of a mapping sentence, whose domain includes four facets and the range of which expresses the degree of effectiveness of the managers in carrying out the actions derived from the combinations of the four facets. Each component of the management effectiveness definition, created by selecting one element from each facet (3*3*3*3), designates a content area that is but a subspace of the conceptual space of management effectiveness according to the suggested definition

The proposed mapping sentence is as follows:

Management effectiveness is assessed by evaluating

the < skills> required to perform the <functions> that are needed in order to play the

technical	planning
interpersonal / human	organizing
conceptual	directing
	controlling

<roles> in the different managerial job <contexts> → in a range <high> effective

interpersonal	demands :
informational	constraints <low >
decisional	choice

Discussion

We attempt to systematically define "management effectiveness", based on what managers have to do. We mapped the domain of management activities, according to various acceptable classifications. Using a mapping sentence, we defined a set of observations required to measure management effectiveness. This set, called by Guttman (1954) the universe of observations, is compound of 81 possible combinations of the four facets. These combinations reflect the effectiveness of the manager using each of the managerial skills in order to execute every managerial function while performing each of the roles in different managerial job contexts. Each of these combinations gets an importance measure, which represents the level of effectiveness.

The proposed mapping sentence can be used for a direct measure of effective management. A tool that specifies the 81 combinations derived from the mapping sentence can be used by both researchers and practitioners.

Researchers often incorporate this construct into their studies, however they use indirect measures, such as financial performance. Using this tool for self report or supervisor evaluation will give more accurate and direct measure of management effectiveness.

Organizations can take advantage of the tool by using it to directly measure managers' effectiveness and develop promotion and education programs accordingly.

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Attitudes of Host Country Nationals Towards Expatriates: Development and Validation of a Measure

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Abstract

A measure assessing host country nationals' (HCNs) attitudes towards expatriates (ATEX) was developed and validated in two studies. For the first study, interviews were conducted and 60 items were generated. A questionnaire involving these items was filled out by 196 HCNs and 26 items were eliminated. For the second study, 228 HCNs filled out a questionnaire which included ATEX and scales of personality, attitudes towards diversity, ethnocentrism, previous work experience with expatriates, preference to work with expatriates, and intention to provide social support to expatriates. After factor analyses, final version of ATEX was reduced to 24 items which loaded onto five factors. Examination of the relations between ATEX and aforementioned constructs provided support for convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validities of the measure.

Introduction

Expatriates are defined as "employees of business or government organizations who are sent by their organization to a related unit in a country which is different from their own, to accomplish a job or organization-related goal for a pre-designated temporary time period of usually more than six months and less than five years in one term" (Aycan & Kanungo, 1997, p.250). Expatriation serves important purposes such as filling managerial and technical skills gaps, building management expertise, launching new endeavors, transferring technology and corporate culture and developing business relationships (BGRS, 2009).

Host country nationals (HCNs) play an important role in the expatriate adjustment and performance process (e.g., Hailey, 1996; Varma, Toh, & Budhwar, 2006). Their attitudes towards expatriates shape the way they treat expatriates. Depending on their direction and strength, HCNs' attitudes may either facilitate or complicate adjustment of expatriates. Attitudes towards expatriates may also shape the appraisal of their performance by HCNs. For example, negative attitudes may lead to negative perceptions and consequently to negative performance appraisal, regardless of the quality of the actual work of expatriates. However, there is only a small body of research which focuses on HCNs' perspective and influence of their attitudes towards expatriates.

In the present study, measure of Attitudes towards Expatriates (ATEX) was developed and then validated by examining its relations with several constructs on a sample of Turkish HCNs. Firstly, we examined convergent validity through testing the correlations between ATEX and individual-difference variables (i.e., personality, ethnocentrism and diversity related attitudes of HCNs). Secondly, we tested discriminant validity by examining the differences between the attitudes of HCNs who have previous experience with expatriates vs.

HCNs who do not, and of HCNs reporting different degrees of quality in their experience with the expatriates. Finally, we analyzed the relation of the measure with HCNs' intention to provide social support to expatriates and their preference for local vs. expatriate managers, in order to test the criterion-related validity.

Factors Affecting HCNs' Attitudes towards Expatriates

Openness to experiences influences cultural innovation, political ideology, social attitudes, marital choice and interpersonal relations. People who are open to experiences are more likely to adapt to new ideas and life styles in their environments and less likely to be conservative in terms of political ideology (McCrae, 1996) and more likely to have positive attitudes towards diversity (Bouncken, Ratzmann, &Winkler,2008). Low openness was found to be related to aversive racist attitudes (Silvestri & Richardson, 2001). It was expected that HCNs who are open to experiences would be more comfortable with working with expatriates, more likely to like the opportunity to have a new experience involving working with people from different cultures, and hence have more positive attitudes towards them, compared to HCNs who are less open to experiences. This relationship was examined as an evidence for the convergent validity of ATEX.

High levels of extraversion lead to positive attitudes towards diversity (Bouncken et al, 2008) and extraversion is negatively related to aversive racism (Silvestri & Richardson, 2001). It is expected that extravert HCNs feel more comfortable while working with expatriates compared to introvert HCNs, because of their attributes like warmth, assertiveness, excitement seeking and positive emotions. Having such characteristics may lead to a general tendency to approach expatriates in a friendly manner and to perception of their presence as a positive opportunity. Therefore, extravert HCNs were expected to have positive attitudes towards expatriates, which is another indication of convergent validity of ATEX.

Attitudes towards diversity originate from recognition and acceptance of similarities and differences of other people. It is associated with a sense of connectedness with other people and liking of interactions which are plural and diverse (Miville, Holloway, Gelso, Pannu, Liu, Touradji & Fuertes, 1999). It was expected that HCNs who have positive attitudes towards diversity would have positive attitudes towards expatriates. In the current study, attitudes towards diversity was used for examination of convergent validity of ATEX.

Ethnocentrism was defined as "an attitude or outlook in which values derived from one's own cultural background are applied to other cultural contexts where different values are operative" by Levine and Campbell (1972, p.12). Florkowski and Fogel (1999) found that perceived level of ethnocentrism of HCNs by expatriates had an influence on adjustment of expatriates and their commitment to host company. Especially when cultural distance was low, perceived high local ethnocentrism led to more difficult work adjustment of expatriates and lower levels of commitment to the host company. Expatriates may also react negatively to ethnocentric attitudes of HCNs. It was expected that HCNs high in ethnocentrism would have negative attitudes towards expatriates. Ethnocentrism was evaluated as another possible indicator of convergent validity of ATEX.

Several studies showed that having previous experience or contact with foreigners increased positive attitudes towards them (e.g., Miville et al., 1999). HCNs having any kind of prior knowledge about the culture of expatriates use socialization tactics for interacting with them more

frequently than HCNs having less knowledge (Selmer, 2001) and this finding can be interpreted as a sign of having positive attitudes towards expatriates. Consistent with the Contact Hypothesis and the empirical findings, it was expected that HCNs who have previous contact with expatriates would be more likely to have positive attitudes towards expatriates. Specifically, it was claimed that increased quality of previous contact with expatriates would lead to more positive attitudes towards expatriates. Presence of previous experience with expatriates and quality of this experience were examined to test the discriminant validity of ATEX.

Behavioral Intentions Resulting from Attitudes towards Expatriates

All types of social support (i.e., instrumental, emotional and informational) have crucial value for expatriates. Toh and DeNisi (2007) defined HCNs as socializing agents for expatriates. Consistent with their claims about in-group vs. out-group categorization and its influence on providing social support to expatriates, results of the study by Varma et al. (2006) revealed that intention to provide social support was likely to decrease when perceived out-group membership of an expatriate was higher. In a recent study, Varma, Pichler, Aycan, & Budhwar (2008) found that Turkish HCNs had willingness to provide role-related information to expatriates if they perceived that these expatriates were in their own social circle. They preferred to provide role-related information as well as social support to subordinate expatriates rather than to supervisor expatriates.

It was expected that HCNs would aim to behave consistent with their attitudes. Therefore, it was asserted that HCNs who have positive attitudes towards expatriates would be more likely to state that they were willing to provide social support to expatriates. Consistent with the claims about attitude-behavior consistency, another response expected from people who have positive attitudes towards expatriates was that they would have preference for expatriates over local managers. HCNs' tendency to provide social support to expatriates and their preference for expatriate vs. local managers were used to examine criterion-related validity of ATEX.

ATEX was developed and validated in two studies. The first study was dedicated to item generation and elimination using two independent data sets. Second study was the validation study, at which further items were eliminated, validity of the measure was tested and factorial structure of the measure was examined.

STUDY 1: ITEM GENERATION AND ELIMINATION

Method

Sample. For item generation, 25 individuals were interviewed. The sample consisted of 15 Turkish HCNs and 10 expatriates who were working in Turkey at the time of the interviews. For item elimination, a questionnaire was filled out by a sample of 196 participants which consisted of 84 female and 112 male respondents with a mean age of 30.34 (SD = 6.06).

Measurement. For item generation step, two sets of interview questions were prepared separately for HCNs and expatriates. All interviews were conducted as structured interviews**.** For item elimination step, the questionnaire consisted of first version of ATEX (60 items) which was developed on the basis of the interview responses, 7-item short form of the Social Desirability Scale developed by Crowne and Marlowe (1964), and demographics.

Procedure. For item generation, interviews were conducted at different places such as interviewees' offices, meeting rooms of their companies, or residences of them. All interviews were manually recorded. Interviews took approximately 25-30 minutes each. For item elimination, all respondents filled out the questionnaire online, after receiving the e-mail involving the link. It took approximately 10-15 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Results

Initial item selection procedure was conducted for the data collected during the first study. At this step, items were eliminated on the basis of high item skewness, high item kurtosis, significant correlation with the social desirability scale and low item variance. Out of 60 items of the first version of ATEX, 26 items were eliminated and second version consisted of 34 items (α =. 88) with a mean of 3.28 (SD = .41).

STUDY 2: VALIDATION STUDY

Method

Sample. A total of 228 respondents filled out the questionnaire. The final sample consisted of almost equal number of female and male respondents with a mean age of 30.68 (SD = 6.42). Most of the 228 respondents had a bachelor's degree. Most participants were holding non-managerial positions. More than half of them had work experience with expatriates. The majority of the respondents had experience with expatriates who had positions which were higher than their own levels and almost half of the respondents were still working with expatriates at the time the study was conducted.

Measurement. Second version of ATEX consisted of 34 items, 15 of which were negatively worded. Respondents rated each item on a five-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). The short form of the Turkish adaptation of NEO-PI-R by Gulgoz (2002) was used to measure extraversion and openness to experience. Reliability scores for NEO-FFI-TR were .70 for extraversion and .71 for openness to experience. The form consisted of 60 items for five dimensions of personality. Participants rated each item on a 5-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Attitudes towards diversity was measured through 10 items (α=.82) of short form of Miville-Guzman Universality Diversity Scale (M-GUDS-S) (Fuertes, Miville, Mohr, Sedlacek, & Gretchen, 2000). Respondents rated the statements on a scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). The Generalized Ethnocentrism Scale developed by Neuliep and

McCroskey (1997) was used to measure the construct. Participants rated the items on a five-point scale ranging from 'strongly disagree'(1) to 'strongly agree'(5). Internal consistency was α = .84, after elimination of items which were decreasing the reliability score.

Participants responded to the question "Did you work or are you working with any expatriates?" by choosing yes or no. They were also asked to evaluate the quality of their experience on a five point scale ranging from "very negative" (1) to "very positive" (5). The 4-item social support scale developed by Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison and Pinneau (1980) was used which had a Cronbach α value of .78. In addition to these items, five additional items were included by the present researchers based on the responses obtained in the interviews conducted for item generation. Internal consistency of the 9-item scale was α= .87. To assess preference to work with expatriates, two sentences were presented: "I would prefer to work with a foreign manager" and "I would prefer to work with a local manager". Respondents rated both of them using a 7-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree"(1) to "strongly agree"(7). The preference score was calculated by subtracting "local manager" score from "foreign manager" score and this score was used as "expatriate preference score".

Procedure. Sixty-eight respondents filled out the questionnaire as hardcopy and rest of the respondents filled it out online. In the latter case, the link to the questionnaire web site was sent to various mailing groups. Therefore, it was hard to estimate the response rate. It took approximately 20-25 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Results

Before hypothesis testing, two sets of data in Study 1 (N = 196) and Study 2 (N = 228) were combined to conduct the factor analysis. Two items were initially eliminated because of near zero item-total correlation. Exploratory factor analysis with a varimax rotation was conducted for the remaining 32 items of ATEX. The factor analysis revealed 7 orthogonal factors having eigenvalues over 1 and explaining a total of 52.08% of variance. Six items were eliminated because they were loaded on multiple factors. Additionally, two items were eliminated due to mismatch with the overall content and the factor meaning. The second factor analysis revealed 5 orthogonal factors explaining a total of 49.33% of variance. Factors of ATEX were labeled as Adaptation, Transformational Capacity, Openness, Professionalism and Perceived Justice of Expatriate Privileges (See Table 1). The internal consistency of 24-item (9 negatively worded items and 15 positively worded items) final version of ATEX scale was α=.83. Internal consistency among items was established and then overall scale score and sub-scale scores were computed for each factor, on the basis of averages of responses.

Intercorrelations among all variables were calculated (see Table 2). Total score of ATEX correlated significantly with most of the variables, consistent with our expectations. ATEX correlated positively with openness to experience *(r = .20, p < .01)*, extraversion *(r = .28, p < .01)*, attitudes towards diversity *(r = .26, p < .01),* and negatively with ethnocentrism *(r = -.25, p < .01).* These results revealed overall support for the convergent validity of ATEX. T-test was conducted and ATEX scores of the participants who had experience with expatriates was compared to the ATEX scores of the participants who had no experience with expatriates. Results showed that ATEX scores of these groups differed significantly [*t (221) =1,997, p < .05*]. In addition, quality of the experience was significantly correlated with ATEX *(r = .31, p<.01).* These results provided evidence for the discriminant validity of ATEX. ATEX also correlated significantly with intention to provide social support to

expatriates *(r = .34, p < .01)* and strength of preference score for expatriate managers compared to local managers *(r = .48, p < .01)*. Both these findings constituted the evidence for the criterion-related validity of ATEX.

Table 1. Principal Components Factor Analysis of ATEX with Varimax Rotation:The Final Structure

Items	Factor Loadings				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Factor 1 : Adaptation					
They strain in adapting to the rules of our country; they don't adopt and apply the rules.	**0.71**	0.07	0.00	0.14	0.02
They can't adapt to the corporate culture.	**0.70**	0.12	0.01	0.13	-0.06
They are prejudiced about our culture and they regard their own cultures as superior.	**0.65**	0.01	0.26	0.00	0.22
They inevitably experience cultural conflict with Turkish employees.	**0.63**	0.08	0.09	-0.08	0.22
They are not interested in learning our culture.	**0.60**	0.20	0.15	-0.05	0.02
It's difficult for them to adapt to the conditions in our country (e.g., political and economical instability)	**0.53**	-0.17	-0.12	0.10	0.19
Factor 2 : Transformational Capacity					
They are good role models for their subordinates.	0.03	**0.74**	0.06	0.18	0.23
They lead to positive changes in working order/environment	0.05	**0.72**	0.11	0.13	0.22
They transfer the knowledge and experience they gained from different cultures to our organization.	0.12	**0.61**	0.08	-0.07	-0.26
They know how to work and how to motivate their employees.	0.12	**0.56**	0.37	0.25	0.04
They deserve their positions because of their success.	0.05	**0.52**	0.03	0.25	0.37
Factor 3 : Openness					
They are not in favor of traditions and they are receptive to innovation.	-0.09	0.07	**0.73**	0.25	0.03
They are flexible.	0.04	0.02	**0.69**	0.02	0.23
They are open to different opinions.	0.13	0.11	**0.60**	0.43	0.06
They behave only business oriented.	0.35	0.16	**0.50**	-0.29	-0.16
They are congenial and friendly against their coworkers.	0.20	0.30	**0.50**	0.16	0.12
They are open to their coworkers.	0.14	0.25	**0.42**	0.40	-0.07
Factor 4 : Professionalism					
They preserve their calmness when they face problems.	0.02	0.03	0.08	**0.65**	0.04
They are good team players.	0.11	0.36	0.22	**0.62**	-0.04
They are successful in differentiating personal and business relationships.	0.05	0.05	-0.02	**0.61**	0.06
They have self confidence.	-0.01	0.10	0.18	**0.61**	-0.12
They attach importance to training and personal development.	0.04	0.39	0.30	**0.44**	-0.17
Factor 5: Perceived Justice of Expatriate Privileges					
They get higher salaries than what they deserve.	0.25	0.09	0.05	0.00	**0.65**
It's not necessary to choose them over Turkish managers, except for the positions requiring specialization and specific knowledge.	0.13	0.12	0.16	-0.12	**0.62**
Percentage of explained variance	22.22	10.58	6.11	5.80	4.62
Eigenvalues	5.33	2.54	1.47	1.39	1.11
Cronbach's alpha	.69	.75	.66	.68	.25*

Note: N = 426; * This coefficient represents the inter-item correlation between the two items.

Table 2. Intercorrelations among all study items.

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Scale Scores										
1. ATEX	3.36	0.38	-	0.28**	0.20**	0.26**	-0.25**	0.48**	0.34**	0.31**
2. Extraversion	51.78	8.55		-	0.35**	0.33**	-0.20**	0.16*	0.32**	0.14
3. Openness to Experience	51.50	9.63			-	0.51**	-0.41**	0.29**	0.33**	0.11
4. Universal Diverse Orientation	3.93	0.61				-	-0.57**	0.29**	0.41**	0.35**
5. Ethnocentrism	2.32	0.48					-	-0.32**	-0.29**	0.20*
6. Preference to work	-0.11	2.49						-	0.23**	0.42**
7. Intention to provide social support	3.79	0.61							-	0.39**
8. Quality of experience[1]	3.74	0.85								-

Note. N = 228; *p < .05; **p < .01; [1] For participants having experience with expatriates; N1 = 127.

Discussion

Development of ATEX was an important initial step towards understanding the attitudes of HCNs. ATEX can be used for further research on expatriate adjustment and performance. This measure can be used as a diagnostic tool for development of specific cross-cultural training programs for expatriates. Primary aim of these training programs can be preparation of expatriates for negative attitudes of HCNs. HCNs can also be trained for easier adjustment to work with expatriates if their ATEX scores indicate that they dislike expatriates.

Factor analyses revealed that the final version of ATEX consisted of five dimensions. However, ATEX was not designed as a multidimensional construct; therefore factor analyses were conducted only for exploratory purposes. Even though these components seem meaningful, we do not suggest their use as separate scales. There are several reasons for not recommending use of ATEX in that way. Firstly, we did not have a particular factor structure in mind to start with. Before recommending the use of this structure, future studies with different samples should check for its stability. Secondly, items loaded on each factor did not produce high internal consistency estimates. Reliability scores for each dimension were low but reliability score for the whole measure was high. Thirdly, correlations of factor scores with other variables did not have a consistent pattern for each dimension.

Further research should primarily focus on the cross-cultural validation of the scale. This scale should be also tested for different target groups of expatriates from countries which have high vs. low cultural distance from the host country. Research can also be conducted by manipulating age, sex and nations of the hypothetical expatriates. These results would provide deeper information about attitudes towards male or female expatriates from distant vs. closer cultures.

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Chapter 14: Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate Social Values in Transforming Societies

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Abstract

The paper focuses on value-based orientations in strategic decision of top managers and owners in three Central and East European countries. Within the GLOBE project, COE's from companies in Eastern Germany, Estonia and Romania (N=129) have been interviewed about their value preferences in case of critical management decisions. Furthermore, lower level managers and employees (N=787) filled out questionnaires concerning perceived value preferences of theirs companies. The findings show that there is no predominance of shareholder values in companies of East-European countries. Instead, a combination of shareholder values with a strong community focus or religious values could be observed.

Introduction

The term Corporate Social Responsibility" (CSR) refers to the responsibility for stakeholders as well as the environment of the company (Matten & Moon 2005; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). In the literature, it has been distinguished between explicit CSR, addressed in the corporate policy, and implicit CSR, namely values, standards and regulations established in the company (Matten & Moon, 2005). The discussion regarding implicit CSR particularly points to the significance of strategic management decisions and the associated values of managers, the so called „managerial CSR values" (e.g. Wood, 1991; Waldman et al., 2006).

The questions of CSR in Central and East European transformation countries have been addressed only in a few contributions so far. Moreover, the scarce contributions are highly inconsistent. Some authors assume a distinctive short-term economic orientation of the companies, also termed as „East European Capitalism" (Stark, 1996; Grabher & Stark, 1997). Privatized or new established firms in Central and East European countries have been described as following a short-term economic orientation with a strong focus on shareholders' interests ("Manchester Capitalism"). Contrary to this, other studies have underlined the tendency towards an orientation of managers in transforming societies to common welfare issues and social responsible practices (Pohlmann & Gergs 1996; Pistrui et al., 2003; Koleva et al., 2010). However, empirical evidence from East European transformation countries is still scarce. Corporate social values of managers in those countries have been rarely the subject of empirical research studies up to now. The following paper therefore addresses the issue of value preferences obtained by top managers and employers in three chosen transformation countries with different national cultures, namely former Eastern Germany, Estonia and Romania.

Theoretical considerations

Despite the seemingly bursting organizational research on CSR, some authors posit that the antecedents of CRS, such as managerial values or behaviours, are insufficiently explored up to now (Lindgreen & Swaen, 2010). It is still relatively unknown how prevalent managerial values regarding CSR are, as well as how leader values do effect the CSR-practices of their organizations. Since managerial actors are mainly responsible for CSR implementation in organizations, a deeper investigation of managerial values shaping managerial actions (Triandis, 1995) can contribute to a better understanding of the processes through which social responsibility of organizations is realized.

In the contexts of transformation societies, the role of managerial values has been assumed to be more indicative than elsewhere. The settings of instability and insecurity, a lack of established rules and standards are presumed to provide owners and managers of firms more space to act according to their personal values and dispositions (cf. Waldman et al., 2006; Lang, 2008). Instead of strong norms and clear expectations regarding economic behavior, as in established societies, vague rules and norms in transformational countries allow actors for a stronger orientation on their personal values and dispositions (Waldman et al., 2006). Thus, an understanding of CRS processes in transforming countries requires a profound investigation of managerial values which underly strategic decisions in organizations.

Before we turn to our assumptions regarding the prevalence of managerial values in three different transformational countries, we should address the concept of CRS from a value-based perspective as a conceptual background of our study. As many authors state (e.g. Rowley & Berman, 2000; Waldman et al., 2006; Lindgreen & Swaen, 2010), there is still a lack of clarity concerning the definition and the dimensionality of CSR. Recent research shows that CSR should be considered as a multidimensional concept (Waldman et al., 2006). How many and which dimensions the CSR can entail, still remains open. In their international survey, Waldman et al. (2006) disclose three factors containing CSR: 1) shareholder-orientation, 2) stakeholder-orientation, and 3) community/state welfare-orientation. Unlike the results of Waldman et al. (2006), Lang (2008) demonstrates in his also internationally undertaken research that CSR, measured in accordance with the method applied by Waldman et al. (2006), yields a 5-factors solution.

Congruent with Waldman et al. (2006), one of the factors by Lang (2008) represents *shareholder values* like profit. However, instead of stakeholder orientation and community orientation, four additional factors have been detected here. First of them is a *strategy focus* including long-term factors such as product quality, competitiveness, customer satisfaction and consideration of the environment. The second one is an *employee and community focus* referring to the well-being of the employees and human resource development as well as to the contributions to regional development, public weal and security. The third factor considers *ethical reasons in connection with equal treatment* of female employees and employees in demographical minorities. Finally, as the fourth factor there have been identified *spiritual reasons* for decision-making**,** such as religious values and belief in supernatural powers. Thus, besides various stakeholder groups, such as financial investors, consumers, employees and community, as declared by the stakeholder-theory, decision-makers in the firms seem to follow rather abstract norms, moral expectations and values prevalent also in a local society as well.

Since the simultaneous addressing of all stakeholders and normative expectations through the CSR practices is rather illusory, the question we are addressing in this paper is which

orientations and value preferences prevail in firms of transformational economies. Are value preferences of managers in transforming societies contingent upon the local country and upon the managerial position held by decision makers. Thus, are there differences in CSR values between the countries studied as well as between top managers and lower level managers on the one side and between owner-managers and occupied managers?

Are managerial value preferences contingent upon a local country?

Contingency upon a country can be expressed in many ways. Cultural, societal values of the country are one of them. There is some evidence showing that national cultural values are an important factor explaining managerial value preferences. The already cited study of Waldman et al. (2006) points to the high correspondence between both national and managerial values. As this paper deals with three countries, namely East Germany, Estonia and Romania, featuring different national values (e.g. Heintz, 2002; Aycan et al., 2000), it could be assumed that the CSR-oriented value preferences in managerial decisions will be different as well and, thus, country-contingent. The differences between those countries can be indicated by previous findings drawing on national business systems. Here, the East German capitalism has been mainly assumed to reveal 'social market economy' with a dominance of stakeholder orientation and community focus because of the transfer of the West German business model (Thielen, 2001). Martens and Michailow (2007) disagree with this and show that entrepreneurs and managers in East Germany, especially in smaller enterprises and start-ups demonstrate an orientation close to a 'competitive capitalism' instead of 'social market economy'. Similar contradictory results have been reported from Romanian managers too (Kelemen & Hristov, 1998; Catana & Catana & Finlay, 1999). The recent study by Koleva et al. (2010), for example, contradicts to the assumption of a pure competitive capitalism in East European Countries, including Romania, and indicates that a variety of responsible practices do exists in Romanian organizations as well. Finally, in the case of Estonia, reliable analyses and empirical evidence on business system are still rare. The literature on the so called 'varieties of capitalism' (Hall & Soskice, 2001) considers the Baltic states in general and Estonia in particular as a precursor of 'liberal market economy' among East European countries (Buchen, 2007). Thus, based on previous evidence on East Germany, Estonia and Romania we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1*: Managerial value preferences are contingent upon the country. In decisions of managers from East Germany and Estonia, a shareholder-orientation in value preferences of managers dominates; among Romanian managers prevail strategic, ethical and spiritual reasons.*

Are managerial value preferences contingent upon a position?

The question whether there are any differences between top managers on the one side and lower level managers on the other side regarding their value preferences reveals, once again, conflicting positions. Top managers and lower level managers can be assumed to differ in their value preferences. As success and failure of organization is often attributed to the leaders (Meindl & Ehrlich & Dukerich, 1985), their main concern is economical performance and viability of organizations. Thus, for top managers shareholder and strategic orientation

can be assumed to be of particular relevance, whereas issues of community or equal treatment of employees are of lower importance for them. Unlike top managers, lower level managers can be assumed to attach less importance to shareholder or strategic orientation; they are more concerned with the issues of employees and community. However, the transformational context can lead to a similar situation for top managers and lower-level managers, namely a psychologically weak situation with dominating uncertainty and anxiety. In face of this kind of 'collective helplessness' it may be hypothesized that top managers and lower level managers display similar value patterns. It also might be assumed that subordinates share the views of their CEOs and by this stabilize the values and dispositions of organization (Lang, 2008). Thus, it implies that in the more severe transformational context value preferences of top managers and lower level managers should be more similar. From the three countries studied, Romania could be mainly assumed still to stick in transition period. In East Germany and Estonia political and societal transformation could be considered as less severe because the most profound reforms date back some time now in the past. We hypothesize thus that:

Hypothesis 2: *Value preferences of top managers and lower level managers show no striking differences in Romania, but they differ in East Germany and Estonia.*

However, the group of top managers in organizations is highly heterogeneous; it contains owners of firms as well as employed top managers. Are there any differences to be expected regarding value preferences between owners-managers and occupied-managers? As owners-managers are literally responsible for running an effective business and are bearing financial risks, their value preferences can be assumed to be mainly directed towards economic targets (Waldman et al., 2001; Green, 1992) while occupied managers are considering various other aspects such as interests of community, employees and their equal treatment. Since the legal position of owners and occupied managers is different in all three transforming societies studied, in that owners in East Germany, Romania and Estonia bear financial risks and occupied managers do not, we do hypothesize further that value preferences of owners and occupied managers differ in all transitional countries:

Hypothesis 3*: Value preferences of owner-managers and occupied top managers in transforming societies differ in such a way that owners focus more on shareholder value while employed managers have a higher concern for employee and community as well as for equality issues.*

Methodology

The present study is based on interviews with owners and senior managers as well as questionnaires addressed to lower level managers. The research was conducted within the GLOBE project which is a longitudinal research program examining culture and leadership around the world (House et al., 2004; Waldman et al., 2006; Lang et al., 2007). The analysis in this paper refers to data from Eastern Germany, Estonia and Romania. Altogether, 129 COE's in around 40 firms have been interviewed. In our study CEO refers to founders and/or owners of companies as well as to top managers who were occupied by institutional or personal owners. From 129 COE's interviewed, there were 59 owners and 70 employed top managers. In addition, a number of up to nine followers in each firm have been asked to fill

out a questionnaire from the GLOBE project which has been translated (and re-translated) into Estonian, Romanian and German language before. 787 lower level managers and employees filled out questionnaires concerning their value preferences in case of critical management decisions.

The East German sample included 40 CEO interviews and 205 follower questionnaires, in Estonia, 45 interviews with COE's have been conducted as well as 305 questionnaires. The Romanian sample consists of 44 CEO interviews and 277 follower questionnaires.

The value preferences of managers have been measured using the question „If critical management decisions are to be made in your company what role would the subsequent factors play?". All of the aspects listed were to be answered with a 7-point Likert Scale with (1) – not relevant at all to (7) – most relevant. The question targets non-routine, strategic decisions, which consider certain interests groups while ignoring others. The assumption was that these management decisions provoke implicit, underlying value attitudes. In accordance with the already cited study of Lang (2008), 15 aspects have been listed which belong to the five factors, ranging from strategic focus to religious values.

Besides the factor analysis, we undertook ANOVA and MANOVA tests to compare the group means regarding factor-based added value preferences.

Table 1: Characteristics of the sample

Parameter	Total	East Germany	Estonia	Romania
Number of companies studied	129	40	45	44
Companies up to 100 employees, %	37	38	43	31
Manufacturing companies, %	47	67	20	55
Start-ups, %	48	45	39	60
Interviews with CEO's	129	40	45	44
Questionnaires from lower level managers and employees	787	205	305	277

Results

Across all three countries, customer satisfaction, product quality, profit as well as competitiveness constitute the dominant values underlying critical management decisions, closely followed by human resource development. As Table 2 shows findings support Hypothesis 1 only partially. Managers in all three countries consider *shareholder and strategic orientation* as the most important, while *employee and community issues, equal treatment as well as religious orientation* have a rather secondary relevance. *Shareholder orientation* seems to dominate in **Romania** and **Estonia**, but not in **East Germany** where *strategic orientation* and *equal treatment and ethical orientation* prevail. In accordance with Hypothesis 1, **Romanian** managers attach a relatively high importance to *religious values*. Furthermore, **Romanian** and **Estonian** managers show a relatively high *employee and community orientation*. Interestingly, whereas **Romanian** managers seem to consider *equal treatment of employees and ethical orientation* the least, **Estonian** managers concern these issues to a relatively high degree.

Table 2: Comparison of the value dimensions for countries*

Value dimensions	East Germany	Romania	Estonia	Total
Shareholder orientation	5,70	**5,92**	5,62	**5,74**
Strategic orientation	**6,02**	5,73	5,44	**5,72**
Employee and community orientation	4,82	5,04	4,95	**4,93**
Equal treatment and ethical orientation	4,43	**2,84**	4,10	**3,78**
Religious orientation	1,89	**3,19**	1,97	**2,35**

Significant differences of country averages in **bold*

The results regarding Hypothesis 2 are shown in Table 3. Generally speaking, irrespective of the country studied COEs as well as lower level managers consider *shareholder and strategic orientation* as most important. However, contrary to our assumption, the value preferences of CEOs and lower level managers show more significant differences in **Romania** than in **Estonia** or **East Germany**. In **Romania**, the CEOs give significantly more attention to *shareholder orientation* and *strategic orientation* than lower level managers, and lower level managers are significantly more concerned with *equal treatment and ethical orientation* than COEs. In **Estonia**, CEOs pay significantly more attention to *strategic orientation* and *employee and community orientation* than lower level managers, while in the sample of **East Germany**, significant differences between CEOs and lower level managers arise only in case of *strategic orientation*, with CEOs stressing this value dimension more than their subordinates.

Table 3: Comparison of value dimensions for CEO's and lower level managers in East Germany, Romania and Estonia*

Value dimensions	East Germany		Romania		Estland	
	CEOs	Lower level managers	CEOs	Lower level managers	CEOs	Lower level managers
Shareholder orientation	5,70	5,74	**5,92**	**5,80**	5,62	5,48
Strategic orientation	**6,02**	**5,40**	**5,73**	**5,35**	**5,42**	**5,09**
Employee and community orientation	4,82	4,90	5,04	4,93	**4,94**	**4,72**
Equal treatment and ethical orientation	4,43	4,11	**2,84**	**4,02**	4,10	3,99
Religious orientation	1,89	1,64	3,19	3,28	1,97	1,88

Significant group differences in **bold*

Comparing the values of owner-managers to employed managers, it becomes apparent that both groups are highly similar. As Table 4 shows, there are barely striking significant differences between owners and occupied top managers in general or between the countries. The only significant difference among the groups can be shown for **Romania**, where owner-managers show, quite surprisingly, a significant higher concern for *equal treatment and ethical orientation*. This tendency also comes true for the other countries, but on a non-

significant level. A stronger *shareholder orientation* of owner-managers seems to be a trend only in **East Germany**. Thus, Hypothesis 3 has to be rejected.

Table 4: Comparison of value dimensions for owner-managers and occupied managers in East Germany, Romania and Estonia*

Value dimensions	East Germany		Romania		Estland	
	Owner-Managers	Occupied Managers	Owner-Managers	Occupied Managers	Owner-Managers	Occupied Managers
Shareholder orientation	5,84	5,53	5,85	5,98	5,62	5,62
Strategic orientation	5,95	6,10	5,86	5,61	5,31	5,53
Employee and community orientation	4,91	4,71	5,25	4,86	4,87	5,00
Equal treatment and ethical orientation	4,56	4,27	**3,42**	**2,36**	4,20	4,05
Religious orientation	1,75	2,06	3,20	3,17	2,09	1,89

Significant group differences in **bold*

Discussion

It becomes evident that there is no distinct predominance of shareholder values in Central and East European countries. Despite the confrontation with a fundamental change of the institutional environment, managerial decisions in those countries are not only made in consideration of an increase of profit or cost reduction. Instead of that, a combination of shareholder values with a strong strategic and employee as well as community focus could be observed. Furthermore, value preferences underlying managerial decisions in Central and East European countries seem to be still contingent upon the local country, with East German managers stressing strategic and ethical orientation and their Romanian counterparts disregarding employees' equality issues but, like Estonian managers, highly considering shareholder interests and also taking issues of their employees and community into account. Furthermore, when making strategic decisions, Romanian managers, unlike their counterparts in East Germany and Estonia, take religious values into a stronger consideration.

Value preferences of managers in transition economies turn out to be contingent upon the managerial position as well, however, not in a hypothesized way. Contrary to our assumption, value preferences of the CEOs and lower level managers show more significant differences in Romania than in Estonia or East Germany. The transformational context in Romania seems to polarize hierarchical different positions regarding their value preferences by managerial decisions with CEOs stressing more shareholder and strategic orientation and lower level managers in Romania paying more attention to equal treatment and ethics. At the same time, transformational settings seem to equalize the difference between owners and employed managers as there barely are differences between owners and occupied managers in all three countries regarding their value preferences. A situation of similar psychological weakness seems to lead to a convergence of the value orientations among top managers (owners and occupied managers) and, interestingly, to a divergence between top managers and lower level managers.

Several limitations should also be noted. First, we did not measure actual CSR actions of managers. However, as managerial values have been shown to be relevant to strategic choice (Pant & Lachman, 1998) as well as to CSR practices (Agle et al., 1999), it could be assumed that the CSR-oriented value preferences of managers investigated in the current study are quite valid regarding the actual responsible or non-responsible practices on the part of managers. Second, due to our method used to measure CSR-values, the results are possibly biased by the so called 'social desirability'. Using less responsive methods, such as observation of decision making or document-analysis, could potentially earn more valid empirical data.

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Internal Social Responsibility of the Firm and Human Resource Management: an Exploratory Analysis

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Abstract

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) usually putts first the relations toward external stakeholders. The internal stakeholders were for a long time neglected, and internal social responsibility a secondary concern. The objective of our study was to analyze the contents of CSR statements concerning employees, as well as Human Resources Management (HRM) practices, as a dimension of internal social responsibility of firms operating in Portugal. We have analyzed thirty one of the hundred largest firm's documents, available on internet sites, and concluded that compliance with law is dominant, but is possible to find the expression of values and HRM practices in line with some theoretical approaches, although with limitations. We also refer Portuguese context characteristics that can be acting like conditioning factors.

Introduction

Corporate social responsibility arose against a purely economic perspective of the firm, that proclaimed that its sole purpose was profitability, and to attend to the stockholders aims.

This "fundamentalist" perspective (Klonosky, 1991) implies that there is no social responsibility for business, no moral or social obligations. Social groups should take care of their interests; labor would care for workers, state for general welfare, and business for profit.

As one of the alternative perspectives we will mention stakeholder theory. The stakeholder theory has in its pillars the following propositions, as stated by Donaldson (1995), that stakeholders are persons or groups with legitimate interests in the activity of firms, being identified by that interests, and that the interests of all the stakeholders have intrinsic value, that is to say, that each stakeholders merits consideration for its own sake.

The identification of stakeholders may have some variations, but is generally considered the existence of five major stakeholder groups: owners (shareholders), employees, customers, local communities, and the society-at-large (Carrol, 1991). Although employees are here recognized as an interested part, we cannot say that they have been the major focus for firms, despite (or because?) their position as "insiders".

In reaction to an U.S. Citizenship Award, dedicated to firms that exhibited practices that supported workers, Carrol (1998:1) wrote: "… corporate citizenship addresses the relationship between companies and all their important stakeholders, not just employees", although true, can we forget the "internal" stakeholder?

Theoretical background

To what refers to internal social responsibility, we find early in Flanders (1966) the acknowledgment of the economic purpose of firms, but also the clear statement that it's not only the ends that matter but also the choice of means, and from those choices arise firms responsibilities. As the author remembers, society always had set limits to the means employed to the pursuit of economic ends, usually through legislation. Although, the mere obeying of laws and rules is seen as poor interpretation of assuming corporate responsibilities, since been responsible would imply take in to account the consequences of one's actions, not only for oneself but to others. Responsibility is also a matter of power, if you have the power to take the decisions and actions, then you are responsible.

Relations between workers and firms are contractual, and regulated by national legislation, or even international (in UE countries), and many times by industry rules. Still, the balance of power inclines in firms favor.

In terms of internal social responsibility the (legitimate) decisions in managing people (HRM) will always have some sort of consequence on people's life.

Internal social responsibility as described by Flanders (1966) has to do to what the firm does not only **for** employees but **to** their employees. Human resources are people, and should be respected in work, treated fairly, and to have the opportunity to participate in decisions that affect their everyday work life. Justice and participation shouldn't be only stated principles but translated in effective practices.

Also Carrol (1998) states that corporation citizenship has four faces, economic – being profitable, legal – obeying the law, ethical – engage in ethical behavior, and philanthropic-give back to society. Compliance with law is one of the four dimensions of corporate citizenship (Carrol, 1998), but obeying the law means to operate in a minimum level of acceptable behavior, given that laws can be inadequate for protect the interests of all stakeholders groups, can be outdated, may not address all important issues, and for these reasons being behind ethical principles. An excellent citizen should go beyond law and engage in ethical behavior. Business ethics is concerned with good and bad behavior, fair and unfair, just and unjust, and has to do with ethical principles or values. These are reflected in descriptive ethics (what is the wrong/ right thing to do) and in normative ethics (what should be done), so values are also an important part of corporate social responsibility.

Following this trend we also find what Carrol (1991) considers to be the moral approach to HRM, people being treated with dignity and respect, the use of a leadership style such as consultive or participative, producing a mutual confidence and trust, aspiring to the commitment of the workforce, the right to due process, privacy, freedom of speech, safety, and fair dealings with employees.

For Metzner (2005) social responsibility related to workers and their working conditions has to do with the prevention of accidents and injuries, and compliance with legal standards regarding health and safety. Workers should be listened in regard their degree of satisfaction, with different aspects of organizational life and their expectations toward social responsibility actions and work conditions. In work conditions issues like the environment of tasks execution (noise, heat, humidity, ventilation, etc.), existing security conditions, installations, but also professional development and interpersonal relations. All items that are part of work quality of life programs, with the objective of improving work environment. Inappropriate work conditions and low salaries can be a restraint to productivity, so improving these items would be an investment to firms in order to achieve better results.

Some of these aspects of internal social responsibility are also established in Kok (2001:292)

- Physical environment: safety, health, ergonomic aspects, structure and culture;
- Working conditions: demands in relation to recruitment, selection, promotion, part-time work, working on Sundays, medical aspects, retirement aspects;
- Minorities/diversity: extent to which attention is given to minorities, diversity, multiculturalism;
- Organizational structure and management style: empowerment, involvement;
- Communication and transparency: top down and bottom up communication, use of information technology, review of information flows: relevance, timeliness, detail, accuracy;
- Industrial relations: extent to which communication takes place about expectations, needs, values and norms in society;
- Education and training: needs of employees, current and future knowledge and skills, review of training budget, personal development, quality assurance of training process, evaluation of training results.

European Community "Green Paper" for promoting Corporate Social Responsibility (2001), also addresses the internal dimension of CSR. For attracting and retaining a skilled work force some HRM practices are suggested, again life-long learning, empowerment of employees, better information throughout the company, better balance between work, family, and leisure, greater work force diversity, equal pay and career prospects for women, profit sharing and share ownership schemes, and concern for employability as well as job security, and a follow up of disabled or injured workers.

Non discrimination in recruitment should facilitate the recruitment of members of ethnic minorities, older workers, women, long-term unemployed and people at disadvantage.

Promoting life-long learning in internal setting include providing an environment which encourages lifelong learning by all employees, being stressed the less educated, the less skilled and older workers. In health and safety it goes further than applying legislation at home, but using it as criteria to choose suppliers, expanding the pressure for compliance.

Social dialogue between firms and workers is also considered a key dimension for implementing CSR since this only can be achieved through a two-way dialogue, with constant feed-back and mutual adjustment. Workers representatives should be heard extensively on corporate policies, plans and measures, not only in directly related issues, appealing to a more participative management style.

For the multinational corporations human rights are an important dimension of CSR, with this being avowed in international codes, the ILO Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy and the OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises. Some challenges are here recognized, like identifying areas of responsibility, how to monitor business partners for complying in these matters, and conducting business in countries where the rights are violated.

Further to these principles there are other examples of HRM policies that can be included in internal social responsibility (Buchholz, 1998), like fighting alienated work, job redesign, equitable rewards, income protection and job security. Building a new work relation should have some elements of ethical nature like: trust, respect, open and honest communication, and

a compromise to deal with change in a non-destructive way both to the organization and employees.

However, we cannot say that HRM policies and practices have been a major concern in the field of business ethics, as well as the ethical dimension of HRM haven't been a major concern for researchers and managers in HRM field. This debate appears in Winstanley and Woodall (2000), where is suggested that an approach to HRM centered in people well-being could be an alternative to the strategic debate (universalist *versus* contingency approach), not only for reasons of business ethics (an ethical firm would have more success, as a result of a better reputation with clients and more motivated personnel), but also because the ultimate objective of firms would be serve people and societal needs, not the contrary. Some aspects associated with high-performance HRM should be under ethical scrutiny, like variable pay, extended hours of work, performance evaluation based on extended targets, surveillance and tight control. On the contrary, firms should recognize the individual's right to autonomy, privacy, dignity, self-esteem, and of a boundary between organizational demands and the individual.

Methodology

Being an exploratory study we intended to search how firms operating in Portugal express internal social responsibility in their corporate publications, with the following general research questions:

- what can we find about internal social responsibility of firms in their general statements about corporate social responsibility?
- can we observe any influence on HRM practices, or in others words are these practices in line with principles and values expressed? Or with HRM practices mentioned earlier as reflecting internal social responsibility?

Under these questions we recognize the duality between rhetoric and the actual practice of firms. Even if in some extent firms will probably have a speech marked by what is socially acceptable (saying the right thing) we should expect that what is stated would have some practical consequences.

The use of institutional web sites by firms is nowadays a common mean of communication, not only they reach a wider audience, but as Esrock (1998) says to a more active audience, also permits to display messages with no restrictions in time, or of others entities, and gives the opportunity to try to set "an agenda", collect information, and interact with their public.

Given this characteristics, it would seams that public statements in web pages should be taken seriously by firms like a public compromise to the stakeholders and general public.

Other researchers have used this mean (Esrok, 1998; Snyder, 2003) to reveal the main themes in CSR, and given the exploratory approach to the problem believe is a valid methodology.

Our sample consists of thirty-one firms from the hundred largest firms (in sales) operating in Portugal in 2009 listed from "Exame –Maiores e Melhores", since larger organizations tend to include more social responsibility information and issues on their Web sites (Esrok, 1998).

We conduct a thorough search of the hundred largest web sites, but despite the fact that the majority had institutional web sites, only this thirty-one firms, from very different activity

sectors (transportation, informatics, oil, construction and so on) had web reports that comprised CSR, so we ended with a convenience sample. The small size of the sample doesn't allow a statistical analysis, so we were restricted to a thematic analysis.

The firms in the sample are in majority multinationals (71%), of which only 41% is Portuguese, 29% of sample was Portuguese firms operating only in national territory.

Findings

To what concerns internal social responsibility two major themes were found: compliance with ethical and legal standards and the expression of values. The care to comply with ethical and legal standards regarding employees is more prominent in speech than are values.

In the compliance theme what is most referred is non discrimination and the guarantee of equal opportunities (41,9%), this is in coherence with the expression of diversity latter encountered in values. Following, we have the guarantee to comply with labor legislation and freedom of association (32,3%), another legal imperative. The fight against child labor (29%) is a reflex of international rules and codes, certainly important in a sample constituted mainly by multinationals, some operating in Latin America, Africa, and India, but we can't forget that only ten years ago child labor, even in a residual form, still could be encountered in Portugal, so is an important statement also in a home context. Also important for firms doing business in an international scene are the respect of human rights (25,8%), and fighting forced labor (22,6%). Last we have sexual and moral harassment (respectively cited by 22,6% and 16,1%), with firms making strong statements against it. Here firms not only comply with general law, but tend to refer the existence of internal codes of conduct that should be followed.

In values stated by firms we found that the most referred is diversity (38,7%), in most cases firms express it in terms of gender and race, but in some cases also arises sexual orientation, cultural difference and disabled people. The objective would be the inclusion of people with those characteristics in the workforce, more than once with the justification of serve a diverse public.

Next in discourse come trust and respect (35,5%). Firms explicit say that they want to build a relation of trust, reciprocal trust with their employees, some put this responsibility on managers, but in general this is only commonly stated. People should be treated with respect (for their rights, their differences, their human dignity), but there should also be mutual respect, like in interpersonal relations, a respectful work environment.

These values are followed by dignity, honesty, integrity and justice (22,6%). Human being dignity should be recognized and respected, although not saying how; integrity is an ethical principle that should be respected in the relations of firm with others, also with employees, like honesty, that is also seen as a way to build trust; finally we find justice, clearly associated with fair treatment for employees (like in recruitment, promotion and evaluation).

We also encountered references to loyalty and satisfaction (12,9%), firms express the principle of loyalty, and expect reciprocity; employees satisfaction is an objective, sometimes to measure and increase, as a way to keep the workforce motivated.

These values are in line to those mentioned earlier as reflecting an internal social responsibility dimension, but some are lacking, like privacy, fighting alienated work, a more open communication; deal with change in a non-destructive way, autonomy, and promoting self-esteem. They are also absent in HRM practices context as we will see next.

After this examination we analyzed the mention of HRM practices, and if there could be found some correspondence with practices in line with internal social responsibility.

Safety at work appears on top of the list, mentioned by 61% of firms. The safeguard of workers from work related injuries is the priority, but is also mentioned a safe environment. It is difficult to understand if this is a reflex of legal obligations only, or also of other kind of considerations, although we can also find a concern for better quality of life (12,6%). Training and development is another important issue (48,4%), it appears associated with the good of individuals as well as the competiveness and success of firms. Internal communication (41,9%) seems to be associated with downward communication, like keeping the employees informed about firm general policies, sometimes with the intention of generate commitment to the organization; the same happens with the stated intentions of fostering participation and dialogue (12,6%), but in these cases we are in presence of bi-directional communication. The next group of themes include career (38,7%), the guarantee of a career is in general associated with training, and with merit (38,7%), this last also appears related with recruitment and selection, and with performance evaluation (19,4%). Fair compensation (35,5%) appear in context of merit, and on occasion specifying internal and external equity of salaries. Benefits are also mentioned (19,4%) and we have examples of firms promoting health benefits for workers and family, the most common, but also paying for tuition of graduate courses. Another concern of some relevance is the balance of work with family life (25,8%), flexible work hours is the measure taken to promote it. For some degree of comparison we can go to Snyder (2003), that also found employee development, continuous improvement, diversity, work-life balance, safety and health as important themes in U.S. firms.

In general terms we can say that the practices mentioned are part of the HRM practices considered in several sources as socially responsible. But in some cases, like a more participative management style, empowerment, involvement, profit sharing and share ownership schemes, and concern for employability are absent themes. In our opinion this is a reflection of a labor relations system that evolved from corporative and paternalistic until late 60's, to a plural but conflictual system in the 70's, and only latter from the 80's to a more negotiable and consolidated system. But distrust prevails between entrepreneurs and unions, possibly a consequence of a strong political orientation in union's action over collective negotiation (Freire, 2002).

Job security is another item absent, in Portugal a still very rigid labor legislation that protects workers with permanent contracts, insecurity has grown with atypical work relations, which the most common is false "free-lance" work, a way of firms achieve numerical flexibility.

Development and training are in our list but that doesn't mean necessarily life-long learning, nor that are the most fragile groups included. We should also mention that gender equity in payment not all is not clearly mentioned, but not practiced by many firms. Although illegal to have a discriminatory wage policy it's known for a fact that Portuguese women earn less, even in the same jobs.

Conclusions

The small size of our sample, the major limitation of this study, allows concluding not necessarily for the less importance of CSR in firms operating in Portugal, since CSR policies may be pursued by a large number of firms not identified by us, but that doesn't seems to be a major concern for external visibility in the Web. This is contrary to Esrock (1998) findings where in a sample of hundred firms, from "Fortune 500", 82% of the sites addressed at least

one corporate social responsibility issue, being a vehicle for image-building of a "good deeds, doing no harm company".

Still, this exploratory study disclosed, at least partially, the content of CSR messages in regard the internal stakeholder. The most outstanding result was the strong presence of the compliance with ethical rules and legal standards themes, this could be and indicator that firms are mostly concerned with a "primary" level of CSR, saying that they are "law obeying citizens". In fact this seems to correspond to a reaction to the context, like EU guidelines, and also international certification (SA 8000, 2001) that address child labor, forced labor, health and security, freedom of association, collective bargaining, non-discrimination, prohibit physical and verbal abuse, respect the limits of work hours, fair level of compensation , all encountered in our sample. Also firms may be only now becoming aware of possible advantages like a better image and positive differentiation in relation to competition.

Can we say like Snyder (2003) that general value statements set the ethical tone for the relationship with workers?

There is some convergence between values expressed and HRM practices. Values like justice can be in relation with fair practices of recruitment, evaluation and promotion. To what concerns respect, firms expect to foster respect in relations, and to build trust trough honest relations, internal communication can be a way to achieve it, like participation and dialogue.

Development and training besides being a mean to achieve competiveness are seen as good for people, a way to recognize the human necessity to growth or to achieve other purposes? There is a known relation between development and training and loyalty, or commitment, satisfaction and reciprocity.

The promotion of health and safety, as a way to protect physical integrity, can be seen as a way to respect workers has human beings, more than resources. The care for the balance between work and family life, which appears timidly, can be an indication that boundaries between workers organizational roles and life outside organizations are being recognized; not being over demanding in work hours can also be a way to give back to society.

But there can be some divergence, as well, like when stating diversity as a preeminent value but making no extra remarks in what concerns recruitment and selection, are firms indeed looking to recruit a diversified workforce? Having a very homogeneous population in terms of ethnics and religion, with an important integration of women in the active population, in full-time jobs, diversity may be seen as a false problem, but in recent years migration from Brazil, and Eastern European countries, have put a "tolerant" society, as Portuguese like to think themselves to a test. And what is reported by unions and media is the difficulty that, for instance, qualified migrants have to get suitable jobs. Another bad example is the poor integration of people with disabilities in the labor market.

Another divergence is what we pointed out as absences, like the marginal place of significant internal dialogue, the absence of empowerment, privacy, involvement and job redesign, which could be ways of recognizing workers dignity at work, and to promote a more equitable relation.

The above analysis and considerations serve has a basis for the work to follow, that includes the creation of an extensive database of firms and respective web documents, with the intention of enlarging the documental base for analysis, and to prepare a questionnaire that permits to explore the relations between themes, and with firms characteristics. We expect then to make a more precise contribute to the knowledge of internal social responsibility in Portugal.

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Can Organizational Culture Predict the Change in Corporate Social Responsibility? The Case of an Estonian Printing House[1]

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Abstract

The aim of current study is to outline the coherence between organizational culture and corporate social responsibility in the context of changes in the external environment. The study relies on a single case study that serves an exemplary case for the phenomena under study. We introduce a case – Ecoprint Ltd., a small printing house in Estonia – that has been famous for its socially responsible activities since mid-nineties. Sharp decline in Estonian and global printing industry in 2008-2009 dictated drastic measures to be taken in all companies in the industry, including Ecoprint. We analyze Ecoprint's reactions in terms of corporate social responsibility and outline the changes' concurrence with its organizational culture. We conclude that the type of organizational culture well described the adaptation in the sphere of corporate social responsibility.

Introduction

Organizational culture (OC) and corporate social responsibility (CSR) share some similarities in management: both phenomena have been suggested as a means to create competitive advantage in the market in strategic management (Barney, 1986; Fitzgerald, Hamilton, 2006). Just as a strong OC has been found to improve organizational performance (at least under certain conditions) (Sørensen, 2002), research on CSR's effect on profits has been found to be (marginally) positive (Orlitzky et al., 2003; Allouche, Laroche, 2005; Margolis, Elfenbein, 2008). Therefore, there is abundant literature referring to a connection between OC and CSR, but next to no research is devoted to explore the detailed relationship between these concepts explicitly (Jaakson et al., 2009) and the claims remain rather abstract. For example, several authors stop by saying that OC plays a role in CSR (Wood, 1991; Maignan, Ferrell, 2004; Thornton, Jaeger, 2008). A few authors (Wieland, 2005; Carrasco, 2007; Rooney, 2007; Maon et al., 2010) have suggested that it takes certain organizational values to be socially responsible: interdependence, empathy, equity, personal responsibility, intergenerational justice, cooperation and partnership, communication, dialogue, and concern for others. Galbreath (2009) maintains that humanistic OC, where members are expected to be supportive, constructive and open to influence in their dealings with one another, has a positive effect on CSR.

Yet, it is also clear that CSR activities cannot be predicted by OC alone; external environment like business cycle, competitive situation, national culture etc has a role as well. In this respect, a drastic change in the environment may affect organizational practices, including its approach to CSR. Given that OC is rather inert, an interesting research question

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emerges: can OC explain the changes in CSR imposed by external environment? This paper aims to outline the coherence between OC and CSR change caused by drastic shift in the economic environment. CSR is defined as a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis (European Commission, 2001). According to the definition by Commission, CSR is always about going *beyond* the law. OC has been defined in many ways, but this paper adopts Schein's definition, which says: "Culture is the sum total of all the shared, taken-for-granted assumptions that a group has learned throughout its history" (Schein, 1999). We operationalize OC with the Competing Values Framework, which will be shortly described next. After setting up the hypotheses we introduce our case organization, followed by the discussion on the links between OC and CSR change.

Competing Values Framework and its implications for organization's CSR

The inherently difficult nature of being an effective organization could be highlighted by the Competing Values Framework, which demonstrates that effectiveness criteria may be different in different types of organizations. The model proposes two values dimensions - control-flexibility and internal-external focus, which enables conceptualizing organizational effectiveness and distinguishing between different types of organizational culture (Quinn, Rohrbaugh, 1981). Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) see that the *internal-external* dimension in the framework is related to organizational focus, which may range from the well-being and development of organizational members to an emphasis on the well-being and development of the organization itself. While the internal focus aims to foster integration that is needed to sustain the organization, the external focus means focusing on competition, adaptation and interaction with the external environment (Denison, Spreitzer, 1991). The second dimension, *flexibility-stability,* is related to organizational structure. It has been argued that for an organization to be efficient, flexibility, adaptability, innovation and individual initiative is required and at the same time, there are other theorists who believe that efficiency could be attained through structure, control and authority (Quinn, Rohrbaugh, 1983). These dimensions form a framework that makes it possible to map organizational culture in terms of four different types: Open System type, Human Relations type, Rational Goal type and Internal Processes type of organizational culture.

The Open System type is characterized by flexibility and external organizational orientation and this has been considered an organizational form that is most responsive to "hyperturbulent, hyperaccelerating conditions that increasingly typify the organizational world of the twenty-first century" (Cameron, Quinn, 1999: 38). Adaptability, capacity to change and orientation towards customers (Brown, Dodd, 1998), rapid growth, resource acquisition and external support as a long-term target, uniqueness, originality (Cameron, Quinn, 1999) are highly valued in this type of organization. *The Human Relations type* could be described by flexibility and internal focus. High cohesion, morale, trust and belongingness serve as means to achieve human resource development (Quinn, Rohrbaugh, 1983). Clair et al (2000) argue that the global economy has placed more demands on organizations and the means for attaining the ends of the Human Relations type has changed (e.g. at the individual level the emphasis has moved from compliance and cooperation to involvement and empowerment). *The Rational Goal type* favors planning and goal setting to achieve productivity and efficiency as ends (Quinn, Rohrbaugh, 1983) and the most distinctive feature of this type of organizational culture is stability and control over external matters. It has been argued that the glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning

(Cameron, Quinn, 1999). This kind of organization strives for profit maximization, and on the whole the management mostly values results. The dimensions that characterize the *Internal Processes type* are firstly, focus on internal matters of the organization, and secondly, an orientation towards stability. Organizations with dominating *Internal Processes type* aim achieving stability and control, consolidation and continuity (Lamond, 2003), which could be attained via formalized communication and a centralized decision-making process (Howard, 1998).

Is there a rationale to relate Competing Values Framework and CSR? One may argue that the dimension of internal-external focus could best be used for describing organization's connections with its stakeholders. There are some stakeholder groups (for example employees) whose interests and expectations could be met when organization is internally oriented. Fulfilling the expectations of several other stakeholder groups, on the other hand, is rather facilitated by being externally oriented. Organization's position on the flexibility – control axis may reflect its willingness and ability to adapt with the changes in external environment, but also to what extent the organization is open to stakeholders' claims.

The term "competing" refers to the belief that each model of OC in the Competing Values Framework has a polar opposite and the criteria that are included in this framework carry conflicting messages (Quinn, 1988: 48-49). However, the contradiction between cultural types is not absolute and in a real system such opposition can mutually exist. Denison and Spreitzer (1991) have recognized that paradoxical combinations of values may be found in organizations. For example, being adaptive and maintaining internal integration seem to be antagonistic on theoretical grounds, but in the real world organizations would not survive if they could not try to meet expectations of being flexible and stable at the same time, thus being simultaneously focused on internal and external matters. It could be assumed that in reality organizations do not differ in terms of whether they represent a certain type of OC, but rather to what extent a particular type of OC is characteristic for its culture and which (if any) type of OC is dominating in that particular organization. In respect of OC's relationships with CSR we hypothesize that:

H1: CSR activities that relate to dominating OC types are less likely reduced when external environment becomes adverse.

CSR is usually part of strategic decisions and therefore it could be assumed that decisions concerning CSR activities in organization are more dependent on managerial understanding of OC. Therefore our second hypothesis will follow:

H2: The change in CSR activities is in accordance with OC pattern perceived by management rather than by other employees.

The case: Ecoprint

Ecoprint, a small printing house in Estonia, was formally founded in 2007 when three companies – Triip, Repro and Guttenberg that all belonged to one family – officially merged. The new organization consisted of a printing department, a design and sales department, and a prepress department, and had a total of 35 employees. Ecoprint had about 800 business clients and its turnover in 2008 was about 1.7 million Euros. The company's mission was to provide optimal printing solutions that enhanced the competitiveness and reputation of corporate customers: to develop "Green Print" and to offer environmentally friendly printing service on the Estonian market. In June 2008, Ecoprint was awarded The European Business

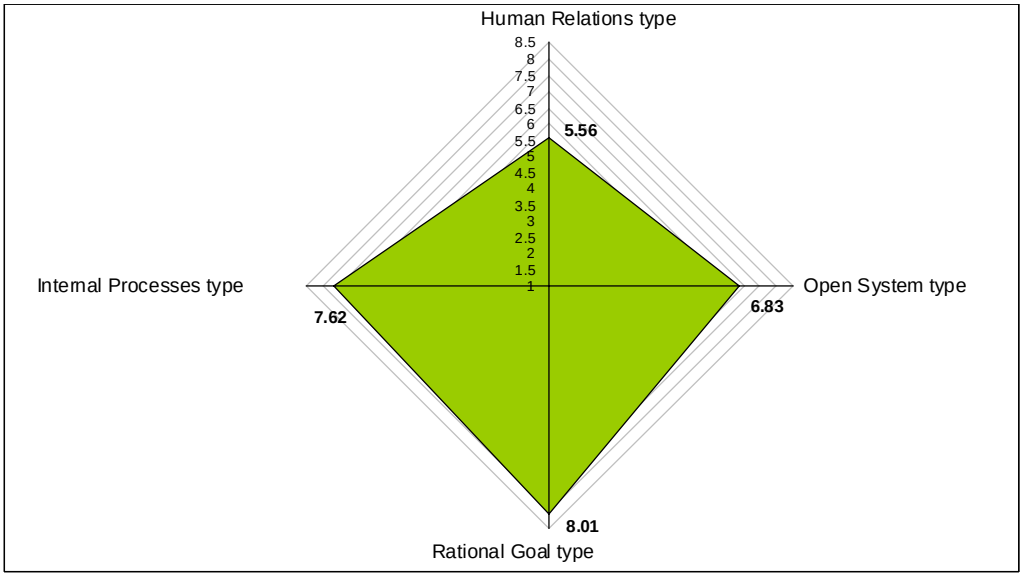
Awards (sponsored by Atradius, Infosys, RSM International, Bigmouthmedia, and The Wall Street Journal) in the environmental management category. In Estonia, Ecoprint has been nominated as the most environmentally friendly company for several years in a row mainly for the efforts to monitor and reduce its ecological footprint.

We obtained data on Ecoprint's CSR activities via interviews with the owner, manager and employees between Spring-Autumn 2009. OC of Ecoprint was studied at the end of 2009 with the Organizational Values Questionnaire worked out by Reino (2009). The questionnaire is based on the ideas and principles of the Competing Values Framework. The questionnaire was composed of 53 statements scaled from 1 to 10, whereas "1" meant that the statement is not at all characteristic to the organization and "10" denoted that the statement is very characteristic to the organization. In addition to OC statements the questionnaire contained questions about implemented changes in Ecoprint and assessments to the need for these changes. Thus, the information was obtained from two sources: interviews and the questionnaire.

18 respondents, i.e. approximately 50% of all employees were participating in the study. There were 8 male (44.4%) and 10 (56.4%) female in the sample. Average age of respondents was 36 years (SD=4.3). Position of the respondents was as follows: two managers (11.1%), ten specialists (55.6%) and five workers (27.8%). One respondent did not disclose his/her position. There were nine respondents from production (50%), six respondents from sales and design (33.3%) and three respondents from the administration (16.7%). The methods of statistical analysis included ANOVA-analysis, LSD-test and t-test ($p \leq 0{,}05$); SPSS-software was used to perform the analysis. We first present the results of Ecoprint's OC, then present the change in its CSR activities due to the changes that took place in the economic environment and printing industry, in particular. Finally, we discuss the links between OC and CSR change.

OC of Ecoprint is dominated by Rational Goal and Internal Processes type (see Figure 1). It appeared that the differences in the assessments of OC types were statistically significant in all cases except for Internal Processes and Rational Goal type. The analysis of OC perception by employee position did not reveal any statistically significant differences; we therefore may conclude that employees and managers share similar understanding of Ecoprint's OC.

Figure 1. Competing Values Model in Ecoprint



Source: compiled by the authors

Based on Ecoprint's OC, one might assume that its CSR activities are mostly related to production process and customer satisfaction, and economic crisis would not affect these in the negative direction, at least not in the first order. At the end of 2008, Ecoprint saw the first signs that the economic environment was about to change and it had to react. Starting from February 2009, the declining number of orders caused situations where workers had nothing to do, causing them to stay at home until required. 2009 was characterized by a price war and also some bankruptcies of printing houses in Estonia. Advertising agencies, the main customers of Ecoprint, started to provide design and even printing services themselves in order to retain some cash-flow. No new clients came to the market: one could only grow at the expense of its competitors. The need for cost-reduction emerged during the first half of 2009 in Ecoprint. In May 2009, all employees who earned at least 640 Euros in Ecoprint were asked for a salary-cut of 15%. Workshops were held to generate ideas how to save costs and some actions were taken as a result. Although the changes were not always drastic (e.g. employees were not provided fruits or coffee-cream for free any longer, car compensations were terminated, annual training cancelled etc.), they were unprecedent for Ecoprint. The summary of Ecoprint's CSR-related activities in 2008 and the change implemented is presented in Table 1. The table is organized into three clusters: CSR intensified activities, unchanged CSR activities and CSR withdrawal activities.

Table 1. Ecoprint's CSR activities in 2008/2009 and their relation to OC types

	CSR activities of Ecoprint as of 2008	OC type	Changes occurred by the end of 2009
Intensified CSR activities	Concern about ecological footprint and minimizing waste from the production process (incl. the use of environmentally friendly technology, use of rainwater, waste sorting, environmental reporting)	IP	Excess heat generated by printing machines is used for heating the offices of other organizations in the building (free of charge)
	Implementation of ISO9001 to guarantee the quality of production	IP, RG	Quality further improved
	Ensuring customer satisfaction	RG	Change in deadlines and pricing to better serve customers
Unchanged CSR activities	Investments made to lower the operating costs	IP, RG	No change: although production costs had gone down, looking for ways to increase the efficiency continues
	Implementing flexible time schedules for employees and promoting the idea of work-life balance	HR	No change
	Involvement of employees in decision-making	HR	No change
	Regularly taking care of particular forest land area (cleaning, planting).	OS	No change
	Conducting regular customer surveys	RG	No change
	Educating and informing general public on environmental issues (visitor-tours, interns)	OS	No change
	Supporting culture, sports and education related projects through printed materials	OS	No change
	Collaborating with non-profit organizations (e.g. donating to Estonian Fund for Nature)	OS	No change
Withdrawn CSR activities	Nurturing the team-spirit of employees (very low turnover), training and development of employees	HR	Number of employees decreased, change of work roles. Annual training cancelled.
	Paying above-average salaries in the industry	HR	Change in the salary system and implementing 15% pay-cut for those earning above certain threshold.
	Providing benefits to employees (company cars, massages, fruits & coffee for free etc.)	HR	Some benefits cut
	Organizing events for employees and their families	HR	Less events undertaken

Source: compiled by the authors

Notes: HR – Human Relations type, IP – Internal Processes type, RG- Rational Goal type, OS –Open System type

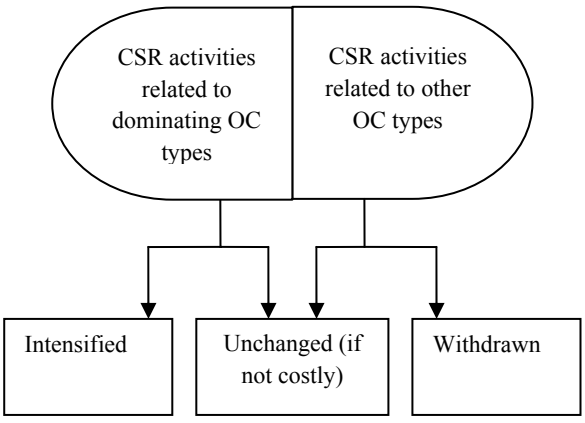
Table 1 illustrates that Internal Processes and Rational Goal related CSR activities were not reduced during the economic crisis, thus confirming H1. On the contrary, some efforts were even intensified, which could not be expected. OC type that characterized Ecoprint the least – Human Relations type – was associated with CSR activities that witnessed some withdrawal during the recession. As organizational position could not differentiate OC perceptions in Ecoprint, we cannot either reject or confirm H2.

In the questionnaires we asked employees how necessary they thought the implemented (changes in) CSR activities were. Activities related to Internal Processes and Rational Goal OC type were invariably assessed as "very" or "extremely necessary", whether they were intensified during the crisis or maintained at the same level. The picture was somewhat different in the category of personnel issues. Employees felt that the changes in the salary system and consequent pay-cut was "rather necessary" as it scored on average 3.9 in the scale of 1 ("not at all necessary") to 6 ("extremely necessary"). Such an understanding on the part of employees is relatively rare when it comes to the reduction of personal income. Partial explanation to this may be the fact that Human Relations type does not dominate in Ecoprint's OC.

Discussion and limitations

In general, the findings of the study are consistent with initial expectations. The presented case study suggests that OC types are in line with strategic decisions concerning CSR activities. An interesting result of the study is that some CSR activities which are linked with less dominating OC types still remained the same, e.g. involvement of employees or educating general public on environmental issues. If ask why, the answer may be simple – these are the activities with insignificant expenditures. Besides, withdrawal of some CSR activities might require more resources (time, energy and money) than potential gain from their cease. CSR activities have inherent inertia and in the adverse circumstances, the smaller their effect on the bottom line, the higher the inertia. The model for the change of CSR activities depending on their relation to OC types in economic downturn is illustrated by Figure 2.

Figure 2. Change of CSR activities depending on their relation to OC types in economic downturn



Source: compiled by the authors

CSR is about voluntary activities and it is always beyond the law. But if laws and rules change and impose extra requirements on organizations that they formerly used to offer without legal obligations, does this mean that organizations become less socially responsible? New regulations on employment have come into force in Estonia in 2009 and accordingly, some arrangements e.g. flexible time schedules became more eligible, and others, like using company's car got bigger taxes. Reacting to these changes has not so much to do with organization's OC; however, OC may have an effect on how these changes are accepted by employees.

Finally, some remarks are due with regard to Open System type of CSR activities. As can be seen from Figure 1 Open System type was significantly less present than Internal Processes and Rational Goal type. Yet, CSR activities related to the care for the environment and supporting the community were an important part of Ecoprint's strategy and they were not changed during the downturn. Employees pointed out these activities as "extremely necessary" to have pursued and continued regardless of difficult times. This leads to conclude that Competing Values Framework does not capture well organizational philanthropy rooted in the OC – Open Systems Type is probably the closest, but still falls short of reflecting this kind of commitment. Secondly, the case study brings forward that employees assess ethicality of an organization's actions not just in terms of self-interest (O'Donohue, Nelson, 2009); there are ideology-infused expectations for the organization to demonstrate credible commitment to a valued social cause.

There are some limitations to the study that might affect the results. The grounding argument in the study is that OC shapes CSR activities to a large extent, but we studied OC at later point in time than we observed Ecoprint's CSR activities. It would have been more accurate to study OC *before* the changes in CSR took place, even though OC has been found to be extremely inert. Organizational practice in turn affects OC and we thus cannot rule out the possibility that due to introduced changes with respect to employees, Ecoprint appeared to have the lowest score in Human Relations OC type. Also, one should be careful in concluding that CSR activities related to Human Relations type were withdrawn *only* because of the weakest presence of this OC type in Ecoprint, but rather that it was common practice in Estonia that time. As pointed out by Rõõm (2010: 35), the share of Estonian organizations that had reduced base wages in 2009 was an outstanding 44% (the average share in the studied 11 European countries was 3.2%). One might argue that in such an environment the wage cut has nothing to do with the CSR, while freezing the salaries can be seen as a responsible act instead. Therefore, we acknowledge the fuzziness of the activities to be classified as CSR intensification or withdrawal. Finally, our result only applies to the environment which is unfavorable for the organization and cost-cutting measures have to be taken - different patterns between OC types and CSR activities might emerge in a booming environment.

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Capacity-Building vs. Empire Building in a Context of Funding Uncertainty: An HRM Perspective on "Aid Effectiveness" in Canadian Development INGOs

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Abstract

Research on key aspects of development NGOs' governance – such as their international human resource management (IHRM) practices -- has been neglected (e.g., Merlot, Fenwick, & DeCieri, 2006). Government donor priorities and funding time frames are changeable (Lewis, 2007; Tomlinson, 2008), but it is unclear whether (or how) this context of funding uncertainty affects INGOs' IHRM activities. Three INGOs with diverse approaches to development projects were invited to participate in a qualitative research study. The 31 interviewees included program managers, their supervising directors, HR professionals, funding managers, and host country national employees. Results illustrate how funding uncertainty relates to IHRM practices that may be classified as contributing to empire-building and/or capacity-building.

Background

Several sources have claimed that international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) in the aid industry act in a self-serving manner, that a good deal of aid ends up in the pockets of corrupt government officials, and that this continues to occur because insufficient attention has been paid to the operational aspects of the aid industry from headquarter level to field level (Lancet, 2010; Moyo, 2009). Donor nations share the concern that their funds might be diverted from the business of host-country capacity-building (i.e., broader infrastructure building and training/development of Host-Country Nationals) to that of empire-building (be it the empires of corrupt recipient governments or those of large INGOs who might spend disproportionate amounts of donor funds on administrative overhead). However, the ACCRA agreement on Aid Effectiveness is recent evidence that they are addressing this concern by subjecting the aid industry to increased financial scrutiny (Tomlinson, 2008). In addition, researchers have also paid close attention to development NGOs' external, marketing oriented and strategic management practices (e.g., Carroll, 1992; Crutchfield & Grant, 2008; Lewis, 2007). Where claims about neglect find justification is in the relative inattention given to one crucial area of INGOs' governance – namely, their international human resource management (IHRM) practices. The literature on non-profit management has ignored the IHRM issues involved in managing field employees who are engaged in development INGOs' core activities of advocacy and service-delivery, focussing primarily on the management of volunteers rather than paid professionals (e.g., Bussell & Forbes, 2007), and on the domestic rather than the international context (Crutchfield & Grant, 2008). For example, although Crutchfield & Grant (2008) identified strategic investment in talent management as being among the three critical elements necessary to *sustain* high social impact over time, their book of over 300 pages devoted a mere seven pages to the topic of HRM. Coverage of HR activities has been equally sparse in the narrower non-profit literature on management in development INGOs (Lewis, 2007). And, in the IHRM literature, several leading authors (e.g., Merlot, Fenwick, & DeCieri, 2006) have concluded that empirically based research on IHRM practices in INGOs is sorely needed. INGOs have become powerful

organizational players in the global arena (Roberts & Jones, 2005). Given the substantial sums that INGOs receive annually through the Canadian International Development Agency's (CIDA's) Overseas Development Assistance (ODA) budget (CIDA, 2006), and the controversial pleas to further increase ODA delivery to Canadian INGOs (Sachs, 2007), research is needed to address public concerns about INGO governance. Although research has not yet examined how IHRM activities might contribute to either capacity-building and/or empire-building within development INGOs, existing research nevertheless makes it possible to draw a number of speculations. Before doing so, however, the issue of funding uncertainty must be considered, in order to clarify the context in which development INGOs' HR activities occur. Development INGOs face "low and unpredictable levels of funding" (Lewis, 2007, p.199) which "inhibits planning" (Lewis, 2007, p.24) and leads to their preoccupation "with the need to secure their own organizational survival in the face of donor or public apathy" (Lewis, 2007, p.13). In the Accra agenda for action, donors highlighted aid predictability as a matter of priority, promising to provide developing countries with "regular and timely information on their rolling three and five year forward expenditure and/or implementation plans, with at least indicative resource allocations" (Tomlinson, 2008, p.13). Tomlinson (2008) queried whether this information would be made available to stakeholders beyond government (e.g., to development INGOs). Unfortunately, this question remains unanswered, and the context of funding uncertainty persists. The term capacity building arose as "a reaction against the tendency for development projects to generate dependency and an inability to sustain performance beyond the end of the project" (Lewis, 2007, p.205), and implies more than physical infrastructural development. A sustainable notion of capacity building includes the inculcation of beneficiaries with the competencies necessary for them to sustain (and in some cases build upon) projects that the donors have brought to them. Others (e.g., Umeh, 1992) have expanded this definition to also include the inculcation of management competencies to host-country national employees (HCNs) who are employed by development INGOs from the North (developed countries). More recently, the definition has been further extended to also include those who are employed by the Northern NGOs' southern NGO partners (Lewis, 2007). The consensus in the development literature is that provision of vital management training to any group of HCN employees deserves recognition as valuable capacity building because it increases the nation's intellectual capital and offers HCNs career development opportunities. The most obvious IHRM practice that would be indicative of capacity-building is the provision of formal training (particularly in project management). However, because the flexible work style that is typical of INGOs leads them to shun formal training procedures in favour of informal, on-the-job (OJT) methods (Lewis, 2007), the method used to train HCNs (i.e., formal-classroom based or OJT) would appear to be less crucial to capacity-building than the mere fact that such training is being provided to them. Performance review discussions also build capacity in the sense that they assess employees in relation to specific performance goals that have been set, and identify further areas and methods for skill development (Losyk, 2002). Unfortunately, conducting performance review discussions within development NGOs can be challenging because the highly politicized context, with extreme environmental pressures (e.g., working in conflict zones, etc.), cause frequent deviations from formal goals and render rational goal setting difficult (Lewis, 2007). In addition, given the flexible manner in which many NGOs must operate, precise job descriptions are elusive, and "fragmented accountability" is common (Lewis, 2007, p.194). Nevertheless, Crutchfield & Grant (2008) found that the highest-impact nonprofits persevered in employing performance management processes. Although they delved only minimally into NGOs engaged in international development, their findings suggest that striving for clear accountability and for consistent implementation of performance review discussions with HCNs should be regarded as indicative of an effort to

build capacity. In addition, they observed that the higher impact non-profits applied positive consequences such as competitive compensation tied to performance, with salary & benefits located at the higher end of the nonprofit pay scale (relative to similarly sized and located non-profits). Accordingly, competitive and equitable performance-based compensation practices for HCNs can also be said to represent additional capacity building, insofar as this permits HCNs to receive rewards that motivate further skill development. The relevance of staffing activities to HCN capacity building has received little attention in the non-profit literature (e.g., Fowler, 1997; Lewis, 2007). However, the international HRM literature on the private sector has devoted considerable attention to it, noting that an ethnocentric approach to staffing can be strategically sensible for firms in the early stages of their internationalization (Bonache, Brewster, & Suutari, 2001), but that a geocentric approach which involves hiring on the basis of job suitability (rather than passport) tends to be far more empowering to host-country nationals, offering them greater job opportunities to advance to upper management levels in their national offices, and indeed throughout the global organization (Zeira, 1976). Accordingly, geocentric staffing practices such as employing a greater proportion of host-country nationals relative to parent-country nationals in one's field offices, and offering organization-wide job opportunities, may both be considered indicative of capacity-building. In summary, despite the sparse literature pertaining specifically to IHRM in development INGOs, a number of IHRM activities may be identified as being supportive of HCN capacity-building. These include providing effective training for skill development (be it formal, classroom-based training or on-the-job training), striving for clear accountability, providing consistent performance review discussions, providing competitive and equitable performance-based salaries to motivate further skill development, and adopting a geocentric approach to staffing in order to provide host-country nationals with skill-enhancing job opportunities. The first research question, therefore, is to determine whether (& how) funding uncertainty relates to such capacity-building activities in Canadian development INGOs. Defining empire building from a HRM perspective is more complex. One extreme but common view would categorize most HR activities as empire building, because they contribute to administrative overhead. As Lewis (2007, p.2 & p.20) noted, there is "the widespread view, particularly among the public and donors, that NGOS should use almost all their funds for working with poor people and should not spend money on administrative overhead or waste too much time on administrative questions…This has led in some quarters to a tendency to take low NGO administrative overhead as one of the main criteria for judging success" (Lewis, 2007, p.20). Crutchfield & Grant (2008, p.202-203) similarly observed that "The most common measure used to evaluate nonprofit performance is the ubiquitous overhead ratio, which shows how much money a group spends on its programs (or services) versus how much it spends to maintain its own operations (administration, fundraising, and so on)". However, the problem with using these metrics is that they "fall into the trap of measuring financial inputs or ratios as a proxy for success, rather than measuring impact, or the amount of change accomplished with that investment" (Crutchfield & Grant, 2008, p.202-203). Moyo (2009) expressed a similar concern. To illustrate the paradox, Crutchfield & Grant (2008) observed that the highest-impact nonprofits invested extensively in overhead to sustain their high-impact (and did not uniformly score well on the conventional metrics). They concluded by noting that "In the business world, it is widely recognized that having a superior company enables success. It takes money to make money. But in the social sector, the idea still remains difficult for donors to grasp." (Crutchfield & Grant, 2008, p.200). Clearly, to thoroughly assess whether investment in HR activities has surpassed necessary capacity-building and descended into self-serving empire building, one would need to measure social impact relative to HR investment. For the purposes of this paper, however, the greater interest is to identify whether any specific IHRM practices might

unquestionably be classified as blatant empire-building. The Vice-President of one of the high-impact non-profits consulted in Crutchfield & Grant's (2008) study indicated that activities that expand organizational size (i.e., number of people employed) may serve to tip the balance from capacity building to inefficient empire-building. This VP stated, "I'm very skeptical of growth…I think there's a danger of inefficiency with size. I already spend a significant amount of time navigating [Company name]" (p.206). Accordingly, an operational definition of empire building from an HR perspective might be the unbridled creation of permanent jobs, as it contributes to large organizational size. The second research question, therefore, is to determine whether (& how) funding uncertainty relates to empire building in the form of permanent job creation in development INGOs.

Methodology

Given that the questions being considered for the proposed project are entirely new and crucially important, but have not been empirically investigated before, a qualitative approach (Isabella, 1990) was deemed to be the most appropriate methodology. A purposeful sampling strategy (Miles & Huberman, 1994) involving multiple perspectives (Creswell, 2007) was employed. At the site level, the organizations were selected to participate based on their diverse primary orientations to development projects (e.g., primarily autonomous implementers vs. primarily partnership-oriented organizations, and primarily advocacy-focused vs. primarily service-delivery focused missions). The resultant organizational set included Canadian Feed the Children (CFTC), CARE Canada, and OXFAM Canada. Miles & Huberman (1994) and Creswell (2007) recommended that the individuals selected from the participating organizations be people who have been engaged in the core process somehow – the core process, in this case, being the human resource management of host-country nationals -- and that maximum variation be sought at this individual level as well. Therefore, the specific breakdown of participants was as follows: 13 participants from CARE Canada, including 2 HR managers (domestic and international), 3 directors, 4 program managers, 1 funding manager and 3 country representatives; 11 participants from CFTC, including 1 HR administrator, 2 directors, 3 program managers, 1 funding manager, 1 board member, and 3 country representatives. Finally, from OXFAM Canada, there were 7 participants, including 1 HR manager, 2 directors, 3 program managers, and 1 funding manager. In total, the study consisted of 31 individuals. In addition, to provide corroborating evidence on the themes (Whittemore, et al, 2001; Eisner 1991) multiple and different sources of data were used, including not just primary data in the form of 1:1 and focus-group semi-structured interviews, but also secondary (archival) data. Data were collected over the course of 6 months, to ensure that the culture has been learned (Creswell, 2007). Analysis was conducted in accordance with the multi-stage process recommended by Creswell (2007) and Strauss & Corbin (1990). Throughout the coding process, intercoder reliability was established between the author (principal researcher) and her doctoral research assistant to ensure stability in the context of multiple coders of the data sets.

Results

Illustrative quotes will be provided in the final draft of the manuscript, as well as at the conference presentation. The first research question queried whether (& how) funding uncertainty relates to capacity-building IHRM activities in Canadian development INGOs.

Each of the capacity-building activities discussed earlier will be examined in turn. In regard to training, it is clear that HCNs are indeed provided with some form of orientation training to the organization, although this is not always conducted in a formal manner. The participants acknowledged that training beyond initial orientation was provided because there was a need to upgrade locals' skills, but indicated that the donors did not always appreciate the full extent of that need. To illustrate donors' lack of appreciation in this regard, several participants noted that donors' funding programs rarely allow staff training as a legitimate project expense. The consequence is that training has to be paid from the NGOs' already limited administrative budget. Therefore, in an effort to minimize training costs, the participating organizations rely heavily on qualified managers to train in a coaching/mentoring (OJT) format. However, evidence of the degree to which OJT is being provided is mixed, as is the manner in which it is conducted (when provided). On one hand, many managers make a conscientious effort to build capacity. For example, in response to donor pressures for detailed reports, they challenge the HCNs to elaborate upon their analyses – not only reporting facts but explaining them as well (e.g., clarifying where certain figures come from). On the other hand, several managers are considerably less conscientious about providing OJT. It is recognized that the less effective managers just give orders/commands, without providing any actual explanation as to the rationale or method for implementing those orders. Other managers omit more detailed explanations not for the sake of expediency but because they consider it pointless to teach HCNs to learn to write in 'donor language'. The larger NGOs (with the greater number of HCNs) believe that training of HCNs has slipped. Overall, the participants believe that funding uncertainty has impeded both the prioritization of HCN training and the retention of qualified on-the-ground role models (which are necessary for effective OJT). In regard to performance management, there is evidence that formal policies exist for performance reviews. However, funding uncertainty impedes the consistent implementation of this policy. Part of the reason for inconsistent performance review discussions is a lack of clear accountability. The training of HCNs was considered by most project managers to be partly the responsibility of senior management in the field, and partly the responsibility of the HQ-based project manager. Despite this recognition, the OJT of HCNs was not included as a criteria for performance in most program managers' performance reviews. In regard to compensation, the participating INGOs recognized that, in order to be competitive with other NGOs, they would need to set their compensation competitively, at roughly the 75th percentile. They learned of this via their participation in salary surveys – be it with other members of their federation (in the case of CARE Canada) or with other NGOs (in the case of OXFAM Canada and Canadian Feed the Children). However, efforts to improve competitiveness in compensation were also hindered by the funding uncertainty that donors created. Namely, donors have repeatedly shifted their definition of which staff (i.e., headquarters, field office, or both) constitute overhead, which limits the extent to which INGOs can reconcile salary gaps. Additional funding uncertainty has been created by fluctuations in the Canadian dollar (which affects the value of foreign salaries), and by donor delays at responding to these fluctuations (i.e., failing to adjust the cost of living allowance in a timely manner). The participating INGOs also strove to make compensation internally equitable, because it was recognized that discrepancies exist between HCNs and PCNs working in the same country office. However, reconciliation of these inequities was also constrained because of uncertainty created by donors. In this case, it had to do with inconsistencies among donors in terms of allowable compensation expenditures, particularly benefits packages. It must be acknowledged that some of the challenges the INGOs faced in regard to compensation were internally created by a lack of IHRM expertise in the area of international compensation. For example, in an effort to promote internal equity among country representative salaries across all their host country offices, CFTC scaled back some host country representative's salaries, rather than froze them, which contributed to feelings of injustice on

the part of one of their HCN employees. In another example, the lack of awareness of the option of using blended-currencies to minimize the risk associated with currency fluctuations led to problems with both retention and recruitment. In regard to staffing, an HCN employee of the smallest participant INGO, CFTC, felt that her organization's employment of HCNs in country offices (rather than expatriates) offered a clear indication that her organization prioritizes the capacity of HCNs by providing them with skill-enhancing job opportunities. Although HCNs appear to be the predominant nationality employed in all of the participating INGOs' country offices today, it was acknowledged that – particularly at CARE Canada – this reflects a gradual reversal from historical patterns. To some extent, this reversal was conducted to reduce costs. However, closer analysis of staffing practices reveals an underlying geocentric philosophy. In general, career opportunities appear to be open to HCNs, with the exception that the country director post in the host country is not usually available for nationals. That is, HCNs can progress fully toward the upper echelons of the organization's management levels only if they are prepared to go to an expatriate context. This mobility requirement was not considered to be inequitable relative to parent country nationals' (PCNs') career paths. Most PCNs in such organizations also have to rotate from contract to contract (and across diverse countries) due to the scarcity of upwardly hierarchical moves. The second research question pertains to whether (& how) funding uncertainty relates to permanent job creation in development INGOs. Although the largest INGO in the study employed many in their country offices, they firmly denied that their organizational size in any way reflected an empire-building ethos. Indeed, many participants argued not only that the context of funding uncertainty and constant pressure by donors to reduce costs rendered empire-building impossible, but that funding uncertainty even contributed to empire-bleeding (i.e., caused costly retention issues, and a concurrent loss of their valuable investment in training, which risked their organizational sustainability). Nevertheless, a small number of the participants revealed that funding uncertainty ironically prompted empire building in unanticipated ways, such as in the form of strategies for growth to gain a more diverse donor base and hence greater funding stability, as well as in terms of diversification of project activities, to avoid being subject to donors' "flavour of the month" funding priorities.

Discussion

Concerns have been raised about INGOs' relative attention to empire-building over capacity-building activities (Moyo, 2009; Lancet, 2010). A key practical finding of this study, facilitated by this paper's operationalization of certain IHRM practices as indicative of capacity-building, is that the participating INGOs are, in fact, more actively engaged in capacity building than empire building. However, this study has also found that INGOs' efforts are impeded by two key factors: (1) Insufficient IHRM expertise within the INGOs, and, more significantly, by (2) funding uncertainty, the latter of which appears to place the INGOs' organizational sustainability at risk if they do not respond with some degree of strategic empire-building. In regard to the former, there is inconsistency among program managers in terms of their dedication to HCN coaching, which participants acknowledged was due partly to their failure to hold program managers accountable by including HCN training as a part of their job description – a finding consistent with Lewis (2007). In Oxfam Canada, this was partly attributed to a lack of international expertise on the part of HQ staff, who did not fully appreciate the limitations of HCN competencies. In addition, improved IHRM practices are warranted in the area of compensation (e.g., more systematic salary surveys, and the use of blended-currencies for expatriate and/or HCN salaries to minimize the risks associated with

currency fluctuations). Although improved IHRM practices would certainly be helpful, funding uncertainty was clearly a greater impediment to capacity building. Contrary to accepted definitions of capacity building (e.g., Umeh, 1992), which recognize that skilled employees are required if projects are to be effectively implemented, monitored, evaluated, and sustained, and contrary to Lewis' (2007) view that formal training is less likely in INGOs simply because of their informal modus operandi, it appears that formal training is not being conducted in development INGOs mainly because donors do not regard the inculcation of HCN skills as a legitimate element of local capacity building. Consequently, funding uncertainty requires INGOs to draw upon their scarce administrative overhead funds to finance training efforts, but in practice this often means that program managers prioritize grant-applications and timely report completion over HCN training. Funding uncertainty in the form of constraints on competitive salary levels, shifting allowances for staff salaries (e.g., Are field office staff overhead or project related?), inconsistency among donors in terms of benefits, and delays in donor's adjustments of cost-of-living allowances were all problematic. Collectively, they hindered capacity-building by both impeding the competitive hiring of additional staff who could devote greater attention to HCN training, and the retention of qualified on-the-ground role models who could potentially complement the headquarter-based program managers' efforts at HCN capacity-building. The only capacity-building activity that did not appear to be adversely impacted by funding uncertainty was the INGO's geocentric approach to staffing, because it was recognized as being more cost effective than the ethnocentric approach. Finally, it is clear that funding uncertainty served to counteract empire-building in the form of excessive creation of permanent positions; in fact, it appeared to contribute to empire bleeding in terms of creating significant retention challenges. In some respects, turnover does not necessarily reflect a failure of capacity building efforts per se, as most HCNs who leave likely do so because they have become more marketable as a result of their work experiences at the INGOs, which increased their capacity. However, when viewed within the broader context of aid effectiveness goals, turnover of skilled staff is counterproductively inefficient. As Crutchfield & Grant (2008) noted in their work on high-impact nonprofits, strategic investment in talent management is among the three critical elements necessary to *sustain* high social impact over time. Consequently, an additional significant practical implication of this study is the finding that donors' shortsightedness (in terms of marginal savings due to limitations on HR expenditures) may ironically minimize the full extent of social-impact leverage they could gain on their investment in INGOs' projects. Moreover, as noted earlier, funding uncertainty prompted empire building in unanticipated ways, such as in INGOs using their scarce unrestricted funds (e.g., from public donations) to implement alternate growth strategies (e.g., diversification of project activities). The INGOs do this for the sake of gaining/retaining a more diverse donor base that would permit greater access to unrestricted funds, and not subject them to donors' "flavour of the month" funding priorities. Future research should investigate the ways in which development INGOs collaborate to exchange knowledge about effective IHRM practices, which would seem to be an efficient strategic response in a context of funding constraints. Research is also needed to compare the capacity-building IHRM activities of development INGOs, which aim to operate in a sustainable manner, with those of private-sector development contractors, whose sustainability practices remain to be documented.

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Chapter 15: Values in Education

Values in Education: A Comparison of Students' and Teachers' Views

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Abstract

The study examined the process and outcome of values education in the classroom as perceived by students and teachers. Data were collected from 739 fifth- and sixth-grade students and 26 teachers in Hong Kong. Both questionnaires and interviews were employed. Results indicated similarity between students' views of values learned from their teachers and teachers' views of the ideal values and those imparted in the classroom. However, disparity was identified between students' and teachers' perceptions of the values learned from their teachers. The study further provided examples of how teachers imparted values. Findings of the study are discussed with reference to the process and evaluation of values education and the possible different meanings assigned to values.

Introduction

Values education has been internationally acknowledged as one of the important responsibilities of schools (Amundson, 1991; Halstead, 1996; Taylor, 2006). The recognition of this significant role of schools as a major socialization agent, together with the increase in international research on the crucial effect of teaching and schooling on the development of children, has led to the growing belief in the ability of schools to educate for values (Lovat, 2009). The area of values education which saw the development of different programs of values education (e.g., moral education, character education, and ethics education) has also been regarded as a complex and emerging domain for both researchers and practitioners (Fyffe, Hay & Palmer, 2004). Within the school community, teachers are perceived as the main values educators. As stated by Taylor (2006): "Teachers are at the heart of values signals and messages from the formal and informal curriculum" (p. 124). A review of the literature indicates that studies on values education in schools were focused on the types of values as well as the ways in which these values are imparted mainly through the formal and structured strategies (Halstead & Taylor, 2000). Some research (e.g., Bulach, & Butler, 2002; El-Hassan & Kahil, 2005), though to a much lesser extent, has also investigated the occurrence of some behaviors associated with values among students as well as the effectiveness of different formal strategies of teaching values.

In recent years in both research and policy making, there has been a growing interest in values and values education in Hong Kong (e.g., Lee, 2001). Research on values and values education has aimed primarily at examining the types of values conveyed in different subject syllabi, as well as soliciting people's views towards values education, the desired values to be taught in schools, and the best way to impart those values. For example, subject syllabi like Civic Education and Chinese Language were analysed to identify values conveyed in these school subjects. The results indicated the prominence of interpersonal and moral values such as mutuality, social cohesion, family values, social harmony, justice, fairness and tolerance (Morris & Morris, 2000) and other types of values including self-oriented through group-oriented values, society-oriented values, nation-oriented values, and nature-oriented values (Leung, 1996), with the dominance of self-oriented values. Other studies which solicited people's views towards

values education revealed an overall support among both teachers and other key people in the area of education (Lee, 2001). Teachers were perceived as the key socializing agents to convey values to students, especially those related to civic education. As for the ways to impart values in schools, the common views were that values education should be integrated throughout the curriculum so as to allow flexibility to relate to it in all subjects and also to allow values to be internalized rather than taught as subject knowledge (Lee, 2001).

As part of the recent education reform, the Hong Kong Curriculum Development Council (2001) has put forth a list of values and attitudes for incorporation into the school curriculum. These values and attitudes are categorized into 5 groups: core values (personal), core values (social), sustaining values (personal), sustaining values (social), and attitudes. These values are defined as 'those qualities that an individual or society considers important as principles for conduct and that are intrinsically worthwhile' and are considered to be 'fundamental to the formation of attitudes, which in turn affect the acquisition and application of values.' (Curriculum Development Council, 2001, p. II-1). While core values are regarded as universal values, sustaining values are 'other values that are also important at an instrumental level, being regarded as important or helpful for sustaining the core values.' (Curriculum Development Committee, 1996, p. 12 & 14) Some examples of these values are: (1) core values (personal): honesty, rationality, and courage; (2) core values (social): equality, kindness, and justice; (3) sustaining values (personal): self-discipline, openness, and independence; (4) sustaining values (social): freedom and liberty, patriotism, and responsibilities; and (5) attitudes: optimistic, caring & concerned, and cooperative.

The above review of values education in Hong Kong highlights the support for its implementation. It further points out the tendency towards the development of both personal and social values, with the former setting the foundations for the latter. The significance of the development of personal values in this regard has been attributed to the Confucian thought maintaining that if individuals cultivate themselves, then they will be able to establish better relationships with their families, communities and beyond (Lee, 2001). While the findings of the aforementioned studies concerning values education in Hong Kong were based on content analysis and survey, systematic research on the implementation and outcomes of values education is scarce in the local context. A pioneer study undertaken by the authors (Sivan & Chan, 2008) aimed to fulfill this gap. The study investigated implicit values education through observing messages conveyed by teachers to their students in the classroom. The study adopted a qualitative approach involving classroom observation of 104 lessons conducted in 5th and 6th grades from 7 primary co-educational schools. The observation was based on a checklist of values and attitudes put forward by the Curriculum Development Council (2001).

Based on the above literature review, this study attempts to extend previous research and to fill the research gap in values education in the Hong Kong context by addressing the following research questions: (1) What values and attitudes do students learn from their teachers? (2) To what extent do students' and teachers' perceptions differ with respect to the values and attitudes learned? and (3) How do teachers impart values and attitudes in the classroom? While the first and second questions focus on the outcomes of students' learning of the values and attitudes proposed by the Hong Kong Government, the third question examines the process of values education.

Methodology

This study adopted both quantitative and qualitative approaches, administering self-completed questionnaires for student participants and conducting individual semi-structured interviews for participating teachers. Before the study, inform consent was sought from the school principals, the teachers, and the students.

Seven hundred and thirty-nine grades five and six students participated in the study by completing a self-administered questionnaire in which they had to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement on a 5-point Likert scale (from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree") to 26 statements on values and attitudes. The purpose of these statements was to examine the extent to which the students had learned these values and attitudes from their teachers. Besides student participants, 26 teachers (7 males & 19 females) attended an in-depth face-to-face one-hour semi-structured interview in which they had to indicate whether they had taught the 26 values and attitudes to their students as well as to express freely how they communicated these values and attitudes to their students.

Results

Table 1 shows the mean scores of the students' responses, in descending order, to the 26 statements concerning the values and attitudes they learned from their teacher. It can be seen that the mean scores ranged from 3.83 (Patriotism) to 4.31 (Respect for others), with an average of 4.06 for all the 26 items. These scores, representing the outcome of values education, revealed a high degree of agreement among students regarding their learning of these values and attitudes from their teachers.

Table 1. Students' mean scores on the values/attitudes they learned from their teachers (n = 739)

	Value & Attitude	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	Respect for others (attitude)	4.31	.86
2	Confident (attitude)	4.24	.86
3	Cooperative (attitude)	4.22	.83
4	Responsibilities (social); Responsible (attitude)	4.22	.90
5	Self-discipline (personal)	4.22	.90
6	Honesty (personal)	4.18	.90
7	Caring & concerned (attitude)	4.12	.90
8	Kindness (social)	4.12	.91
9	Love (social)	4.11	.91
10	Individuality (personal)	4.10	.92
11	Justice (social)	4.10	.93
12	Perseverance (personal)	4.08	.93
13	Courage (personal)	4.08	.95
14	Optimistic (attitude)	4.06	.96
15	Trust (social)	4.03	.94
16	Tolerance (social)	4.01	.93
17	Self-determination (personal)	4.01	.93
18	Rationality (personal, social)	4.01	.93
19	Mutuality (social)	4.00	.94
20	Openness (personal)	3.97	.94
21	Modesty (personal)	3.94	1.00
22	Adaptable to changes (attitude)	3.92	.91
23	Equality (social)	3.90	1.05
24	Independence (personal)	3.89	.97
25	Freedom & liberty (social)	3.87	1.01
26	Patriotism (social)	3.83	1.06
	Average of 26 items	4.06	.93

Table 2 displays both teachers' and students' views concerning the 26 values and attitudes. The first column indicates the percentages of students (collapsing "strongly agree" & "agree") stating that they learned these values and attitudes from their teachers. These percentages are arranged in descending order. The other three columns show teachers' perspective of (1) what values and attitudes should be taught to students (ideal), (2) what they had actually taught to their students (practice), and (3) what the students had learned from them (outcome).

Concerning students' point of view, the percentages of students indicating that they learned these values and attitudes from their teachers were relatively high, ranging from 69.9 (Equality) to 88.7 (Respect for others). Of the 26 items, over half of them (14) got a percentage of 80 or above. The average percentage of all the 26 items was 80.6, suggesting that the majority of the students expressed that they had learned these values from their teachers. These figures are also in line with the findings presented in Table 1.

Regarding teachers' perceptions, the percentages of teachers saying that these values and attitudes should be taught were also comparatively high, ranging from 73 (Modesty, Self-determination, Freedom & Liberty) to 100 (Responsibility). Over two-thirds of the items (18) had a percentage of 80 or above. The average percentage across the 26 items is 83.3. With respect to teacher's perspective of the values and attitudes taught to students, the data in Table 2 showed that the percentages are relatively lower as compared to those of the students. These figures ranged from 46.2 percent (Openness) to 88.5 percent (Respect for others), with a mean of 69.2 percent. Of the 26 items, only five of them exceeded 80 percent. In comparison with students' perspective, these figures clearly indicated that there were discrepancies concerning the teaching of these values and attitudes from the teachers' perspective and the learning of these values and attitudes from the students' view, with comparatively lower percentages for the former.

About teachers' perception of what students had learned from them, the data in Table 2 revealed that the percentages ranged from 7.7 (Openness & Self-determination) to 34.6 (Responsibility), with a mean of 20.6. Only 5 items were found to slightly exceed 30 percent. All the percentages across the 26 items were exceedingly lower in comparison with those of what they thought they had taught their students (an average difference of 48.6%) and those of what students learned from their teachers (an average difference of 60%). It is interesting to note that, with reference to the outcome of values education, there were great discrepancies between teachers' and students' perspectives concerning what values and attitudes students had learned. Teachers' perceptions concerning what students had learned from them were consistently less "optimistic" than those of their student counterparts.

Table 2. Percentages of students (n = 739) and teachers (n = 26) indicating the learning and teaching of the 26 values and attitudes

	Values & Attitudes	Students learnt from teachers (%)	Need to be taught by teachers (%)	Teachers taught their students (%)	Teachers thought students had learnt from them (%)
1	Respect for others	88.7	92.3	88.5	30.8
2	Cooperative	87.8	88.5	76.9	30.8
3	Self–disciplinary	87.1	88.5	88.5	27.0
4	Concern and caring	87.1	84.6	69.2	27.0
5	Honesty	86.7	92.3	80.7	30.8
6	Love	86.0	84.6	69.2	27.0
7	Confidence	85.5	88.5	73.0	15.4
8	Kindness	85.5	88.5	61.5	23.1
9	Responsibility	84.8	100.0	88.5	34.6
10	Individuality	82.5	84.6	69.2	19.2
11	Optimistic	82.4	84.6	76.9	30.8
12	Perseverance	81.9	84.6	65.4	23.1
13	Justice	80.9	80.7	65.4	19.2
14	Trust	80.6	80.7	65.4	19.2
15	Courage	79.3	84.6	76.9	19.2
16	Rationality	78.5	88.5	69.2	15.4
17	Tolerance	78.5	76.9	73.0	19.2
18	Self–determination	78.2	73.0	50.0	7.7
19	Mutuality	78.1	76.9	69.2	15.4
20	Adaptable to changes	76.4	76.9	65.4	19.2
21	Openness	75.6	73.0	46.2	7.7
22	Independence	75.5	88.5	80.7	27.0
23	Modesty	73.9	73.0	57.7	15.4
24	Freedom and Liberty	72.9	73.0	53.8	15.4
25	Patriotism	70.4	76.9	61.5	3.8
26	Equality	69.9	80.7	57.7	11.5
	Average of 26 items	80.6	83.3	69.2	20.6

Regarding the process of values education, follow-up semi-structured interviews with the teachers highlighted the ways in which they communicated these values and attitudes to their students. Teachers' accounts showed that they attempted to teach these values by using different strategies in different contexts within the school. The following direct quotations are illustrative of these attempts to communicate "individuality", "cooperative", "self-discipline", and "equality".

A teacher mentioned how she conveyed "individuality" in her daily interactions with students in the classroom.

> The value of "individuality" is communicated to students in my interaction with them in the classroom. I always emphasize that students should be aware that each person has his/her own character and uniqueness which distinguish him/her from other individuals. I encourage my students to speak out for themselves if their opinions are different from those of their classmates.

One teacher indicated how he made use of the short break between two lessons to teach "self-discipline" to his students.

> In the short break between two lessons, I request my students to take out the textbook of the next lesson after the teacher of the previous lesson has left. I tell them that they have to do this automatically because this is about self-discipline. After the arrival of the teacher of the next lesson, they need to put aside everything of the previous lesson. I am very strict and always remind them of this practice. After two weeks, most of them can do this automatically by themselves. Through this channel, I try to nurture their self-discipline.

Another teacher pointed out how he used his own behaviour in the classroom to serve as a model in order to impart "equality".

> In order to communicate the value of "equality", I try to do my best to ensure that every student in my class will have the same opportunity to participate in class activities and to interact with me. I make every effort to achieve this regardless of my students' ability, gender, or family background. Every student should have an equal opportunity to have a good learning environment so as to facilitate his/her learning.

A teacher commented on how she communicated "cooperative" to her students in her teaching in the classroom.

> To foster the spirit of cooperativeness among my students, I require my students to cooperate with their classmates in their group work. There are some self-centred students who do not talk to their group members and do not participate in their group project. It is obvious that they do not know what is meant by cooperativeness. In my teaching, I talk to these students in order to understand them more….

The above teachers' accounts highlight how teachers employed different strategies in their daily teaching activities to impart values and attitudes to their students. These accounts not only reflect the important role played by teachers as an important agent of socialization, but also shed light on the process of implicit values education within the school context.

Discussion

The findings of this research have highlighted not only the perceived outcomes of implicit values education from both students' and teachers' perspectives, but also the process through which values and attitudes are inculcated by teachers. The findings raise two important issues in relation to the outcome and process of values education.

First, the study indicated that there were great discrepancies concerning the perceived outcomes of values education from the students' and the teachers' perspectives. For students, the outcomes of learning both values and attitudes from their teachers were very positive, but for teachers, the perceived outcomes were far less positive. To a certain extent these findings are similar to those of Bulach and Butler's (2002) study conducted in US which solicited students' and teachers' views of the presence of behaviours typical of character values. Their

study showed that the overall scores of elementary students were higher than those assigned by their teachers, whereas the opposite was found among middle and high school students, with the teachers scoring higher than the students. One of the reasons for higher scores assigned by elementary students was the possible impact of an implementation of a character education program prior to the study. Similarly in our study it is possible that our students' perceptions were much affected by their teachers' implicit values education. At the same time, it is possible that teachers' lower perceived outcome is attributed to their concern that, when compared with other socialization agents, their values education may have less influence on their students (Sivan & Chan, 2008). .

The second issue arising from the study relates to the meaning assigned to values. The great discrepancies between the students' and teachers' views regarding the learning of values and attitudes could be attributed to differences in meanings of those values given by the two parties. Even though values education is a goal of education, there is an ongoing debate about its definition and implementation and "it is often clouded by a confusion of terms and how it can be possibly enhanced and measured." (Fyffe, Hay & Palmer, 2004, p.109) The list of values and attitudes used in this study has been proposed to be incorporated into the curriculum by the Hong Kong Government. Although an official definition of values has been presented, the meaning of each of these values and attitudes has yet to be discussed and defined. It would also be useful to clarify the different behaviors attached to these values and attitudes. Such a clarification could be an initial step towards a shared understanding of their meanings and subsequently could lead to formulating a set of criteria for evaluating the outcomes of values education based on these values and attitudes. Clarification of values and formulation of evaluation criteria for these values have been acknowledged internationally as stepping stones towards successful values education in schools (Taylor, 2000).

Results of the study not only complement previous research findings obtained through classroom observations with regard to the transmission of values and attitudes (Sivan & Chan, 2008), but also provide evidence indicating that students do learn values and attitudes from their teachers through different informal ways, including their teachers serving as their role-models. Despite the growing attention paid to the area of values education, there are relatively few studies which aimed at evaluating the outcomes of this process particularly in a classroom context (Taylor, 2000). Soliciting students' views on the values and attitudes they learned from their teachers, as examined in our study, is an attempt to shed more light on the outcomes of values education within the classroom context of primary schools in Hong Kong. Findings of the study lend further support to the crucial role of teachers in the process of values education in schools. With a lack of formal values education in Hong Kong, results of the study could be of great value to practicing teachers as well as to the policy makers. In view of the fact that values education is multifaceted and multidimensional and the diverse impact of different socialization agents outside the school on students' learning of values, highlighting the ways in which values are imparted informally by teachers as well as students' perceptions of the positive outcomes of these strategies could give encouragement to teachers in their effort to inculcate values within the classroom and the school contexts. Since it has been argued that teachers need more support and guidance to implement values education in their teaching, pointing out the implicit ways of imparting values identified in our study as well as depicting students' perceived outcomes of learning values could be part of this support and guidance. As for the policy makers, results of the study could provide some initial feedback regarding the outcomes of imparting the proposed list of values and attitudes in Hong Kong schools. Future research could enhance this practical knowledge by extending the study to secondary schools to solicit students' responses concerning the learning of values and attitudes from their teachers. This could provide a more holistic picture

of the extent to which the recommended values and attitudes are incorporated and taught in the school curriculum.

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Are We Breeding Nihilists? An Analysis of the Perceived Personal Importance of Values between Undergraduate and Postgraduate Students

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Abstract

This paper examines changes in the perceived importance of discrete values dimensions among undergraduate and postgraduate students. The study employs the triaxial model of values developed by Dolan et al. (2006) which includes the values dimensions of ethical-social, economic-pragmatic, and emotional-developmental. However, based on the results of factorial analysis, the study introduced a fourth axis of innovation-independence. A multinational survey (N=191) of undergraduate and postgraduate students and alumni revealed an underlying structure of four rather than three factors. It also confirmed that the perceived personal importance of the l triaxial values dimensions decreased among postgraduate students whereas the innovation- independence values (the new additional axis) remained unchanged. Implications for further research are proposed.

Brief Literature Review

There has been ample research examining the ways in which socialization and cultural processes influence individual values formation and change. Studies have found connections between values and socialization processes like age (Cherrington, Condie, & England, 1979), gender, education (Cherrington et al., 1979), training (Kraimer, 1997), institutional change (Alas & Wei, 2008), economic development and social change (Rokeach & Ball-Rokeach, 1989), and country values (Hofstede, 1980). This paper seeks to build on these prior findings by identifying the influence that secondary and post-graduate management education has on the formation of personal values.

Personal values are the fundamental mental cognitions used by individuals when deciding their preferences and choosing between "modes of behavior" and "end-state of existence" (Rokeach, 1973). Values have been found to exhibit hierarchical characteristics (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Rokeach, 1973) and are multi-faceted and multi-dimensional in nature (Rokeach, 1973). Cameron & Quinn's (1999) competing values framework of corporate culture categorized human values into four groups whereas Dolan et al (2006) used a three factor model to capture the triaxial nature of human values.

The triaxial model of personal value was developed by Dolan et al (2006) to face the new management challenge of the new century (Dolan & Garcia, 2002; Dolan et al., 2006; Knoppen, Dolan, Diez-Pinol, & Bell, 2006). The triaxial model includes the dimensions of Economic-Pragmatic, Ethical-Social, and Emotional-Developmental. Economic-Pragmatic values are necessary to maintain and develop organizational sub-systems such as planning, quality assurance, and accounting. Ethical-Social values guide the ways people behave in a group setting. They are associated with social values such as honesty, congruence, respect and loyalty. Emotional-Developmental values are essential to create new opportunities for

action. They are values related to trust, freedom and happiness. Using three dimensions, this model attempts to capture some of the underlying dimensions within human value system, thus has been proven to have found validity during many studies aforementioned.

Values represent a fundamental psychological cognition and thus tend to be stable over long periods of time (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). However, values are changeable (Alas & Wei, 2008; Egri & Ralston, 2004; Lubinski, Schmidt, & Benbow, 1996; Roe & Ester, 1999) due to several forms of influence. Understanding the antecedent and process of value change become increasingly important. Individual socialization process and social learning are linked to the primary formation and subsequent adjustments in personal values (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Rokeach, 1973; Schein, 1985; Schwartz & Zanna, 1992). Socialization processes also contribute to the instilling of organizational values to employees in order to achieve a state of value congruence (Gruys, Stewart, Goodstein, Bing, & Wicks, 2008; Rokeach, 1985). People tend to change those values that are not serving them well (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998), for example Rokeach & Ball-Rokeach (1989) found that in American society, many values are rather stable but that some values can be changed because of dissatisfaction.

The relationship between age and personal values has been widely researched. Aldag & Brief (1975) found a significant correlation between age and ethical values. Cherrington et al. (1979) found there were significant difference between older and younger participants on values after controlling for other factors that can affect personal values, especially education. Egri & Ralston (2004) found that different generations in the U.S. and China experience different life impacts and thus show different value preferences.

Education is an important factor affecting the socialization process of human life, but it has not been widely studied in connection to the formation or adjustment of personal values. Wijting, Arnold, & Conrad (1978) examined the relationship between the values of school children in grades 6, 9, 10, and 12 and their parents' values as a function of age and sex. They found that under the impact of education and age, students' values are aligning towards those of their fathers. Cherrington et al. (1979) used education as a control factor in their study and found education has significant impact on values. Schulenberg, Vondracek, & Nesselroade (1988) examined the changes of values on seven college students for 100 days and found that the importance of specific values changed during the course of the study. Dæhlen (2005) found that values do change during education but those changes are rather small and are unrelated to gender and type of education. She also claimed that the research of education on values change is limited and the reason is a lack of longitudinal research. Stubager (2008) used a socialization model to explain the relationship between education and authoritarian-libertarian values and found that the differences of the values are actually transferred to students by different educational milieus, which implies the impact of education on personal values. Lan, Ma, Cao, & Zhang (2009) found values difference between Chinese accounting practitioners and students. Aforementioned studies imply the impact of education on the development of personal values, yet empirical study is needed to examine this impact. The purpose of this study is to examine the ways that values differ between undergraduate and postgraduate students.

Propositions

Employing a logic borrowed from the theory of socialization, we expect personal values to change throughout the formal education process. A study by Cherrington et al. (1979)

reported that four out of six values dimensions were negatively impacted by education. Dæhlen (2005) also reported a general reduction of values scores under the impact of education. Consequently, we expect to see an overall decline in personal values importance among the triaxial values dimensions.

Hypothesis 1: There will be significant differences in the mean values represented by the triaxial model between undergraduate and postgraduate students; they will be lower in relative personal importance among postgraduate students and higher for the undergraduate students.

Due to the hierarchical nature of personal values (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998), individuals may preserve or adjust distinct types of values in differing ways. There should be core values and peripheral values of individual that form a stratified value system. Rokeach's (1973) instrumental values are tools to accomplish terminal values. Schwartz & Bardi (2001) found that benevolence, self-direction, and universalism values are consistently important for teachers and students in 13 nations, suggesting that those three values are of "universal" importance to all people no matter which country they belong to. Other studies have differentiated values according to belief strength (Kraimer, 1997) and value content intensity (Jehn, Chadwick, & Thatcher, 1997). Guy (1991) proposed that there are some universal structures within personal value systems. Following Guy's logic, Charles (2003) also validated a universal dimension of values.

The underlying hypothesis in this study is that there are some core values that are harder to change than other values, these values are of core importance to individuals, and are probably shared among different types of individuals. By extending the triaxial model, we have proposed a fourth dimension which emerged from the factor analysis results and was labeled independence-innovation. We predict that the latter will have similar means between the undergrad and graduate students..

Hypothesis 2: The mean values of Independence-Innovation will be the same for undergraduate and postgraduate groups

Method, procedures, and sample

An online questionnaire inspired by the Dolan et al (2006) concept was designed and distributed to approximately 500 present and former undergraduate and postgraduate students of three affiliate universities in Spain and the United States. Semi Delphi procedures were used to select the variables and thus increase inter-judge reliability. The international composition of participating institutions resulted in a response set of ethnically and culturally diverse students. Of the 208 responses received, 191 possessed the desired academic qualifications to be included in the analysis. Students were classified according to their highest educational level achieved. The groups of 'some college' and 'college graduate' were combined in both instances of undergraduate and postgraduate. Additional properties of the groups can be found in Table 1.

Table 1: Sample Properties

Category	Subcategory	N	Mean Age	Std. Dev.	Min Age	Max Age
Undergraduate		108	23.93	3.813	19	48
	Some College	62	23.13	2.459	19	30
	College Graduate	46	25.00	4.931	20	48
Postgraduate		83	28.53	8.259	21	66
	Some Postgraduate	32	25.66	3.686	21	33
	Postgraduate	51	30.33	9.738	21	66

Table 2: Values Dimensions and psychometric properties

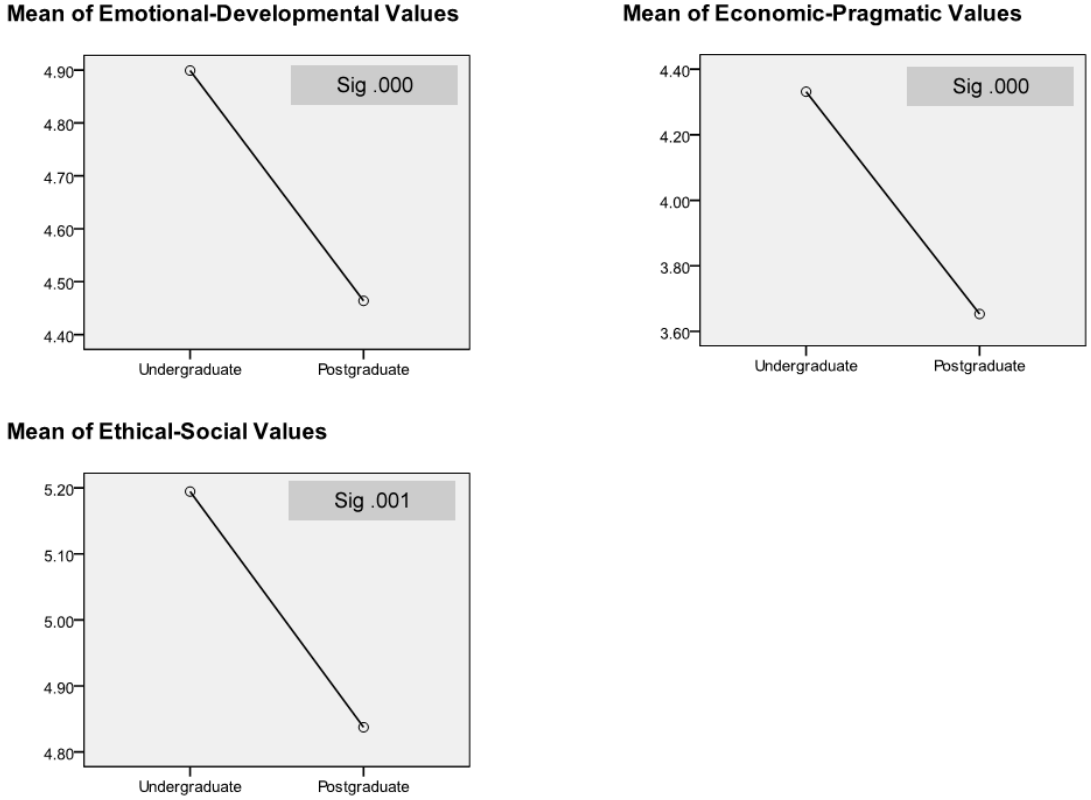
Emotional-Developmental	Economic-Pragmatic	Ethical-Social	Independence-Innovation
α = .869	*α =.693*	*α = .737*	*α =.782*
10 Items	*5 Items*	*4 Items*	*7 Items*
Empathy	Tradition	Loyalty	Optimism
Compassion	Spirituality	Integrity	Open Mindedness
Harmony	Austerity	Determination	Creativity
Friendliness	Consistency	Generosity	Innovativeness
Family Responsibility	Industriousness		Flexibility
Affection			Independence
Patience			Transparency
Calmness			
Tenderness			
Listening			
Triaxial Model			

Respondents were asked to indicate their relative personal level of importance for 60 values on a 6-point scale ranging from "Not Important at all to me" to "Extremely important to me". Principal components exploratory analysis was used to finally group the responses into four main dimensions (See Table 2). Three of these dimensions (Emotional-Developmental, Economic-Pragmatic, and Ethical-Social) aligned closely with the triaxial model proposed by Dolan et al., (2006). The fourth dimension (Independence-Innovation) was comprised of values associated with independence, creativity, and individualism.

Results

The results of an ANOVA comparison between undergraduate and postgraduate students (Figure 1) revealed statistically significant differences on the triaxial dimensions of Emotional-Developmental (sig .000), Economic-Pragmatic (sig .000), and Ethical-Social (sig .001) values, thus confirming hypothesis 1. Moreover, the postgraduate respondents rated the values of all three of these dimensions significantly lower than the undergraduate respondents confirming this hypothesis. The fourth dimension of Independence-Innovation remained virtually unchanged between groups albeit insignificant results (N.S .728) and thus no conclusions can be reached.

Figure 1: Results of Analysis of ANOVA among the triaxial values



Discussion and conclusion

Our research lent support to the Dolan et al (2006) triaxial model being an effective gauge for assessing changes in values within and between groups. The primary findings indicated a significant decline in the personal importance of the values represented by the triaxial model while the innovation-independence values dimension remained unchanged (albeit insignificantly). The overall decrease in triaxial values may reflect a number of conditions. It may represent an increase in realism or pessimism that accompanies either initial workforce

experience or the more realistic exposure to the workplace context presented within graduate programs. It could also reflect a direct or indirect impact from vocational expectations placed upon graduate students. As students are increasingly pressed with the importance of personal skills and aptitude, there may a perception that values are secondary to objectives.

Another explanation may be that those values found in the triaxial dimensions caused dissatisfaction in the master's program leading students to devalue them. This lends support to the impact of social learning on values. Master's and undergraduate programs are structurally and functionally different and may require different values instrumentation to be successful in the program. Maybe those values in the triaxial dimensions are not appropriate for master students to be successful in the master program, whereas the innovation-independence is very helpful to the master's students in the program. A more basic explanation may be that further education made the comparison between core values and peripheral values more obvious.

While this research focused on the relative importance of values, it would be useful in future studies to examine the issue by having students rank their most important values. When we examined the top 10 and bottom 5 values according to mean importance level between groups (Table 3), we found that the lists were very similar. Many of the top-rated values such as Happiness, Honesty, and Trust did not align themselves in the factor analysis and were consequently absent from our dimension scales. While the triaxial dimensions declined in perceived overall importance, the ranked importance of values remained largely unchanged. This must be explored further in future analysis.

Table 3: Comparison of the highest and least rated values between groups

	Undergraduate	Mean	Postgraduate	Mean
Top 10 Values	Happiness	5.58	Happiness	5.52
	Honesty	5.56	Trust	5.46
	Family Relationships	5.55	Honesty	5.42
	Trust	5.47	Open Mindedness	5.25
	Integrity	5.41	Integrity	5.18
	Respectfulness	5.39	Fairness	5.05
	Loyalty	5.34	Effective Communication	5.05
	Health & Wellbeing	5.23	Health & Wellbeing	5.04
	Open Mindedness	5.17	Independence	5.02
	Friendliness	5.16	Friendliness	5.01
Bottom 5 Values	Having Money	4.16	Industriousness	3.80
	Pragmatism	4.14	Protectiveness	3.80
	Austerity	3.99	Maintain Traditions	3.48
	Maintain Traditions	3.98	Spirituality	3.45
	Pride	3.89	Austerity	3.22

Limitations and recommendations for future research

Our research suffers from several limitations. Firstly, cross-sectional data diminishes the validity of examining changes in values. Future studies should employ longitudinal designs in order to capture value development and prioritization on the same individual. Secondly, although we made efforts to differentiate the impact of education and age on values, it was very difficult to do so using a non-random sample and small sample size. Thirdly, the appropriateness of using facets of the triaxial model to investigate students is still to be explored. Lastly, ipsative choice instead of normative score of value measurement should be applied in future research.

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Personality Traits Attributed to Estonian School Teachers[1]

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Abstract

The aim of the article is to find out what personality traits are attributed to Estonian school teachers by members of society compared with the teachers' own personal assessments and the characteristics of the entire Estonian population. Data was collected between 2003 and 2010 from 460 members of the general public and 467 teachers in 67 Estonian schools. The results showed that in general the public perceive teachers' personality traits similarly and in accordance with the teachers' self assessment, but there are also some differences in opinions on the basis of the year respondents graduated from school and the nationality of the respondents. These results can be used to improve communication between stakeholders and to prepare training programmes for teachers.

Introduction

In this article, the research object is the personality traits of general educational school teachers. Pupils, their parents, colleagues and school principals expect many characteristics in teachers such as emotional stability, stress tolerance, good interpersonal and conflict resolution skills, the ability to adapt well and consider the needs of others etc. The question here is to what extent are teachers' personality traits actually in accordance with these high expectations. The aim of the article is to find out what personality traits are attributed to Estonian school teachers by members of society compared with the teachers' own personal assessments and the characteristics of the entire Estonian population. This knowledge will make it possible to construe a picture of personality traits that may influence how the general public and school personnel in particular understand teachers' jobs.

The personality traits are characterized using the Five Factor Model of personality, distinguishing five domains: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experiences (Costa, McCrae, 1992). Data about teachers' own assessment of their personality traits were collected from 467 respondents in 67 schools. The standard sample representing the Estonian population includes 1050 individuals over 20 years old. The perception of teachers' personality traits in the general public was collected from a sample consisting of 460 individuals, and different socio demographic groups according to gender, school graduation year and nationality were questioned.

The results of the study give us valuable information about how Estonian teachers are perceived by members of society, how they perceive themselves and how these perceptions compare with personality traits in the entire Estonian population. The results can be considered as useful when organizing school life, communicating to stakeholders, preparing new teachers and developing training initiatives for teachers.

Theoretical background

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School teachers are universally known as an occupational class, and every adult member of society has personally experienced teachers in their studies in school, or also through the studies conducted by and impressions about teachers among their children, other family members or acquaintances. In order to process such a wide range of complex and disparate stimuli, people tend to make generalizations about such groups of people (in this case teachers), where a defined set of characteristics are attributed. This saves time and effort because treating people belonging to one occupational group as a whole, means diverse and detailed information that is associated with each individual can be ignored. In this article the personality characteristics attributed to one occupational group – teachers – will be analysed.

How crucial role teachers' personality plays in the effectiveness of their work was already actively researched as much as 50 years ago (e.g. Barr, 1960; Peck, 1959 etc.). The idea that a teacher's personality is of paramount importance for the total social and emotional growth and adjustment of his or her pupils was also discussed (Del Popolo, 1965). Considering the importance of personality traits among teachers, society members have high expectations of teachers. For example, they should be calm, stable, positive, warm, sociable, orderly, disciplined etc. Therefore, it is important to know the extent to which teachers' personality traits are in accordance with these requirements.

Previous research shows that some personality traits are more suitable for certain occupations (Dakin 1994; Brody, Ehrlichman 1998) and this is true also for teachers (Talbott, 2005; Beishuizen et al 2001). What is more, individuals with some personality characteristics are more attracted to certain occupations (Rubinstein, Strul, 2007; Tokar et al 1998). This kind of predisposition is also noticed by teachers (Harris et al 2006). Consequently, according to their personalities, individuals first find an occupation that they consider suited to them; secondly, their personality may influence whether they are selected to the position they desire; finally, their personality may influence their behaviour and their work effectiveness (Spector, O'Connell, 1994). In the end, individuals who do not fit in a certain job or organisation leave under their own volition or they are fired (Schneider, 1987).

This indicates that teachers as an occupational group may possess personality traits that are suitable for teaching pupils compared to the average members of society. The intention is firstly to find out how Estonian teachers perceive their own personality and whether their personality traits are different compared to the Estonian standard sample, which represents the average member of society. Secondly, it will be analysed how members of society perceive Estonian teachers' personality traits and whether there are any differences compared to teachers' own self-assessment.

Sample

Three datasets are used in the analysis. The first is about the perception of teachers' personality traits among the general public, and was collected from a sample consisting of 460 individuals between 2003 and 2010. Sixty four percent of the participants were female, 33 percent male and 3 percent did not indicate their gender. The average age of the participants was 24.1 years (Standard Deviation henceforth SD = 6.8). Most of the participants were Estonians (90 percent), seven percent were Russians[1] and three percent did

[1] In 2000, Estonians formed about 68% of its population, whereas 25-26% of the populations belonged to the Russian-speaking minority.

not indicate their nationality. About fourteen percent of the participants graduated from secondary school in 1991 or earlier, seven percent graduated between 1992 and 1995, twelve percent graduated between 1996 and 1999 and 67 percent 2000 or later.

The second dataset is about teachers' personal assessments of their personality traits and was collected from 467 respondents in 67 schools in 2003. To create a more homogeneous sample, elite schools and schools in the capital of Estonia, Tallinn, were not included. About nine percent of teachers were male and 91 percent female. The average age of the participants was 44.2 years (SD = 11.7). Most of the participants were Estonians (99 percent) and one percent were Russians. Forty-eight percent of the teachers were working in secondary schools, 30 percent in basic education schools, 5 percent in primary schools and 17 in schools for children with special needs. Teachers from schools of various sizes and locations were represented in the sample. Finally, the standard sample representing the Estonian population in 2003 included 1050 individuals over 20 years old. About 69 percent of them were female and 31 percent male. The average age of the standard sample members was 33.5 (SD = 13.8).

Method

The Five Factor Model of personality was selected to measure the teachers' own personal assessment of their personality traits (Costa, McCrae, 1992). The questionnaire consists of 81 questions and the answers can be given on a 5-point scale (i.e. from 0 – "completely disagree" to 4 – "completely agree"). The factors comprising the Five Factor Model are: 1) neuroticism which represents anxiety, angry hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness and vulnerability; 2) extraversion representing warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity, excitement-seeking and positive emotions; 3) openness to experiences characterized by openness to fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas and values; 4) agreeableness which can be described by trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty and tender-mindedness; 5) conscientiousness meaning competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline and deliberation.

In order to compare how much the results resemble the standard sample used in Estonia, the results are presented as T-scores of the standard sample, which are calculated on the basis of the raw test score, its standard deviation and the average standard sample. The T-scores provide results on a scale where 50 corresponds to the average in the standard sample. The results are considered to be below the average when the T-score is less than 45 points and above the average when the T-score is higher than 55 points. The scores for men and women are calculated separately. In terms of reliability, the Big Five scales were as follows: neuroticism 0.86, extraversion 0.84, openness to experiences 0.81, agreeableness 0.69 and conscientiousness 0.83. Thus, the reliability of the Big Five model scales in this sample is acceptable. The KMO test statistic is 0.86 which shows that the factor solution is stable.

For finding out how the general public perceive the personality traits of teachers the students at the University of Tartu were questioned. The students were taking the Basic Management and Organisational Behaviour courses and almost all the faculties of the university were represented, for example, economics, mathematics, physics, law, philosophy, psychology, sociology etc. Sixty eight percent were full time students and 32 percent were studying through the Open University. All the students were familiar with the Five Factor model of personality for three reasons: firstly, they had to become acquainted with written material about Five Factor model of personality; secondly, at the beginning of the seminar the instructor gave a short oral overview of the method; and thirdly, all the students taking part in

the seminar had to resolve a case scenario in which they should understand the content of the model. After having completed these three steps, all students were asked to give their opinion about which personality traits characterize teachers in general. For all five traits – neuroticism extraversion, openness to experiences, agreeableness and conscientiousness – they expressed their opinion on a three point scale 1- not characteristic, 2- on average characteristic, 3- very characteristic.

Results

Firstly, it was analysed how Estonian teachers perceive themselves and how these perceptions compare to personality traits in the Estonian population as a whole. The T-scores based on the sample of teachers are presented in table 1. We can see that the Estonian female teachers analysed are slightly more agreeable and conscientious and less neurotic compared to female members of the standard sample. However, the result is not significantly different because the T-scores are not less than 45 or higher than 55. However, the results for men indicate that Estonian male teachers are significantly more agreeable and conscientious (T-scores higher than 55) and less neurotic (T-score less than 45) compared to the average Estonian man.

Table 1. T-scores for personality traits in Estonian teachers

Personality traits	Female	Male
extroversion	48.56	48.15
agreeableness	53.47	56.14*
conscientiousness	52.91	55.74*
neuroticism	46.66	43.97*
openness to experiences	48.00	54.18

Notes: * T-scores are statistically significantly different from Estonian standard sample
Source: author's calculations

Secondly, it was discovered how members of society perceive the personality traits of teachers. The results are presented in table 2. We can see that in general Estonian teachers are seen as above average on the extrovert, agreeable and conscientious scales. More than half of the respondents think that extroversion is on average characteristic for teachers. Also, more than half of the respondents think that agreeableness and conscientiousness are very characteristic for teachers. Therefore, very few respondents think that extroversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness are not characteristic for teachers. The standard deviation is the lowest for these three traits meaning that there was most consensus in these matters in terms of the respondents opinions. These results are in accordance with Estonian male teachers' perception of themselves. As we saw in table 1, Estonian male teachers are rather more agreeable and conscientious compared to the Estonian standard sample, and are on average extroverted. The results for Estonian female teachers show the same tendency, but the results are not significantly different from the standard sample.

Table 2. The perception of the personality traits of teachers by members of society

Personality traits	Mean	SD	Not characteristic (%)	On average characteristic (%)	Very characteristic (%)
extroversion	2.34	0.60	7	53	40
agreeableness	2.59	0.56	4	34	62
conscientiousness	2.48	0.56	3	46	51
neuroticism	1.52	0.67	57	33	10
openness to experiences	1.85	0.75	36	42	22

Notes: SD-standard deviation, scale 1-3, 1- not characteristic, 2- on average characteristic, 3 – very characteristic
Source: author's calculations

Members of society in general perceive teachers as being below average neurotic. More than half of the respondents think that neuroticism is not characteristic of Estonian teachers. This result is in accordance with the perception Estonian male teachers have about themselves because their neuroticism score is lower than the males in the standard sample. The results for women again show the same tendency, but the differences from the standard sample are not statistically significant.

The results for openness to experiences are quite contradictory. Thirty six percent of the respondents think that openness to experiences in not characteristic of Estonian teachers, 42 percent think that openness to experiences is on average characteristic and 22 percent are of the opinion that openness to experiences is very characteristic of Estonian teachers. There was the highest standard deviation for openness to experiences, and so we can conclude about this trait that there is no clear prevailing opinion about Estonian teachers' personality.

Thirdly, it was analysed whether there are any differences between the perceptions of teachers' personality traits among society members on the basis of socio-demographic variables such as gender, year the person graduated school and nationality. The Analysis of Variances (ANOVA) results show that male and female members of society perceive personality traits in teachers similarly (see table 3).

Table 3. Perception of personality traits in teachers according to gender of society members

Personality traits	Female		Male		F- stat	P value
	mean	SD	mean	SD		
extroversion	2.33	0.59	2.36	0.58	0.22	0.64
agreeableness	2.56	0.57	2.63	0.53	1.52	0.22
conscientiousness	2.50	0.55	2.45	0.57	0.81	0.37
neuroticism	1.55	0.67	1.49	0.65	0.79	0.37
openness to experiences	1.81	0.73	1.95	0.78	1.53	0.21

Notes: SD-standard deviation, scale 1-3, 1- not characteristic, 2- on average characteristic, 3 – very characteristic
Source: author's calculations

However, the results indicate that there are some differences among society members' perceptions of teachers' levels of neuroticism according to the year they graduated from secondary school (see table 4). More precise analysis between the groups using an LSD test showed that those who graduated in 1991 and earlier and in 1992–1995 see teachers as statistically significantly more neurotic than those who graduated in 1996–1999 and 2000 and after. There are no statistically significant differences for the other four personality traits according to the year of graduation.

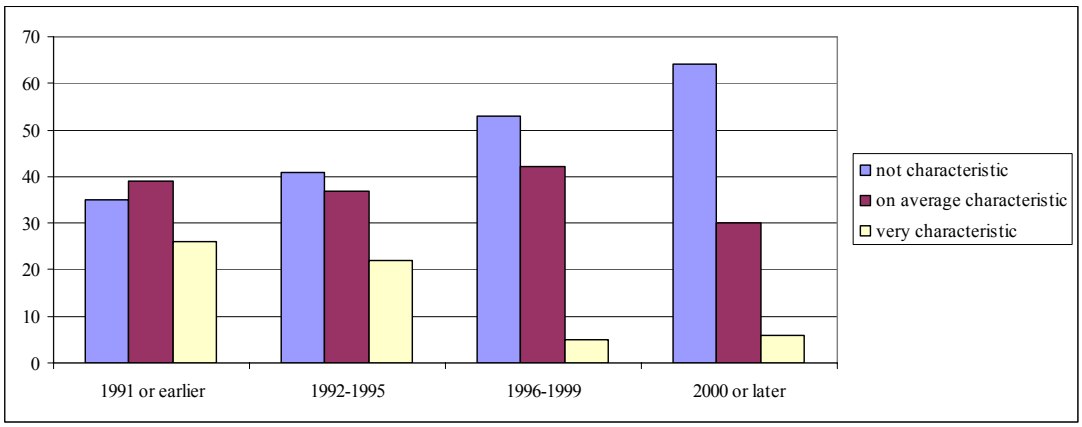
Table 4. Perception of personality traits in teachers according to the year society members graduated from secondary school

Personality traits	1991 and earlier		1992-1995		1996-1999		2000 and after		F- stat	p value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD		
extroversion	2.30	0.62	2.26	0.63	2.23	0.62	2.34	0.59	1.28	0.28
agreeableness	2.56	0.53	2.41	0.61	2.50	0.67	2.63	0.54	2.28	0.78
conscientiousness	2.59	0.53	2.50	0.51	2.53	0.64	2.45	0.55	0.99	0.30
neuroticism	1.91	0.79	1.81	0.78	1.51	0.59	1.42	0.60	11.88	0.00*
openness to experiences	1.81	0.74	1.81	0.78	1.88	0.74	1.88	0.75	0.10	0.90

Notes: SD-standard deviation, scale 1-3, 1- not characteristic, 2- on average characteristic, 3 – very characteristic
Source: author's calculations

From among those society members who graduated from secondary school in 1991 and earlier, 26 percent think that neuroticism is very characteristic of teachers (see figure 1). Consequently, about a quarter of the older respondents perceive teachers as rather neurotic. Similarly, 22 percent of the respondents who graduated from school in 1992–1995 are of the opinion that neuroticism is very characteristic of teachers. Therefore, more than one fifth of these respondents perceive teachers as rather neurotic. However, only very few of those who graduated from school in 1996–1999 and 2000 and after see neuroticism as very characteristic of teachers (percentages respectively 5 and 6). Therefore, recent graduates do not perceive teachers as very neurotic.

Figure 1. Perception of teachers' level of neuroticism according to the year society members graduated from secondary school (%)



According to the nationality of the respondents, there are differences among Estonian and Russian members of society about the perception of teachers' level of agreeableness (see table 5). We can see that Russians perceive teachers as more agreeable than Estonians. There are no statistically significant differences for the other four personality traits according to the nationality of the respondents.

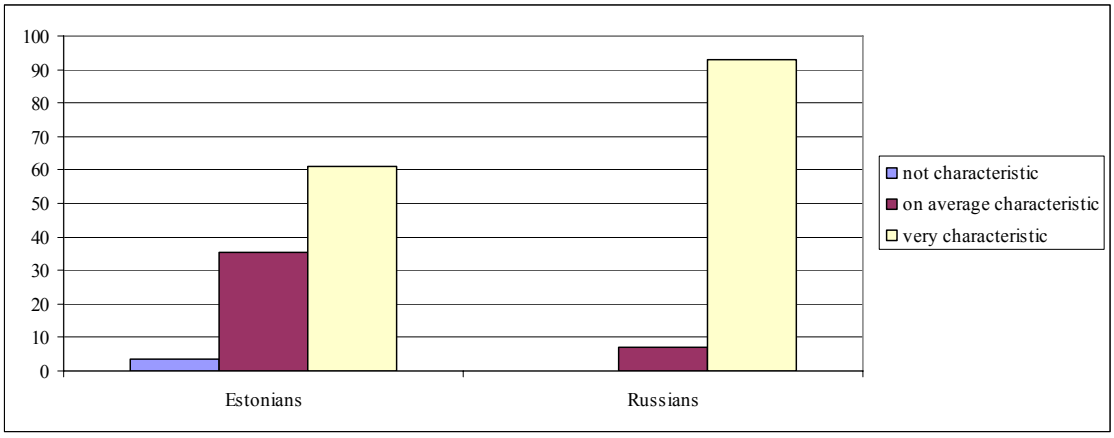
Table 5. Perception of teachers' personality traits according to the nationality of society members

Personality	Estonian		Russian		F- stat	p value
	mean	SD	mean	SD		
extroversion	2.33	0.59	2.50	0.58	1.94	0.16
agreeableness	2.57	0.56	2.93	0.26	10.87	0.00*
conscientiousness	2.48	0.56	2.43	0.57	0.26	0.61
neuroticism	1.53	0.67	1.48	0.58	0.11	0.74
openness to experiences	1.85	0.74	1.96	0.88	0.60	0.44

Notes: SD-standard deviation, scale 1-3, 1- not characteristic, 2- on average characteristic, 3 – very characteristic
Source: author's calculations

More than ninety percent of the Russian members of society perceive teachers as very agreeable (see figure 2). None of the Russian respondents thought that agreeableness is not characteristic of teachers. From among the Estonian respondents, about sixty percent perceived teachers as very agreeable.

Figure 2. Perception of teachers' level of agreeableness according to the nationality of the society members (%)



To sum up, we can say that teachers are perceived quite similarly by society members and teachers themselves. Teachers are and are seen as being rather agreeable, conscientious but not neurotic. However, those who graduated from school before 1996 see teachers as more neurotic than those who graduated from school in 1996 and more recently. Russian respondents perceived teachers as more agreeable than their Estonian counterparts.

Discussion

Teachers' personality traits were analyzed from three perspectives: the teachers' own perceptions of their traits, those of a random selection of the local population and finally those of members of society in general. Comparing results of these three groups provides an interesting picture and the main conclusions are summarized in the following section.

Firstly, comparing the teachers' own assessment of their personality traits with those of the Estonian population revealed some differences in male teachers. We can say that on the one hand, male teachers show more compliance, straightforwardness, trust, modesty etc. (characterizing agreeableness) and also the tendency to be more orderly, dutiful, self-disciplined, deliberate etc. (characterizing conscientiousness) compared to the average Estonian man. On the other hand, Estonian male teachers are less neurotic, meaning that they are less anxious, vulnerable, depressed etc. compared to the average Estonian man. These are all qualities that are favourable for working in schools. In Estonia, only about 13 percent of teachers are men (Homepage of…), and therefore, men who have chosen to become a teacher have certain favourable personality traits for schoolwork. Estonian female teachers are also slightly more agreeable, conscientious and less neurotic compared to the Estonian female population, but the difference was not statistically significant.

Secondly, the results showed that members of society in general perceive Estonian teachers as above average agreeable and conscientious and below average neurotic, which is in accordance with the teachers' own assessment. However, a closer examination on the basis of socio-demographic variables highlights some different opinions. Namely, those respondents who graduated from secondary school in 1991 or earlier and in 1992-1995 see teachers as more neurotic than those who graduated from school in 1996 or more recently. Those who were in school entirely or predominantly in the Soviet era see teachers as more impulsive, vulnerable, depressed etc. compared to society members who were at secondary school in the period of Estonian independence[1]. The fact that about a quarter of those who graduated earlier see teachers as highly neurotic is an interesting phenomenon that needs further and deeper analysis; for example, via in-depth interviews. In author's opinion, the reasons for this may be related to how teachers communicate with pupils and discipline pupils. These skills in teachers may have been improved over time because more attention is given to these matters in their training and every day work compared to during the Soviet era.

There were differences in the perceptions of agreeableness in teachers on the basis of the nationality of the respondents. Russians see teachers as being considerably more trusting, straightforward, compliant, modest and tender-minded compared to the way Estonians see teachers. Although, all respondents live in Estonia and study in University of Tartu in the Estonian language, presumably these two groups are a little different according to their cultural/ethnic background (e.g. values, traditions etc.). Previous research shows that Russians believe about themselves that they are friendly, obedient, untroubled and patient (Stephan et al., 1993). These traits are characteristic of an agreeable individual. Therefore, we can say that Russian teachers are or are believed to be more agreeable than Estonian teachers.

[1] Estonia regained its independence in year 1991.

Implications

- Personality traits should be considered when designing new teacher preparation programmes and training programmes for teachers. More agreeable and conscientious and less neurotic individuals tend to be more suitable for the teaching profession. Teachers can exhibit an average level of extroversion.
- By the communication of different school stakeholders, it should be noted that society members of different ages may perceive neuroticism levels in teachers differently. Arising from this, for example, parents and pupils may have different expectations and perceptions of teachers.
- By the communication of different nationalities, it should be noted that Russians perceive the level agreeableness in teachers as being much higher compared to how Estonians perceive the level of agreeableness.

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Roles Perceptions and Job Stress among Special Education School Principals: Do They Differ from Principals of Regular Schools?

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Abstract

The objective of the present study was to compare principals perceptions of their leadership roles in regular(Dovno,1999) versus special education(Zaretzky et al, 2005), and how these perceptions affect feelings of job stress(Friedman, 2001; Margalit, 1999). We predicted that regular school principals would differ in their perceived roles and job stress from their counterparts. Using data obtained from samples of (n=104) principals in regular education and principals in special education(n=60). Hypotheses were examined and supported partially. Implications for school principals training will be discussed further.

Introduction

Special education presents one of the key challenges facing educational leaders in contemporary contexts characterized by diversity and comprehensive school reform.

As it is known from the literature these challenges transcend international boundaries; in this case spanning the border of Israel. As expectations increase for more rigorous and demanding academic standards of achievement for all students, the progress of all must be accounted for. To this end the school leader's role has become increasingly important in developing implementing and sustaining inclusive and equitable educational opportunities for students with special needs. Furthermore principals need to be able to address the instructional needs of all students while leading in increasingly diverse yet ostensibly inclusive contexts(Zaretzky, 2004, Fullan, 2003).

These complicated roles expected from the school principals lead a part of them to quit the job(Billingsley &Cross, 1991).

For that reasons the aim of this study was to better understand the role of the principal in the administration of education programs from a comparative perspectives (regular versus special education)and to look for the factors attached to feelings of job stress in both categories. We argue that such an understanding can assist in the development of professional preparation programs and subsequent professional development activities that have as their focus an approach to instruction and instructional leadership within an accountability context that may better serve the needs of students.

School principals' roles perception

While most of the studies related to principals in regular education are mostly descriptive in nature (Rozenblatt and Somech, 1998; Dovno, 1999) studies related to principals at special

education schools are normative in nature - how the school principal has to do: such as building effective relationships and collaborative work teams in their schools, instructional leadership and having a language of caring, vision, courage, and collaboration that counter-balanced most principals focus on achievement and standards embedded in their understanding of their roles; (Quigney, 1996; Friedman, 2001) only very few studies are descriptive and asking the principals how they perceive their roles. The results of those studies reveal the following: In a study conducted by Newman(1990) among 59 principals of special education schools in the United States, the participants ranked their perceived roles as the following: curriculum planning, networking and communication with the various professional school members, coordinating with the school community inside and outside and finally mentoring teachers work. Arick and Krug(1993) conducted a study among 1468 principals of special education schools in United States and the participants ranked perceived roles as the following: instructional leadership, developing information systems at schools, evaluating school programs, communicating among school teams. Alper and Schloss(1996) found that the most important role mentioned by school principals was a strong collaboration with parents. A study done by Ronen(2003) among Israeli school principals revealed that The most important roles mentioned : instructional leadership, strong collaboration with parents, coordinating among professional staff members(school counselor, the school psychologist, the school nurse, the school doctor and other specialists).Richmond(2004) found that all principals articulated attitudes that were consistent with the philosophy of relational leadership. They were genuinely interested in what others had to say and they made time to listen. Zaretsky, Faircloth and Moreau(2005) found the special education school principals perceived their roles as the following: the development of sound instructional and assessment practices linked to measurable goals, participating in placement and review committees legislative processes, accessing and equitably distributing a scarcity of resources, nurturing relationships and networks within and beyond their schools and the development effective mediation and negotiation strategies for interaction with parents advocates. When we compare that results to what's known from research about role perceptions of principals of regular schools, we found an important difference, the principal of regular schools attach more important to their administrative and public relation duties (budgeting, fund raising, marketing, controlling, coordinating) while special education principals attach more importance to their pedagogical roles.(Ben-Arieh, 1998; Friedman, 2001).

Perceived principals roles and job stress.

School principals job stress factors in regular education was investigated extensively. The main results emphasized the following factors: principal work loading, accountability, standards, responding to parents expectations for student achievements, role ambiguity, budget cuts and teachers low motivation(Gaziel, 1993; Friedman, 1997; Whitaker, 1999; Titleboim, Zweig and Schor, 2003) while the few studies done among principals in special education revealed that special education school principals are experiencing some different factors of job stress which affect their day to day work. The most factors found in the literature were the following: **work overloading**(Dobbs, 1998).. The school principal has to fulfill tasks which his/her parallel in the regular school is free of that charge: admission, selection and placement of students. Following each student work and behavior, being in a steady communication with professional which around each student; social worker, psychologist, teachers, nurse, parents, and local education supervisors, controlling, and coordinating..

The heterogeneity of the student population, different age groups from 4 to 21 and various disabilities (Vivinetto, 1990; Fuchs &Fuchs, 1995; Riffel, 1997). The school principal is expected according to the 1988 special education act to build a particular educational program to each student according to the student needs whether the principal has to do with blind or deaf students or with students with personality disturbance and to help teacher to develop pedagogical materials for that purpose.

A working long day. While the principal in a regular school is expected to remain at school until 3p.m the principal at a special education school is expected to stay at school until 6 p.m(Antoniou, Polychroni and Walters(2000).. The principal besides his duties at school had other personal duties and play other roles which generate conflict among his/her roles and a stressful situation. **Different expectations** from the educational staff from one side and the Para-medical staff from the other side. Both groups have different training and role perceptions and the principals has to maneuver among them.

Parents expectations and demands(Alper&Schloss, 1996; Margalit, 1999). Parents are expected to be involved in the education for their children particularly if the school as to do with students with special education needs. The problem is that the border between involvement ad interference is thin and that's create a perceived stressful situation. Margalit(1999) even argued that parents expect the principal and the teachers to cure the whole discipline problems of their children.

Following the related research the following hypotheses are formulated:

H1. It is expected that special education principals would perceive their main roles as instructional leaders communicators and coordinators with schools agencies while principals of regular schools would perceive their administrative roles as the most important .

H2 It is expected that principals of special education schools would emphasize heterogeneity of students population, work overloading, and parents interference, as the main job stressors while principals of regular schools would emphasize the following job stress :budget cuts, accountability, expectations for students achievement and then teachers apathy.

Because of the paucity of studies testing the differential effect of the demographic variables upon principals feeling of job stress we formulated the following research questions: (a) Are there differences among school principals of both categories in their stress level according to their differential ages and their job seniority, by asking the subjects how much stress they feel in doing their job using a Likert type scale. (b) How much roles' perceptions affect principals job stress levels in regular and in special education schools?

Method

Sample

The sample chosen randomly from Tel-Aviv education district and included 152 principals of regular primary schools, 104 answered(68%) while the principals of special school education included the whole Israeli population which is 85 principals 60 answered(70%), which is a quite great percentage of response in the Israeli educational context. The average age of the whole sample is 47 with a standard deviation of 7.33. The mean job seniority 13 years. As

regarding education 62% have post graduate degree while 38% have an undergraduate degree.

Instruments

The subjects were asked to complete two questionnaires: The principal's role perception constructed particularly for the present study after that 15 regular school principals and 10 special education school principals who been asked in an interview done by the investigators, what does it mean to provide leadership in education how this leadership demonstrated in the day to day management of education programs services, and personnel . The subjects of both categories*regular schools and special education schools were also asked to describe how they perceive their roles as school principals. A subsequent cross-case allowed for the identification of common circumstances shared by the participants as well as ones that remained unique to individual principals. The categories stemmed from the review analysis served for the building of the perceived roles inventory for school principals . A test retest reliability run among 30 in service training principals of both school categories at Bar Ilan university revealed a mean r of .76 for the regular schools . Then, the principals had to note their perception regarding the following activities: "I perceive my role to include the following , and then a list of twenty activities presented to the subjects had to note their extend of agreement on a Likert type scale (1- completely disagree, to 6 completely agree).

The questionnaire yielded the following factors: (Items factor loading 0.40 and up).

Teaching planning and implementation (47% 0f the variance explained)and its included items such as the following: teacher in-service training, organization of the pedagogic council, supervision of curricula, introducing new teaching methods, homework educational activities, initiating and planning of new curricula.

General management (24% of the variance explained)(Items included such as the following: school maintenance, school aesthetics, teaching organization, organization of extra-curricular activities, budgeting, exhibitions and displays)

Human relations (15% of the variance explained)(Items such as the following: solving teachers' personal problems, solving students' particular problems, interpersonal relations in teamwork, interpersonal relations with the local education authority officer, interpersonal relations with the school inspector and the Ministry of education officers, relationship with parents delegates etc..

Extra- educational activities (7% of the variance)(it included items such as the following: activating the student council, activating pupil committees, activating extra-curricular circles, activating special educational events, selection of textbooks, , planning teaching aids.

The second questionnaire was adopted from Friedman 1995. The Perceived stress in school principalship job included 33 statements regarding the factors putting stress on principals in fulfilling their job. The subjects had to answer on a Likert-type scale(1= completely disagree and 6= completely agree). The Alpha Cronbach reliability test yielded a mean r=.84.

A factor analysis run upon the data with varimax rotation yield the following factors:

Budget constraints(items 15,21,23,24,25) Alpha.76. Explained variance= 9.34%.

Parents expectations (items 9,10,12,26) Alpha = .76. Explained variance= 8.80%.

Work overload(items: 6, 17,18,19,20) Alpha= .65. Explained variance=8.17%

Problems with teachers(items 8,11,27,29,28,29,30) Alpha=.74. Explained variance= 7.53%

Feeling of less support and loss of authority(1,2,7,16,32,33). Alpha=58 Explained variance= 5.85%. Total variance explained= 39.69%.

Results

Table 1 shows that the significant differences regarding role perceptions between regular school principals and special education school principals is in the following variables; general management(M=2. 97, Sd= 0.85 versus M= 2.60, Sd= 1.00, t=2.98, p<..01. Human relations(M=3.24, 1.11; versus M=3.56, Sd= .93, 3.09, p< .01.

Extra-educational activities(M= 3.62, Sd=1.27 versus, M=3.08, Sd=1.21; t= 3.06,; p<.01) No significant differences was found between both groups in the teaching planning and implementation variable(t=0.25; p=n.s

Table 2 shows that the significant differences between regular school principals and special education school principals in their perceptions of work stressors as the following: budgets constraints(M= 2.95, Sd= 0.69 versus M= 2.64, Sd=0.66, t= 2.86, p<=0.01. Parents expectations from school(M= 2.48, Sd=0.64; versus M=2.17, Sd=0.60, t= 3.075, p<0.01 , difficulties in teachers management(M=2.49, Sd=0.63; M=2.22, Sd= 0.51; t=2.81, p<0.01. No significant differences been found between the two principal groups in work overloading (M=3.75, Sd=0.59; M=3.64, Sd=0.82; t= .988; p=n.s)or feeling of loss of authority (M= 2.84, Sd=0.60; M=2.70, Sd= 0.52; t=1.647; p=n.s)

Table3 indicates that the most stressful school principals in both groups according to age is 30 to 44 age group(M= 2.45, Sd=0.52) , while the age group 45-51(M=2.40; Sd=0.56) and in the age group 52-64(M= 2.20, Sd=0.37)and the analysis of variance shows a significant difference among groups; F(2,150) = 3.784, p<.05. The same picture we receive when comparing the groups according to job seniority- the most stressful group is the new principals who are from 1 to 6 years at the job (M=2.58, Sd= 0.54), while the job seniority group from 7-11 (M=2.28, Sd=0.54) and the job group up to 12 years at the job(=2.24; Sd=0.56); F(2,150)= 4.624, p<.01.

Table 4 indicates that in the regular schools the factors most explaining work stress levels among school principals are the following: general management 35.2% and then teaching planning and implementation explaining 25.9% of the variance and then human relations at school 12.7% of the variance the other perceived roles doest have any significant effect upon work stress level.

Table 5 shows that in the special education schools the factors most explaining work stress levels among school principals are the following: educational planning and implementations explaining 27.6% of he variance and then extra educational activities explaining 13.5% of the variance ,human relations at school explaining 10.1% of the variance. The other perceived roles have no significant effect upon work stress levels.

Discussion

The present study was designed in order to investigate whether (a) principals of regular schools differ from the special education schools in their roles perceptions(b) whether principal of regular schools differ from their counterparts of special education schools their

perceptions of work stress(c)which role factors explain the work stress levels of both principals categories.

Previous studies indicated that principals at the special education schools attach more important to their instructional roles such as monitoring teachers work and human relations roles such as communication with staff, students and parents, while the present study shows that the main difference between groups is the administrative roles(general management)which is considered as more important roles by regular school principals and less important by special education school principals. The principals of special education schools attach more importance to their human relations roles such as having intensive relationships with teachers students and parents. The school principals have to do with a population which needs more care and treatment. In that population there are several categories; those students with intellectual disability and those students with a emotional and behavioral disability.

No significant differences was found between groups as regarding educational planning and implementing. Both groups perceive that role as important. As regarding the extra-educational activities, the significant difference is not surprising because of activating student councils, or committees is much easier to do it in a regular school than in special school. The results indicate that the first hypothesis was approved only partially. According to the second hypothesis it is expected that principals of special education differ from their counterparts in perceiving the factors of their work stress. Previous studies found that both principals categories have approximately the same work stress factors. However, previous study indicated that special education school principals reported that conflict among them and the para-medical staff and parents interference are the main factors in their feeling of work stress. Besides that the heterogeneity of the student population such putting student of different ages or different problems at the same school is putting a great work stress upon principals. Principals of regular schools are more stressed by work overloading, accountability, and parents expectations that school has to cure students violence. The present study shows that the main differences between groups in their perception of work stress are the budget constraints parents expectation from schools, and feeling of loss of authority. In all these factors the regular school principals reported being more stressed than their counterparts , while in work loading no significant difference was found. Both groups reported that work overload is the most stressful factor. Finally we may say that the second hypothesis was corroborated only partially.

As regarding the first research question it was found that the younger principal and those with less experience in the principalship reported having more job stress, which is logically clear.

As regarding the second research question results indicated the most explaining work stress in the regular school principals are mainly the administrative duties and the pedagogical duties. School principals are less job stressed by interpersonal problems, or conflicts. The situation is different in the special education schools were school job stress levels are mostly explained by the teaching and planning and implementations by the extra educational activities and finally by the human relation aspects of the job.

These differences could be explained by the fact that the special education school principals have to do with a special and vulnerable population, where Para- medical staff and other professional groups are involved at schools. Every educational activity had to be coordinated with the school regular staff, with the professional staff such as the psychologist and the social worker and with the Para-medical staff. School principals are less bothered by administrative work. Special education schools are small. Everybody take care of it and they have less budget problems. They could be defined as typical domesticated organizations. This

is the case with the regular schools who usually are big schools, complicated with a lot of day to day management problems. Principals have to fight for having regular budgets to respond to parents for students' achievements, to be accountable to the Ministry of Education officers and this besides their duties in running the curriculum and monitoring schools staff.

Conclusions

The present study indicates that principals of special education have to accomplish different roles that their counterparts in regular schools; they experience different job stressors and for that reasons they need different professional development programs..

Findings from this study emphasize the importance of training school principals in ways that fits their perceived roles. Special educational leaders had to be prepared mostly in instructional and human relations domains namely to have to monitor teachers work, to enhance learning for an increasingly diverse student body with a wide range of needs and also to guide teachers and additional school personnel towards school aims

A great part of their preparation has to do with human relation skills, which is mostly needed in fulfilling their job. They need professional knowledge skills to interact among a variety of specialists(Lashley&Boscardin, 2003). While principals who are required to administer regular education programs are also responsible for a broad range of duties but they are more stressed and concerned with their administrative duties. They need skills in budgeting, planning, organizing, staffing, fund raising and marketing.

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Altruism and Narcissism: Latent School Organizational Values

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Abstract

Altruism and narcissism are usually perceived as personality characteristics. It is suggested in this study that altruism and narcissism can be viewed as latent organizational values. The study tested for a hypothesis that novice teachers' classroom organizational values may be conceptualized as a two-pole axis comprising altruistic and narcissistic values, where self-serving altruism is positioned between the two poles. A questionnaire was administered to 156 national teacher training college students in Israel. The study provided evidence that teachers' perceived organizational values represent genuine altruism, (healthy) narcissism, paternalistic altruism and benevolent narcissism.

Introduction

Altruism is broadly defined as a motive to increase another's welfare without conscious regard for one's self-interests. It is selfishness in reverse. An altruistic person is concerned and helpful even when no benefits are offered or expected in return (Meyers, 2005). Narcissism is broadly defined as an investment or concentration of energy or of interest in oneself. In everyday life we happen to meet people who present themselves in a superiority position, often accompanied by a measure of arrogance. They relate to themselves in an exaggerated manner, randomly roaming in imaginary worlds of divine power, unlimited wealth, stunning intelligence and unprecedented fame. They are stars in their own right, and we are expected to watch them admiringly. Such people's self-interest orientation is usually characterized by diminished or indifferent interest in others (Silverstein, 2007). Narcissism is perceived in the eyes of the general public opinion as a pathological phenomenon, but it is commonly accepted within the professional community of psychologists and psychoanalysts, that moderate levels of narcissism can be considered as "required", or as a "healthy" phenomenon (Kohut, 1971, 1977). Healthy narcissism can be most helpful for people occupying leadership positions, or in occupations associated with the need for social involvement, and high status (Hill & Yousey, 1999). Healthy narcissism goads people to opt for social responsibilities, and to assume leadership roles, hence guiding and directing other people. Healthy narcissism suits social vocations incumbents well, since it equips them with power and allows for superiority over those who are in need of their services (Holland, 1985).

This study focuses on novice teachers' classroom expectations, in particular on their perceived values in teacher-student interpersonal relations. The underlying assumption of the study is that teachers relate to their students as selfobjects. Selfobjects are defined as those persons or objects that are experienced as part of the self or are used in the service of the self to provide a function of the self (Kohut, 1971, p. xiv). Students as selfobjects serve their teachers for approval, recognition, appreciation, satisfaction, admiration, and personal welfare. The students also serve as objectives for bestowing attention, friendship, and caring by their teachers. The theoretical rationale for this assumption is Heinz Kohut's perception of

the self, the selfobject, and the bi-polar self. Kohut (1977) asserted that the mature, healthy self comprises two opposing poles: (1). the narcissistic pole, which harbors the ambitions clustering around the grandiose self, and (2). The altruistic pole, which constitutes the ideals clustering around the idealized image. The tension and psychological energy between these two poles promote action, with the person being driven by the ambitions and led by the ideals (kohut, 1977, p. 180). The purpose of this study is to provide empirical evidence to support the hypothesis that teachers' expectations of classroom instruction and management experiences are in fact a manifestation of altruistic (providing devoted instruction, friendship, caring and support), and narcissistic (adoration, exhibitionism, leadership and demand for obedience) desideratum.

Defining the facets of teachers' classroom role expectations

Reviewing the literature on the self, selfobject, altruism and narcissism, as well as the literature pertaining to teachers' classroom assignments, has led to the delineation and classification of the content areas which constitute a conceptual domain of teachers' classroom role expectations. Two content facets were distinguishable to classify teachers' classroom role expectations. They are:

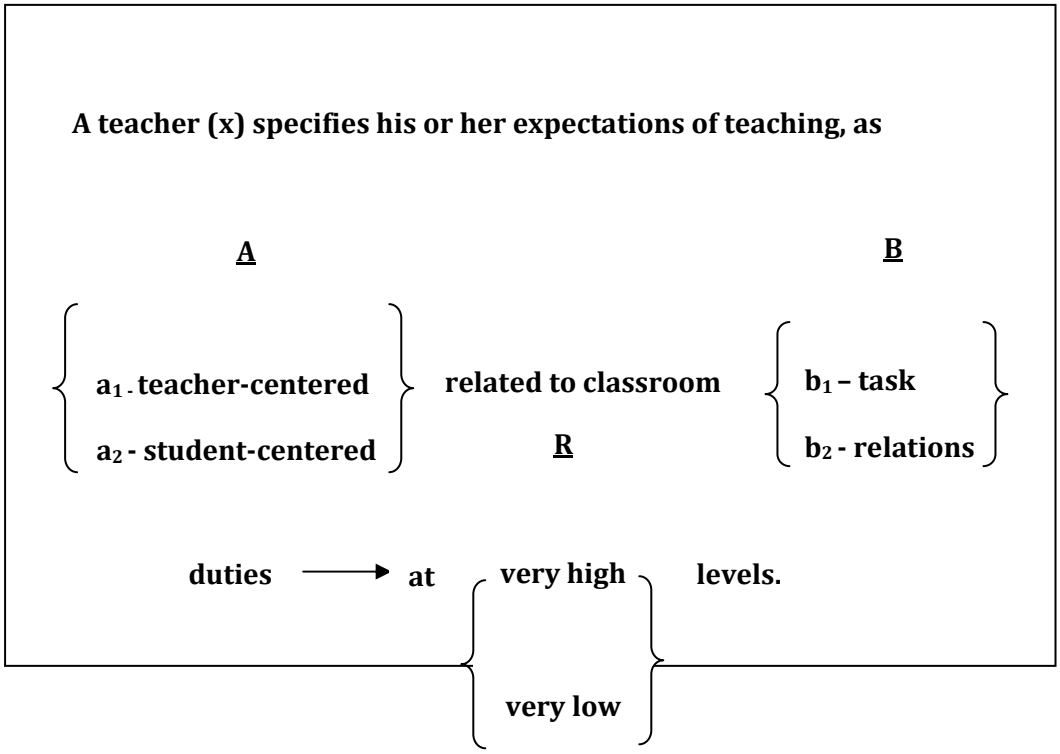
Facet A: teachers focus of interest

Facet A classifies teachers' classroom role expectations based on their focus of interest and concern, being either internal or external. An internal focus of interest may be demonstrated as a self-centered interest, whereas external focus may show as other-centered interest. Self-centeredness can direct teachers to expect self satisfaction and personal accomplishment, and at the same time reducing interest in their students' welfare. External focus of concern may materialize in student-centeredness. Therefore, Facet A consists of two elements: a_1 – teacher-centered expectations, and a_2 – student-centered expectations. Student-centeredness and teacher centeredness may either be contradicting or independent of one another, therefore the elements in this facet may form a contradicting order. Facet A may therefore play an axial role in deploying the points on the SSA map, so that the items on the SSA map will be spread on an imaginary axis ranging from teacher-centered, to student-centered expectations.

Facet B: teachers' function domains

This facet classifies teachers' classroom functioning areas, e.g. instruction, classroom management, dealing with student discipline problems, leading student learning, supervising, and other interpersonal relations issues. Classroom management literature points to the fact that major teacher classroom functioning areas can be grouped into two main types of activities: task, and relations. The task function includes instruction and classroom management, and the relations function encapsulates teacher-students relations (emotional support, social leadership), and students interpersonal relations. Therefore, Facet B comprises two elements: task and relations. The literature on leaders and leadership suggests that task (task orientation) and relations (people orientation), are fairly orthogonal. Therefore, facet B may be ordered, and is expected to play an axial role in deploying the items on the SSA map.

Fig. 1: Mapping Sentence for Observations on Teacher Expectations



Definitional Framework and the Mapping Sentence

Facet Theory (Guttman, 1959) provided the basis for the definitional framework for studying teachers' classroom role expectations conceptualization. A definition of teachers' role expectations can be made possible by the use of a mapping sentence (see Figure 1). Teachers' classroom role expectation items have a common range, i.e. the level of expectations. This common range is expressed in the range facet (**R**) followed by the arrow in the mapping sentence. In this study the response categories for all the variables (the questionnaire items) ranged from *'very high'* through *'very low'* levels of expectations. In addition, all expectation items pertain to teachers' task or relations, and express either self- or other-centeredness (Facets **A** and **B**). The mapping sentence also designates the population being studied by the (**X**) facet. In this study use was made of existing questionnaire items, which were apriorily classified by using the mapping sentence. Each respondent (x) in this study has one and only one response in the range (R) for each item, defined by two elements, of either one of the two content facets in the mapping sentence.

Method

Subjects

156 (96% females) aspiring teachers participated in this study. 36.8% were trained to teach in regular elementary schools; 3.9% in secondary schools, and 50.7% were trained for special education teaching; 8.6% were trained for careers in other teaching areas.

Instrumentation and procedure

The instrument used in this study was a questionnaire titled "personal work expectations", that participants were asked to fill out. It contained 56 items. Respondents were told that with the help of this questionnaire we wished to learn about the thoughts, behaviors, and beliefs that teaching trainees possessed. It was emphasized that all questionnaire items pertained to the teaching world, and classroom routine. Participants were asked to state the extent to which each of the items expressed their own beliefs and opinions.

The instrument's items were formulated based on the findings of a previous study made by Gavish (2002), who researched aspiring teachers' work expectations and teacher burnout. Gavish interviewed several groups of teachers, asking them to describe their expectations of teaching, classroom work, interpersonal relations with colleagues, the principal, the parents, the school community, and of course, the students. 60 statements, out of Gavish's item reservoir, were carefully selected to represent teachers' role and classroom behavior expectations. 2 experienced teachers were asked to classify the questionnaire items to suit the mapping sentence definitional framework[1].

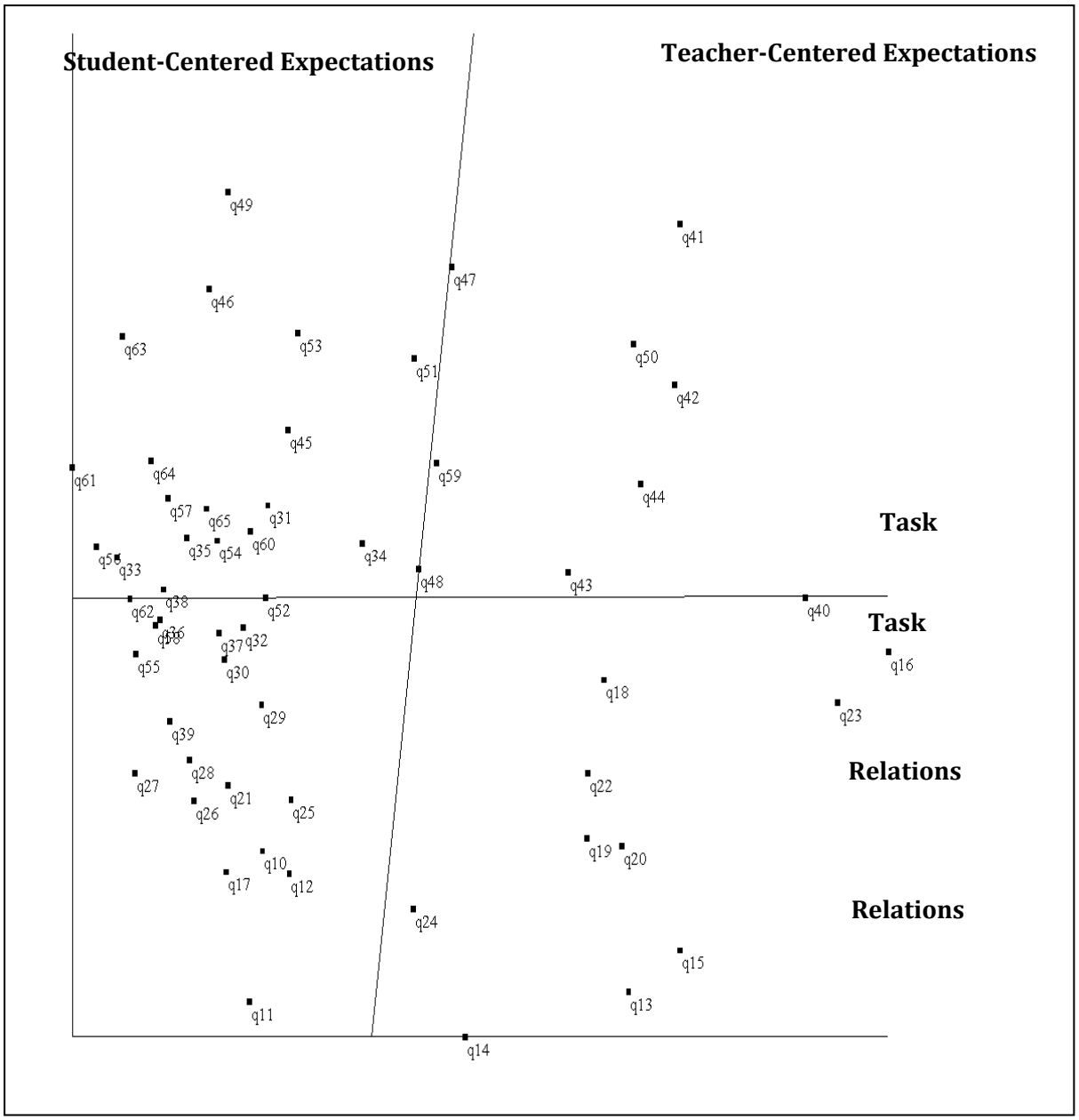
Results

Initial data analysis involved calculating correlations (coefficients of monotonicity) between items, and compiling a correlation matrix. It was noted that item score correlations were mostly positive, with some negative ones. Initial data processing has been followed by a smallest space analysis (SSA), using the Hebrew University Data Analysis Program (HUDAP), thus producing an item deployment map, to obtain a graphic delineation of the correlations among the item scores, based on the previously calculated correlation matrix. Item deployment on the SSA map was first assessed by a 2-dimentional presentation. The coefficient of alienation of the 2-dimentional presentation was .26, which may be considered slightly too high. I have therefore decided to examine the item deployment further, by raising the dimensionality to 3 (dimensionality = 3). This dimensionality's coefficient of alienation was .18, representing a fairly good fit between the data in the correlation matrix and the graphic presentation of data deployment. HUDAP also enables the calculation and marking of the facets spatial border lines defined by the mapping sentence. The regionality coefficients (a measure of goodness of fit between expected and observed item spatial deployment) were .961 for Facet **A** and .985 for Facet **B**, meaning that an almost perfect fit between observed and expected item deployment was obtained (two items, numbers 59 and 34, did not appear on the map in their designated regions). Based on the alienation and the regionality coefficients one may make reliable interpretations quite confidently.

Figure 2 shows the Small Space Analysis solution for Facets **A** and **B** (See Figure 2). It can be seen that, as expected, Facet **A** divides the map into left and right regions, where the right hand part of the map contains the items representing teacher-centered expectations and the left hand side of the map contains the items representing student-centered expectations. Facet **B** divides the map into upper (Task) and lower (relations) regions. Intersections of Facets **A** and **B** form several notable regions.

[1] The instrument items, classified by Facets **A** and **B** may be reviewed by writing directly to the author.

Figure 2. Teachers' Narcissistic and Altruistic Classroom Expectations: Deployment of Items on the SSA Map, Facets A and B (Dimensionality=3)



The upper right hand region (task related teacher-centered expectations) embodies teachers' expectations of glory, by drawing students' attention, in particular by overt outward behavior (see in particular items number 50 and 41), and to obtain high regard (items 42 and 40).The items in this region express exhibitionism, and a fair measure of sense of grandiose, namely distinct, or "genuine", narcissism.

The items on the lower right hand side of the map (relations related teacher-centered expectations) construct several groups of expectations: (a). the teacher as a charismatic and influential classroom leader (Items 22, 23, 13, and 15); (b). "A Teacher for Life" having a significant effect on students' lives for years and decades to come (Items 20, 19, 14, and 18).

This region expresses (healthy) narcissistic expectations aimed to the benefit of the other (the students), and may therefore be termed "benevolent" narcissism.

The items on the lower left hand side of the map (relations related student-centered expectations) construct several semantic groupings: (a). Compassion (Items 27, 28, 55, 17, 58, and 36); (b). Agreeableness (Items 21, 10, and 11); and (c). Amicability, support and love (Items 34, 32, 37, and 29). This group of items expresses love for the significant other and a meaningful concern for his or her welfare. This region may therefore be termed "genuine" altruism, or selfless altruism.

The items positioned on the upper left hand part of the SSA map (task related student-centered expectations) create the following expectations clusters: (a). Instruction directly designated to students needs, including individual instruction (Items 62, 57, 56, 63, and 64,); (b). A Commitment for student learning and knowledge (Items 54, 61, 60, 52, and 65); and (c). An exhilarated and stimulating instruction (Items 46, 61, 45, and 49). The content of this group of items demonstrates altruistic aspirations (see item 53 in particular), alas, represents a desire to control the students and regulate their future through devoted teaching. Therefore, the content of this group of items represents paternalistic-custodial altruism.

Discussion

Findings of this study portray the teachers as professionals who seek to give and receive. Teachers' giving means that they are willing to listen, to attend, to care for their students' welfare, to guide them, and to provide them with knowledge, education, and values. Teachers' receiving is aimed to becoming worthy of recognition, and of a certain measure of adoration: they expect to be considered as a source of knowledge and authority, and that "good things" will be said about them. An a priory spatial hypothesis in this study was that items will be deployed on the SSA map gradually ranging from "genuine" altruism through "genuine" narcissism, where in the interim space narcissistic-altruistic (self-serving altruism, or other-centered narcissism) items will be identified. Instead, a different interpretation of the item deployment pattern seemed more reasonable, pointing to two pairs of polarized regions: "genuine" altruism in the upper right-hand region, and "genuine" narcissism in the lower left-hand region, and "benevolent" narcissism (lower right-hand region) versus "paternalistic" altruism (self-serving altruism) (upper left-hand region) positioned in the middle, between these tow extreme regions. Based on the position of the regions in the SSA map a different conceptualization of the relation between altruism and narcissism may now be offered.

The results of this study provide substantial evidence to support the hypothesis that teachers' classroom organizational values comprise altruistic and narcissistic components; that "genuine" narcissism and "genuine" altruism are conceptually polarized, where the benevolent narcissism and the paternalistic altruism are interim concepts, positioned between these opposing poles. Therefore, the findings of this study furnish us with empirical evidence to support Heintz Kohut's (1977) bi-polar conception of the self. From an educational psychological point of view the findings of this study suggest that "narcissistic" or "altruistic" inclinations in teachers do not have to act in a contradicting fashion. Such "inclinations" can live fairly well together, with two "intermediate" altruistic-narcissistic patterns (paternalistic altruism and benevolent narcissism).

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Teachers' Professional Values: Explorations in Code of Ethics

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to define and conceptualize an Israeli Educators Code of Ethics using Facet Theory (Guttman, 1968). The initial findings showed the data deployment on the SSA map exhibited both radial and an angular form in a Radex configuration. Israeli teachers believe that professional ethics are based on conditioned values. The variables in the SSA map appear in a radial configuration forming three concentric circles: personal values (inner circle), social values (middle circle) and universal values (outer circle). The components representing the code of ethics were deployed on the SSA map in an angular form and showed three elements: honor and reliability, student care and concern, and professionalism.

Introduction

“Ethics” refers to the moral values governing the appropriate conduct of an individual or group (Kasher, 1993). The principal concern of ethics is the nature of human well-being. “Ethics,” as a branch of philosophy, is a systematic attempt to understand the nature and foundations of morality and its effect on our conduct.

Professional codes of ethics demonstrate or general regulations emphasizing what should or should not be done in a professional group (Comey, Corney & Callanan, 1998; Izraeli & Zohar, 2002). It also acts as an expectation framework that allows the professional to be judged by his colleagues. Even though one can find teachers codes of ethics in other countries (such as the USA), there has been no agreement upon an Israeli code (Alony, 1995; Alony, 1995; Alony, 2005). The “Etzioni Committee”, which dealt with the teachers' status 25 years ago, suggested that a teacher's code of ethics should be written. However, even though a first draft was written in 1996, it was not agreed upon.

The research described here is a pilot study.

Conditioned Values

The study proposes a new term, "conditioned values", to help us better understand the values in the educators' code of ethics. Conditioned values concern the educator's perceived dependency upon his or her own values, values influenced or are depend on surrounding society and values influenced or are depend on universal values, all which control the educator’s sense of moral and educational duty. Conditioned values can be measured on a three degree scale each representing the complexity of the moral educational behavior.

a. Universal conditioned values: values recognized by most modern societies. Though seen as having a highly complex structure these values are not unique.
b. Social conditioned values: these are social (including family) values which are influenced by universal values. They are perceived as complex structured values and, unlike universal values, are unique.

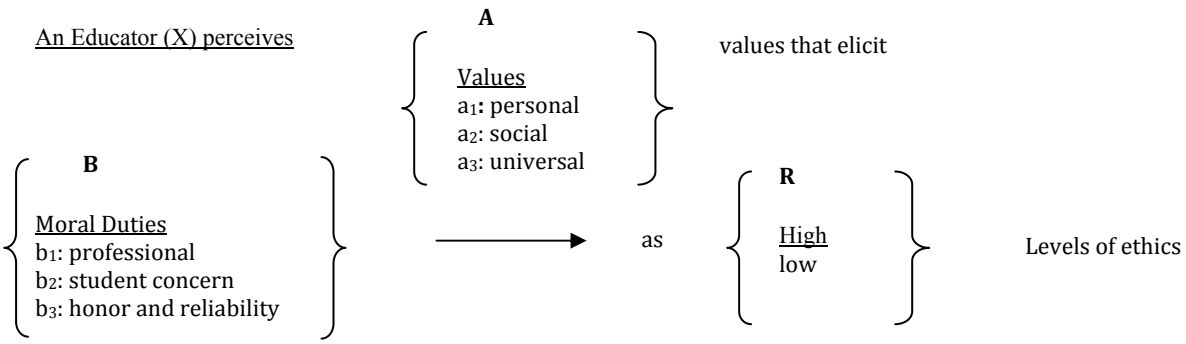
c. Personal conditioned values: are influenced by the educator's social values and by universal values. However, because they represent the individual's own interpretation, he perceives them as simple, though unique.

Method

The pilot study used Facet Theory (Guttman, 1968). This theory was chosen as the methodological approach due to its strength in conceptualizing different phenomena. The key tool in Facet Theory is the mapping sentence, which links the facets being studied. In this study the facets were: the facet of the population under investigation (school educators), two content facets (conditioned values and educational duties), and a range facet (the school educator's level of ethics). The mapping sentence classifies the research observations and provides the basis for hypotheses regarding the empirical links between the observed variables. Smallest Space Analysis (SSA) was the data processing method used for the Facet Theory applications. SSA is a statistical model wherein coefficients of proximity between variables (such as correlations or monotonicity coefficients) are represented as physical distances in a two or multi-dimensional space. In this analysis, variables are shown as points in space where the proximity of the points relates to the correlation between the variables: the greater the correlation, the closer the points in space. The spatial deployment picture (map) of the data that emerge through this method is easier to interpret than a correlation matrix, and is used to establish associations between variables that other methods cannot reveal.

Based on the above, a mapping sentence was formulated for observations of the educators' moral behavior in their educational duties. This comprised a single range facet and two content facets as follows:

Figure 1: A mapping sentence for analyzing the ethical behavior of school educators



In the mapping sentence, the term "school educator (X)" represents the population facet (school educators: women, men, Jewish, Arab, age, education). Facet A, the first content facet (conditioned values), which modulates the essentiality level of moral behavior of professional duties, is an ordered facet. As with any hierarchically ordered facet, this facet's role is to deploy variables in the SSA map in a radial configuration forming three circles, based on the mapping sentence elements:

a_1 Conditioned personal values: These values involve the personal believes of the educator only and are the **core values** (inner circle). They are based on the individual's conditioned

social and universal values. An educator cannot perform his moral educational duties without them.

a_2 Conditioned social values: These values involve social and family beliefs and are influenced by universal values (middle circle). Social values and universal ones do not necessarily overlap.

a_3 Conditioned universal values: These the values are likely accepted by most of the modern world and therefore, are very complex but lack uniqueness (outer circle).

Facet B, the second content facet (educational moral duties) is an unordered facet as it is not necessary (or possible) to prefer one moral duty over another. This facet's role is to deploy the variables in an angular form creating segments on the SSA map based on the facet's elements:

b_1 – professional moral duties

b_2 – student related moral duties

b_3 – honor and reliability related moral duties

Bearing in mind that facets A and B are related, the three conditioned values can be used in the three educational moral duties: professional moral duties, student related moral duties and honor and reliability related moral duties, and can be acquired by applying different conditioned values as shown in Facet A. Facet R is the range facet (the degree or level of difference in performance of educational duties when there are different levels of ethics).

Nine structuples were derived from the combination of the elements in facets A and B:

a_1 b_1: The educator uses conditioned personal values (a_1) in order to perform professional moral duties (b_1)

a_1b_2: The educator uses conditioned personal values (a_1) in order to perform student related moral duties (b_2)

a_1 b_3: The educator uses conditioned personal values (a_1) in order to perform honor and reliability related moral duties (b_3)

a_2 b_1: The educator uses conditioned social values (a_2) in order to perform professional moral duties (b_1)

a_2 b_2: The educator uses conditioned social values (a_2) in order to perform student related moral duties (b_2)

a_2 b_3: The educator uses conditioned social values (a_2) in order to perform honor and reliability related moral duties (b_3)

a_3 b_1: The educator uses conditioned universal values (a_3) in order to perform professional moral duties (b_1)

a_3 b_2: The educator uses conditioned universal values (a_3) in order to perform student related moral duties (b_2)

a_3 b_3: The educator uses conditioned universal values (a_3) in order to perform honor and reliability related moral duties (b_3)

Subjects

The subjects for this pilot study were 100 K-8 school educators with diversified personal and demographic backgrounds. 66 identified themselves as women, 30 as men, and 4 failed to disclose their gender; 71% had B.A. or B.Ed degrees, 22% had M.A or M.Ed degrees, and 7 failed to

disclose their level of education; 44% were Arab educators and 56% were Jewish educators; 26% were young (aged 20-30), 73% were semi-young (aged 31-55) and 1% were over 55.

Instrument

The research instrument was an anonymous self-report questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of two sections: the first section contained items pertaining to different moral duties (34 items); the second section contained questions pertaining to the educators' background variables (4 items).

Process

The pilot study comprised two consecutive stages: (1) defining variables and terminology; (2) administering the research questionnaire: the questionnaire was handed to educators who were asked to complete the questionnaire and return it a few minutes later. 100 questionnaires were returned, and 100 questionnaires were completed, returned, and processed (100% return rate).

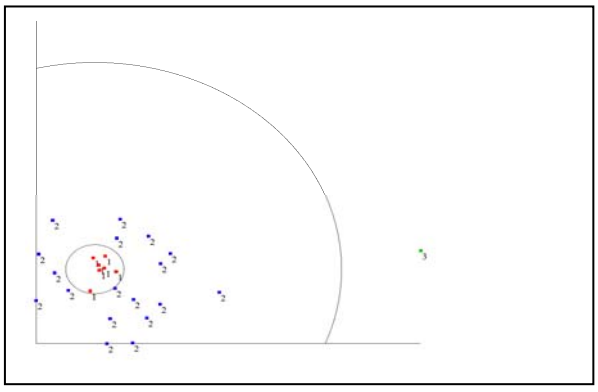
Results

First, correlations (monotonicity coefficients) between the scale item scores were calculated and a matrix compiled. The second stage involved applying SSA (Smallest Space Analysis), using FSSA (faceted SSA) software (SSA based on facets (Borg & Shye, 1995; Shye, 1991)) to the calculated correlation matrix. Data deployment was examined in a two-dimensional space. The results were tested first by applying the coefficient of alienation. The coefficient of alienation was found to be .19, which allowed firm conclusions to be drawn regarding the deployment structure and structure of the term. The data deployment on the SSA map exhibited both a radial and angular form in a radex configuration.

The two deployment patterns: the radial (Figure 2) and the angular (Figure 3) are described below.

The Radial Aspect

Figure 2: Radial Deployment

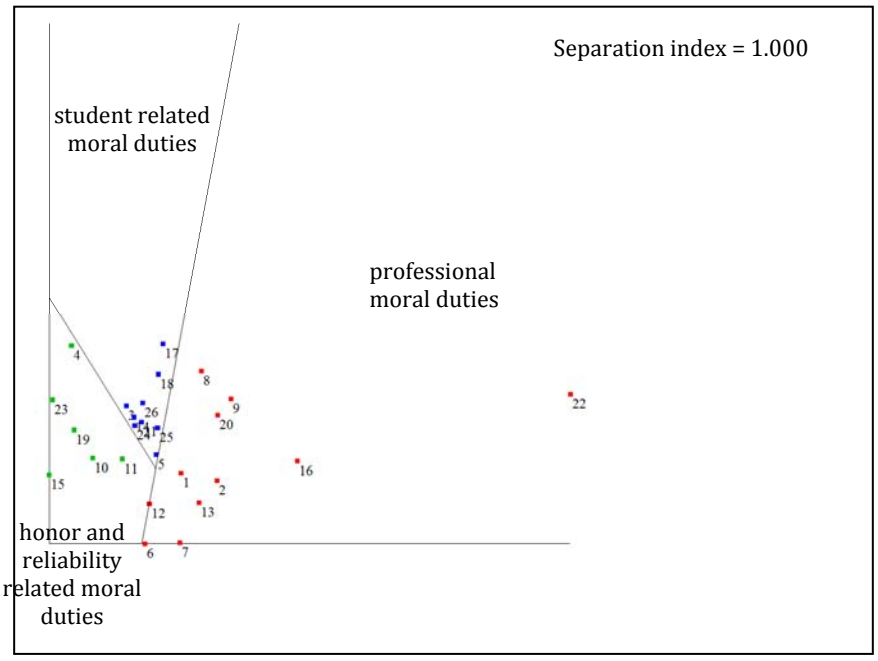


1 – conditioned personal values; 2 - conditioned social values; 3 - conditioned universal values
Separation index = 1.000

Figure 2 shows the radial aspect of the data deployment on the SSA map. The separation index was 1.000, indicating perfect separation. The three circles seen in the data deployment show that educators see the core of their moral educational duties as based upon their personal values. As we see, the items in the innermost circle are relatively close knit, whereas items at a distance from the center, closer to the periphery, are further apart and separated by large spaces. The proximity of items in the SSA map deployment space points to greater agreement, and semantic and terminological unity. Conversely, distance between items shows little agreement and greater semantic differentiation. This means that regarding the conditioned personal values, there is absolute and definite agreement as to the values that drive teachers to fulfill their moral educational duties. The common denominator of all 7 items (items marked "1") is core values – the personal values of the educator (a_1) which enable him or her to decide how to act regarding essential educational duties. The second concentric circle, namely the middle circle (see Figure 3), encircles the social values (items marked "2"), which express values shared by the educator's social group, including family and friends (a_2). The educator is influenced by these values, which help him to build his own personal value perception. The third and outermost circle (items marked "3") relates to universal values that are usually shared by similar modern cultural groups (a_3). These values influence different social groups separated by physical boundaries, ideological boundaries, or any other common denominator.

The Angular aspect

Figure 3: Data Deployment of the Angular Facets on the SSA Map – School Management Processes

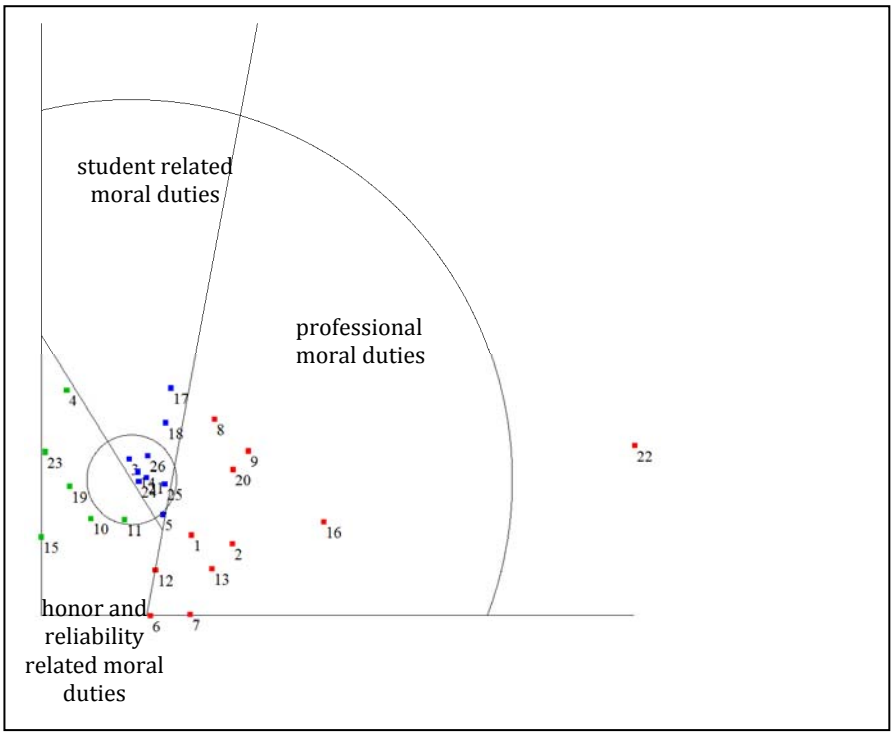


The findings show a perfect fit between the empirical data and the estimated structure (separation index: 1.000). The map clearly divided the data into a right hand section with one

region (professional moral duties - b_1) and a left hand section with two regions: an upper region and a lower region (student concerned moral duties- b_2 and reliability and honor moral duties - b_3).

As noted earlier, the data deployment on the SSA map displays a radex pattern. When we examine the combined radial and angular deployments seen in the two-dimensional representation of the data on the SSA map (see Figure 4) we find that each of the conditioned values also forms part of one of the three moral educational duties. Figure 4 shows these points of proximity.

Figure 4: Two-Dimensional Representation of the Data Deployment on the SSA Map



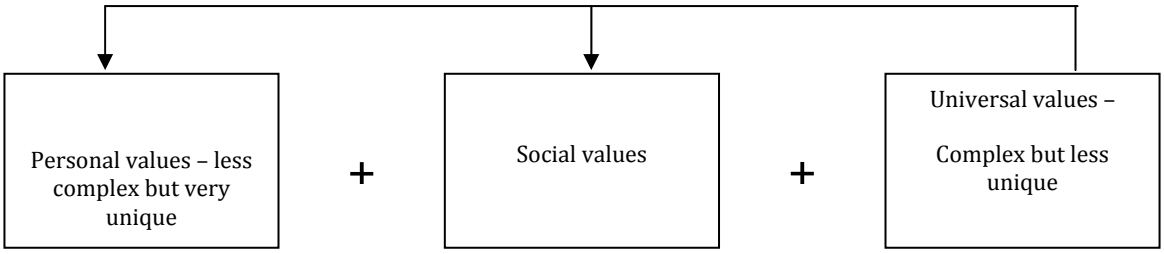
Conclusion

The findings show that we can conceptualize something as complex as an ethical code using facets, A and B. In Facet A, conditioned values are the degree of the educator's perceived dependency upon his own values, values that are conditions set by the surrounding society and values conditioned by universal values. As noted, these values become more complex but less unique as we go from conditioned personal values through conditioned social values to universal values. The educator builds his ethical perception based on these conditioned values. An analogy with a refinery springs to mind: the universal values are refined into social values and enable an ideological or geographical society to create its own social values, which are definitely less complex and more unique. But in order to perform at the highest ethical level, social values should be refined into personal values which are unique

and purified, and comprise the core of an educator's ethical approach. The unique features of the processes are shown in the angular deployment found in Figure 3.

Even though we see in Figure 2 that the universal section is represented by just one element, that is mainly because it is a pilot study and more elements must be added to this section. Figure 5 below describes the "refinery" process.

Figure 5: Conditioned Values



Facet B represents the moral educational duties of the educator. The conceptualization means that the school educators' divide their moral duties into three categories: professional moral duties, student related moral duties and honor and reliability related moral duties.

The pilot study findings offer two major contributions. The first is a new approach to building a code of ethics. Because a code of ethics has to be accepted by the professional group it is for, in our case school educators, it is very important to develop the code hand in hand with the group and test it empirically using Facet Theory in order to conceptualize it. Conceptualizing it will definitely help the educator to understand the code and therefore to accept it. The second contribution is that after completing the main study a new Israeli Educators Code of Ethics will be formulated, and hopefully adopted by the Israeli Ministry of Education.

As said before, the findings were based on a pilot study. The modified questionnaire is currently being administrated to a larger and more diversified sample. Results are expected by October, 2009.

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"University": A Universal Imbedded in Historical/Cultural Meaning Structures – Mass-University in Sweden and China

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Abstract

Studying the way students of Chinese and Swedish universities understand their university massification reveled itself to be central – as presented by Trow (1973, 2004) and Arendt (1953), both presenting three spheres relating to massification. 156 students of Chinese and Swedish universities were asked, through a written open question, how they would introduce someone to their university, then FocusGroups discussed the results. Swedish students presented their universities as systems with social and institutional functions – mediating "social" contacts and transmitting information. Chinese students presented their university as a producer of status based on "history," posing a dilemma: was knowledge a means or an end. Swedish students experienced an uncertain environment and Chinese students competing values; all experienced a distance to power.

Introduction

Universities are in many parts of the world a very natural part of the social landscape. Both in the every-day lives of the citizen of different countries and in politics and for companies. They also seem to be especially important institutions when we imagine and dream about the future, when we have ideas about science and knowledge, and it seems to be important both in individual terms and in social terms. Universities also seems to be important in what we call the "knowledge-society" where knowledge is supposed to help us cope with uncertainty, and bring a "scientific" foundation for decisions that often are of a moral character. But actually we can see that there are a number of functions given to the university that are hard to trace, it is hard to know what function university actually has, and sometimes even harder to know what function it should have.

This writing is a first part of a Ph.D. research programme intended to present an empirical investigation of the meaning "university" actually holds to its actors. The project is realised within the field and theoretical orientation of the discipline of research-policy, which is founded on the ambition to do academic research on academic activity, and is characterised by an interdisciplinary setting. The methodical frame and ontological foundation comes from the psychology of culture and organisation with a Husserlian phenomenological approach.

It is a conscious choice in this text not to write about "the university" with a definite article, since the very basic ambition is to explore what it actually is for its actors. To write about "the university" with the definite article gives the impression that there is a certain "something" that is a university, a specific idea of which we have a tacit agreement on what meaning it really has. When we instead write about "university" in quotation marks and without the definite article, it is clear that our object of study is a phenomenon, a "something" that is not yet determined, or perhaps possible to determine for its participants. Thus we do

not start with a hypothesis but rather we try to open a field of interest and use our presumptions in the later stages of interpretation.

In the reading of this thesis it is very important to know that a goal is to go through with the study with a radical and methodical suspicion of the offered knowledge in order to unveil unfounded presuppositions, this is why the phenomenological approach has been chosen. Ethnocentric and egocentric world-views are very hard to unveil, and are a critical factor to the quality of outcomes.

Method

According to the Husserlian philosophies of science the goal of research is to explore *the way* in which meaning a phenomenon is constituted. In the present case the critical methodical point on which validity builds is the relation between the expressions and the experiences of involved people: that the language (the use of words and expressions) reflects the way in which a person has reached an understanding of them. Therefore use of similar words by different persons does not necessarily reflect a similar meaning-constitution, even within a common culture; and with an inter-cultural aim there is an increased need to reach for the meaning is constituted in different individuals/cultures. Consequently any kind of text (transcription of interview, self-report, policy-document, archive…) has to be interpreted by reaching behind its "obvious" first hand meaning. Consequently the way in which we have gathered material and how we have performed a deeper analysis is central to the strength of our research and is the measure of how we have reached our goal – to perform a of semantic archaeology and unveil inter-subjective layers of meaning. (Sages2000)

The procedure consisted in handing out one written open-ended question to participants. By an diffuse formulation the question is intended to open an area of interest to them, but not to direct the content of their thought. Its primer end is to enable participants to formulate their own perspectives in a narrative, while the researcher gives as little input as possible. The researcher meets respondents and waits while they are writing, or give them the means to send it later. (Sages 2000)

The texts that comes out are analysed with the MCA-Minerva software, a controlled technique of text-analysis intending to unveil the meaning as intended by the persons, controlling (within limits) for cultural/personal differences. The analysis is intended to reveal the presumptions a text stands on. The MCA technique, is mainly a technique to handle the inevitable presupposition of a shared conceptual world with the participants, (e.g. that we mean the same thing with the same words) significantly compared to any kind of data-collections obtained by classical interviews. Both Swedish and Chinese answers where translated into English, in the cooperation of students coming from the respective country.

The analysis in MCA Minerva is actually a manual work of by dividing, categorizing and extracting a text according to the Husserlian structured analysis of essential ways of perceptions. It offers the Through such a meticulous work with the narratives and the ways they are expressed, the deep structure of meaning-constitution is unveiled. It is an analysis in three steps: a) The text is divided in minimal meaning-bearing unites. b) Each unit is then categorised according to the way they are stated in different modalities. c) Then the units are categorised in themes according to their content. as described in Sages (2000).

In a last step the procedure leads to a tentative formulation of the life-world as modulated by cultural belongingness in the personal way they give meaning to it. Then the researcher also can step forward in interpretation and give a founded reading derived of the analysis.

Outcomes

Even if the presented outcomes and the discussion in this article will be quite narrow some general indications has to be given to present the ideas of the outcomes in a wider sense. In total 156 students participated and gave a report each, 73 in China, and 83 in Sweden, from 16 different Universities. 60,9% were women, 37,82% men and 1,28% did not answer about gender, the repartition of gender was similar in Sweden and China. A total of 16 different mothertongues were represented and 39 different majors. The mean age was 22,54 in China and 23,98 in Sweden with Standard Deviation 2,55 in China and 4,1 in Sweden, 5 Chinese reports lacked an answer considering age and in 2 Swedish reports.

The 156 reports where manually broken up into 998 Meaning-Units (MU) that can be single statements, 580 from Chinese participants and 418 from Swedish participants. These MU's where grouped according to form and content. Through a grouping of similar content 18 themes appeared in a way giving a map of inter-subjective horizons.

The function of the MU's could be in general terms be divided into four categories, the first a description of how to introduce the university, (283 Swedish MU's, and 256 Chinese MU's) as the students described what they would say or do, the second an actual description of the university (43 Swedish MU's, and 237 Chinese MU's), thirdly students would give a description about a country/region (31Swedish MU's, and 54 Chinese MU's), there were some MU's that did not fit into these general categories of function (61 Swedish MU's, and 33 Chinese MU's)

As the MU's were grouped according to the content they could be divided into 16 categories, There content of the MU's can be summerised in following themes: (Swedish=S;Chinese=C)

- “practical information” that the students would give to introduce the university (S:67, C:67);
- “personal contact” that the students recommended so that a university should be introduced (S:23, C:30);
- a number of students described an “act of introduction” (S:47, C:37);
- some students students wrote that they would describe “the mind/practice” at the university (S:13, C:76);
- Some “social institutions” which claim the subjects of the content of an introduction (S:71, C:2);
- “History” was a quality of the university often worthy of the first place in the introduvtion (S:0, C:54),
- closely related to the previous but holding a wider perspective was the theme of “institution” which generally held a more organisational character (S:29, C7);
- There was also an understanding that a university is best described in “comparison or competition” between universities (S:4, C:41);

- A slightly different aspect was to describe universities through perspectives of "Diversity or unity" of a body of universities (S:0, C:27);
- The "environment" was also something the students would use in their description of their university (S:3, C:40);
- "Cultural aspects" were mentioned, describing the national character or ways in the country (S40, C30);
- Problems that identified the university (S:0, C:28);
- Some students said that their introduction would be "Relative" to different things, mainly the person or the situation(S:67, C:2);
- There was a conception of a contrasting to some idea of "foreign" universities or ways of life (S:0, C:25);
- A theme was to describe the practical ways of the "Studies" to introduce a university (S:13, C:46);
- In some perspectives "Language" was something important in the introduction to the university (S:14, C:6),
- "society" (S:0, C18) was also at times used to describe a university.
- And there were a number of MU's which were so different that they did not fit in any larger categories (S29, C:41);

There are many ways to introduce further dimensions which can be drawn from this material, the totality will be presented in the forthcoming dissertation, but what we will focus on here is the mechanistic approaches in the experience the students express as they present their university, through what they chose to say and what they left out, and what seems to be two different stages in the process of massification that we can see in the Chinese and the Swedish university.

The first and principal attitude that appears is that:

- The Swedish students refer to different institutions, mainly with a social perspective, in order to avoid loneliness or for information with the main purpose to survive.
- The Swedish reports did not have any deeper discussion of why one would study, which shows in contrast to the Chinese reports.
- The Chinese students looks for quality mainly through history but comparison and competition are essential dimensions of their descriptions.
- Even if the idea of history as a marker of quality was very strong among Chinese students no explanation was given of why, and there seemed to be a confusion and tension between a perception of an older history and a modern history.
- Both groups of students showed signs of distance to power.

The second step consisted in discussions with Focus-Groups in both China and Sweden where 5-8 students where gathered in order to discuss eight statements given in the first step of the research. The eight statements represented the conclusions and questions presented in this article: The main question for the Chinese students was to discuss what quality was and how history was a marker of quality, while the Swedish students would discuss why the trust and need of social institutions was so strong and why none discussed the actual purpose or reason for the education.

The focus-groups in the two countries revealed a similar way of relating to the two issues: First giving an agreement with the "obvious propositions," then some frustration as it was problematized, and they could not give any answer to the questions – it was so obvious so it could not have any answer.

The main purpose of the Focus-Groups was to validate the results from the first step and to give clues in the interpretation. It did confirm areas of interest and accentuated tensions in these areas, but the way meaning was constructed did not offer so many given interpretations. What the questions did was to shed some new light on some discussions from the analytical literature, as if this tension was a result of what we call massification and mass-university.

Discussion

The main discussion here will build on the three historical phases in an evolution of university based on the ratio of enrolment of a age-cohort in Higher Education offered by Trow (1972) and three types of human activity available to man, and the spheres of existence bound to these spheres offered by Arendt (1953). There are numerous descriptions of how massification of university followed shortly after massification of society, but they are often focussed by the quantitative effects of massification, as the name implies a mainly quantitative property, but the qualitative implications are overwhelming and not enough studied.

Trow wrote in the seventies about three different historical stages in the evolution of higher education in the USA, explaining an experienced crises as a transition between stages, which actually changes the very meaning of what the university is. Trow offered a theoretical conceptualisation of the observed changes higher education went through parallel to the economical and industrial transformations of society. He built categories of institutions depending on the rate of enrolment of an age-cohort, and the social function that was connected: the elite-university (enrolling less than 15% of the population) was prepares the the social elite to exercise "elite roles". The mass-university (enrolling between 15% and 30% of the population) and the universal university (enrolling more than 30% of the population) adapting the whole population to social and technological transformation. (Trow 1972)

The function, the role and the challenges changes for a university depending on which historical stage it is in. But in this context the more interesting is that he also writes that the attitudes of the students is bound to change as Trow believes as the students were less voluntary to study at the university because of the social expectancy and the requirements for a high-status work increased. The students would be less motivated, less interested and the ways of education would have to change quite much from a stage to the other.

An analysis according to these terms would imply that the Swedish University would be in the transfer between mass- and universal university, and the Chinese University would be in the transfer between elite- and mass-university, which would primary be told of the ratios of enrolment. But Trow also implies conclusions about the qualitative changes bound to these quantitative numbers, and as we observe the results we can see these stages could explain the cause to the lack of reflection about the goal and the meaning of education in the Swedish universities, and the higher amount of discussion about quality in the Chinese universities. The further ways in which university is described in the Swedish and Chinese universities

indicates that the Swedish universities would have come further in the evolution of the organisation.

However the Arendtian distinctions in the nature of human activity is most helpful here to drive the analysis much further. Arendt (1953) writes that Labour, Work and Action stands for different spheres of human activity with their own properties. The distinctions are founded in a minute analysis of the antique Greek society and a thorough understanding of political philosophy which can shed light to the ways in which Chinese and Swedish universities differs.

In very short terms the Arendtian distinctions describes labour as a Marxian sense the extended organic exchange with the nature that keeps the body alive through production and consumption; it is a primitive activity and the lowest in the hierarchy of human activities. Work is the production of "things" that constitutes the human world; and Action is what what happens in the space between people, where power is constituted, and political activity can take place. (Arendt 1958)

The distinction between labour and work has important consequences of different tasks and functions of university which should not be confused. It is possible to see that different functions can be connected to the stages Trow offers and the spheres Arendt offers. The connection is that the lowest form of human activity would be bound to the latest form in the evolution Trow describes.

The Swedish students referred to their studies in an non-reflected and automatic way, they rather approached it as a system in which the issue was to survive, and not to suffer of loneliness. This indicates that the Swedish students would relate to their studies as if it was a labour in an arendtian terminology. In the Swedish system where students to some extent paid, and to some extent borrows money to study the actual act of studying becomes closer related to the labour and further away to the rests of work that Arendt writes about.

In the study of University the distinction between an activity of labouring bound to the necessities of life and with a strictly limited to the extension of the biological processes Marx describes as the nature of Labour.

The widely spread and sometimes infected discourse about the possibility of a production of knowledge is given a new light in relation to the Arendtian terminology which classifies the production as related to labour and as the effect of the lowest form of human action. The type of knowledge which logically designated would be restricted to the kind of learning related to survival but generally knowledge has a higher connotation as relating to the actions among men and what defines human beings. Consumption is the natural process which follows production, it is an extension of our biological life which is a cyclical process going on for the whole life. Arendt presents that labour naturally gives products which are intended to be consumed within a short time or else the products would be wasted.

Mass-society is according to Hanna Arendt (1958) what came of the liberation of labour in the "new era," when the individual stopped to labour the land to produce his food but became a jobholder with a salary. It was about the same time as a form of greater "subject" appeared, building on assumptions of generality of interest in which the major decisions of house-holding were taken, when it was a society taking care of the necessities of life, and not a family. The changes that followed was among other things the bureaucratization and anonymization of ruling, but the main effect was a degradation of all human activities to labour, and to speak of a consumption of knowledge would firstly degrade handling knowledge to a primitive level of human activity.

In the primitive action the relation to the earth and the environment are important, and we can see that the uncertain environment was especially experienced by the Swedish students, there was a fear of loneliness, to which a faceless organisation was the answer. It seemed like the organisation could have the properties of the "massified" ruling we see in our "advanced" societies today, were we are ruled by bureaucracy.

As we move towards the analysis of the Chinese students we can see that they mainly refers to their studies through ideas of competition, and through the explicit issue of means and goals, they also refer to it as it concerns status, value and fame. These different dimensions are clearly indicating that they relate to their studies in ways of the second level in both the conceptual framework of Trow and Arendt. "Work" in the Arendtian terminology.

An approach to the activities of universities tied to an Work, would rather focus on the skills of creation needed in the academic life. The main activity of writing can be seen as a handicraft and a skill which is put in relation to one of the functions of university: specialization. Specialization is in the Arendtian terminology very different from the division of labour, what is rather important is the formation of the important occupations in a greater society. The the relation to the second phase of the Trow proposes stage is apparent.

Competition was important to Chinese students, and we can see that there are competing ideals in their discourse on knowledge as a means or a goal. The rhetoric of means and goals is in the very essence of the Work according to Arendt, it is the

We can see that in the theories of university – an area where idealistic discourse prosper – the third sphere of action proposed by Arendt, the noble action, and the first proposed by Trow, the elite-university still is the ideal. If it is excellence that is the goal of a university, thus measured in the appraisal of the surrounding world it is in the domain of the Arendtian action that University should locate its activities. This means that it is in the sphere of fellowship – and *agora* – among people, where they can compete to prove their courage and skill, it is a fellowship mainly building on language, with ideals of domination of one's self and unity of speech and action.

Uncertainty of the effects is a natural quality of human action at its highest as Arendt describes it, since the consequences of any action belongs to the future – a realm beyond human knowledge – and since that kind of action (most often verbal) involves other people which we have no moral right to control. Still, just as Trow describes an evolution of the institutions of education it is its very success that robs it of its most important qualities. The impression of the rising power of man coming of the conquests done in the natural sciences and the following belief in human capacity to overcome all natural restraints – which in most ways are good – can sometime echo in the discourse on our relation to uncertainty (and human sciences), and of things which are impossible to have knowledge about, and tempt us to believe that nothing is impossible. But in this rise above what was believed to be possible we can see the very seed to the loss of the actual meaning. A mechanistic approach to actions, to nature and to our own being can give the impression that if we only can perform better calculation of the factors, and matematising all kinds of process, we could overcome even the uncertainty of the effects of an act.

A mechanistic approach can sometimes be very implicit, as in the case of higher education we can see that many ideals actually sees education as a means for a goal. The effects that are expected to come of education due to an intrinsic mechanism. Different desired social effects of education might consist in as varying ideal, build on different moral foundations as a formation of morally able and educated citizen/gentlemen or economic profit. These ideals of moral able people actually belongs in the first historical level of Trow, and the third sphere of

action of Arendt, are seemingly not possible to combine with the lesser two that we have observed in China and Sweden. Maybe we can here also find the explanation to why students in both countries experienced a great distance to power in their life as a student – power belongs among people, in the third realm of action Arendt proposes – thus neither universities in Sweden or China offer the means to discern among competing values or to handle the uncertainties intrinsic in the environment we live in.

Chapter 16: Managing Uncertainty

What about Professional Courses for Vulnerable Individuals in the Societies of Unemployment and Uncertainty? Interconnections Between Chronic Pain and Work

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Abstract

Given that the world of work is mainly competitive and selective, our main goal is to reflect on the impact of current conjuncture on work inclusion of individuals facing diverse difficulties, specifically individuals with chronic pain (CP). We intend to present the genesis of disability and the process of return to work (RTW) of CP patients as a manifestation of workers' characteristics, as well as environmental factors such as the workplace, the healthcare system, the compensation system, the societal context and the interactions between all mentioned stakeholders. We also reflect on the kind of interventions that must be developed in order to empower chronic pain patients, especially considering the uncertainty, turbulence, and instability that define current times.

Introduction

Contemporary modern western societies, markedly individualized, are characterized by a deregulated neoliberal model of economic development based on competitiveness, flexibility, relocation, mobility, and consumerism. In this context, human and social work dimensions are losing their relevance due to the emergence of precarious employment, non-employment, and increasing levels of unemployment rates. Thus, risk, distrust, uncertainty, and uncontrollability can be seen as distinct hallmarks of contemporary societies, creating in the individuals a sense of wandering in the different dimensions of their lives. Those dimensions include their experiences of present and future in relation to self, others, family, community, as well as their universe of ideas, arts, and values (Sennett, 2007). It is worth noting that this context of uncertainty influences the work life of common human beings, and even more for those individuals who face certain physical and/or psychological disabilities such as chronic pain. Several medical conditions can be cause of non-malignant chronic pain (CP) (pain that longs at least six months), such as musculoskeletal and rheumatic diseases. Musculoskeletal conditions encompass many types of pain, such as neck pain, low back pain, and chronic widespread pain (IASP, 2009). Rheumatic diseases include chronic conditions (e.g. rheumatoid arthritis, osteoarthritis), in which the pain is a central and disabling symptom. The prevalence of CP in general population is relevant. In fact, an epidemiological study has shown that 30% of Portuguese adult population report moderate to severe pain which can has negative effects in their quality of life (Azevedo et al., 2009). Thus, the high prevalence, costs, and disability associated to pain conditions support the relevance of their study considering working dimension (Schultz et al., 2007; Oliveira et al., 2009; Oliveira & Costa, 2009).

Chronic pain and work

Chronic pain (CP) has direct and indirect costs not only to individuals, but also for society, since it is associated to work absenteeism, low productivity at work (presenteeism), and health care costs (Kronborg, Handberg & Axelsen, 2009; Pizzi et al., 2005; Van Leween et al., 2006). It is also worth noting that CP patients tend to present higher unemployment rates (fibromyalgia: 16.4%, rheumatoid arthritis: 9.9%), compared to healthy individuals (6.6%) (Oliveira, 2008). Moreover, research studies suggest that CP patients with different work status can be distinguished among them in terms of sociodemographic, clinical and psychosocial (individual and work-related) characteristics. In fact, professional inactivity (e.g. unemployment, sick-leave) tend to be associated to poorer results in outcomes variables (Sardá et al., 2009; Watson et al., 2004; Wynne-Jones, Dunn & Main, 2008). Moreover, the ability of CP patients to remain at work depends not only on limitations in work capacity, but also on the society capacity to adjust work environments and work tasks (Liedberg & Henriksson, 2002). Thus, it is relevant to comprehend the factors involved on (dis)ability of CP patients in order to analyze their possible interaction with patients' working life, as well as to describe the RTW process in patients who have left the labor market being in sick-leave or even unemployed.

Genesis of disability and return to work process

Concerning theoretical models that explain the genesis of (dis)ability and the return to work (RTW) process in chronic pain (CP) patients, there has been a shift from medically-determined models to those that emphasize individual, workplace, medical, economic, and social factors; thus CP is conceptualized as a multifactorial problem (Loisel et al., 2001, 2005; Pransky et al., 2005; Schultz et al., 2007; Sullivan et al., 2005).

More specifically, psychosocial factors have long been recognized as important determinants of RTW outcomes and more recently emerged the importance of considering not only internal individual factors, but also external factors perceived by the individual (i.e. job stress, health care provider interactions…) (Pransky et al., 2005; Sullivan et al., 2005). Sullivan et al. (2005) support that psychosocial risk factors can exist within the individual (type I) and/or can be related to workplace (type II). The type I risk factors include pain severity, perceived disability, depression, poor problem solving, pain catastrophizing, pain-related fear, low expectations for recovery, and pain beliefs. On the other hand, social support in the workplace, job satisfaction, job stress, and work autonomy are type II risk factors. This distinction proposed by Sullivan et al. (2005) finds empirical support in some studies, such as that conducted by Feuerstein and Thebarge (1991) in which they investigated the role of perceived disability, occupational stress, pain, and distress in 165 patients with CP disorders who work despite pain and patients who are work disabled. Results have shown that the work-disabled group reported higher pain severity, perceived physical and psychosocial disability, work pressure and control (job stress) and lower levels of peer cohesion, supervisor support and autonomy (work environment) than their working cohorts. Moreover, the perception of low physical disability, high supervisor support, low distress, and low work pressure were capable of correctly classifying 76% patients with CP who continued to work from those who were work disabled. However, most of the studies tend to focus either on type I or type II factors. To mention some of them, Jablonska, Soares and Sundin (2006) have focused in type II factors when determining associations among pain and perceived

psychosocial work conditions, as well as socio-economic factors, in a randomized sample of adult women from the general population (n=3616). The authors have found that 63% of the participants reported pain during the last 3 months. Associations between various socio-economic factors (e.g. financial strain) and pain in general/all studied painful body sites were found. Furthermore, psychosocial work conditions (i.e. work strain and social support) were significantly related to pain. Moreover, the women with pain presented relationships among socio-economic/psychosocial work conditions, pain characteristics (intensity) and its consequences (disability). On the other hand, Wynne-Jones et al. (2008) have compared health related characteristics of 923 primary care low back pain consulters reporting different work status, focusing mainly in type I factors. The authors have found that 65% were in employment and 35% were not in employment. In addition, significant differences concerning self-rated health, anxiety, depression, and disability were found between those undertaking their usual job, those on reduced duties, and those on sickness absence due to low back pain, with those participants further removed from the labor market reporting worse health across all measures.

Loisel et al. (2001, 2005) have highlighted the causes of disability that are not only due to the patient's personal characteristics (physical/psychosocial), but also stem from the patient's environment in the disability problem such as workplace, compensation and healthcare system, societal and political context. First, at individual level several factors could be responsible for disability due to CP, such as past history of pain absence, older age, more severe pain, and pain radiating below the knee. Second, concerning workplace factors the authors refer that studies have demonstrated the influence of 'psychosocial factors' related to the workplace on work absenteeism, such as satisfaction at work, perceived high work pace, work quantity, and problems in relationships with colleagues, as well as low employers' willingness to get their workers back to work. Third, factors related to health care system are important, namely the fact of some healthcare providers do not apply recent evidence on CP management, as well as unnecessary imaging tests or prolonged treatments, and lack of communication between healthcare providers and the workplace. Fourth, with reference to the compensation system it is important to consider the legislation and insurance rules in different countries given their effects on work absenteeism; the level of compensation for work absence and the compensation system seems to have a deleterious effect on disability. Moreover, satisfaction among workers and employers with care delivered through the compensation system is relatively low. At last, the societal context emerges because some socioeconomic conditions (e.g. economic difficulties, unemployment..) may reinforce work disability. Furthermore, the sociopolitical environment (specific laws and regulations) related to disability prevention could influence outcomes of RTW interventions (Loisel et al., 2001, 2005). Empirical support for the model proposed by Loisel et al. (2001, 2005) can be found mainly in qualitative studies who emphasized individual meanings of CP patients concerning contextual dimensions. Patel, Greasley, and Watson (2007) explored the perceived barriers to RTW presented by 38 unemployed patients with chronic musculoskeletal who were in receipt of or had been in receipt of incapacity benefit. The authors have performed in-depth semi-structured interviews in which emerged as perceived barriers to RTW not only pain related issues, but also financial and physical uncertainty, the healthcare system, interaction with benefits providers, perceptions of employers, and personal limitations. However, uncertainty and pain condition itself were the barriers from which other obstacles stemmed. In addition, Andersson and Hovelius (2005) intended to elucidate the biopsychosocial problems experienced by 125 women with widespread CP who were on sick leave during a particular week and studied such problems within a contextual framework as defined by women patients themselves. The authors have found that the women's written accounts of their health problems reflected being troubled by their unpaid household work and duties. Moreover, their

psychological symptoms and social problems generally concerned paid work, unemployment or being on sick leave. Finally, the women's biomedical orientation appeared to be associated to their extended pharmaceutical and surgical treatment and their efforts to be recognized, particularly by insurance authorities, as clearly having a somatic disease.

Although RTW has been researched for many years, it seems that there is not a consensus in its definition which has consequences in empirical research so far developed. The term "return to work" can be utilized as both a process and outcome measure (Schultz et al., 2007), but it is more common to find empirical research considering RTW as a measurable final common outcome of disability (the status of working or not working). On the other hand, the conceptualization of RTW as a process can be found for instance in Young et al. (2005) who present a way of thinking about RTW as an evolving process, comprising four key phases namely "off work," "work re-entry," "maintenance," and "advancement." The off work phase begins the first day the worker is off work due to his/her condition and ends when the worker is able to attempt work re-entry, considering their capabilities and potential readjustments on workplace. The next phase, work re-entry, occurs when the worker restarts work and stakeholders monitory if the RTW goals should be reassessed. Its ending can occur when the worker begins working at defined goals. In the maintenance phase, the worker attempts to accomplish goal status. When the worker desires and decides to pursue advancement, he/she enters in the advancement phase in which higher-level job tasks and/or responsibilities are achieved. Although there is scarcity of studies following this conceptualization, it would be useful to develop it in next years.

Thus, based on previous conceptualizations, we suggest that empirical research should derive from an integrated model which conceptualizes disability from CP as a multifactorial problem, related to workers' characteristics, as well as environmental factors such as the workplace, the healthcare system, the compensation system, societal context and the interactions between all stakeholders. We also suggest the addition of the conceptualization of RTW as an evolving process, comprising its four key phases (off-work, re-entry, retention, and advancement) given their dynamic, not static, nature. Given that conflicting models of RTW are prevalent, and inclusive models are still developing (Pransky et al., 2005), we stress out the importance of testing an integrated model of RTW making sense from multiple stakeholder perspectives.

Intervention with chronic pain patients

In terms of intervention, programs directed to CP patients who were in sick-leave or unemployed, it is possible to identify several intervention studies in which the main goal was to promote return to work (RTW). However, their core strategies in order to achieve those goals were quite different mainly focusing either on physical or psychological dimensions. Multidisciplinar interventions were also found (Adams & Williams, 2003; Casso et al., 2005; Skouken, Grasdal & Haldorsen, 2006; Vowles, Gross & Sorrell, 2004; Watson et al., 2004).

More specifically, Casso et al. (2005) developed an intensive program of occupational and physical therapy with 109 chronic low back pain patients, on sick leave, during their 3-week hospital stay. Results have shown that, after one year, 57 patients (52.3%) were working, 39 (35.8%) full time and 18 (16.5%) part time. The remaining 52 patients (47.7%) were on sick-leave. A positive subjective evaluation by the patient at conclusion of the program, and absence of clinical evidence of nonorganic pain at study inclusion significantly predicted return-to-work within 1 year.

On the other hand, Adams and Williams (2003) intended to identify patient characteristics and beliefs contributing to RTW or nonreturn, after a cognitive–behavioral program which focused exercise, stretch, relaxation, techniques of changing behavior and maintaining change, and cognitive therapeutic techniques. Among the 103 chronic upper limb ex-patients, who had completed the pain management program, 53.4% were working part- or full-time, or training 1 month after the program has been concluded. Moreover, patients who had returned to work, compared to those who had not, were more likely to have been working shortly before treatment, were more psychologically robust, were more confident of managing pain, catastrophized less, were also more optimistic about being capable of work and of overcoming obstacles to work. Expectations of support from their line manager have not differentiated workers and nonworkers, although nonworkers doubted the available support from colleagues.

Concerning multidisciplinary interventions programs, Watson et al. (2004) included 86 long-term unemployed low back pain subjects in an occupationally orientated pain management programme which has included psychological, physiotherapeutic, and vocational contents during twelve half days over six weeks with up to three hours of additional individual vocational counselling. The author concluded that, after six months, 38.4% of subjects were employed, 23% were in voluntary work, or education/training. Furthermore, those subjects who failed to make positive progress towards work were characterised by longer duration of unemployment and higher scores on somatic anxiety and depression. Vowles et al. (2004) also implemented an interdisciplinary treatment program for unemployed CP patients (low back pain, neck; upper extremity, lower extremity). The majority of patients completed the 4-week treatment program. Each day, participants attended three hours of psychoeducational groups and three hours of physical and occupational therapy. Contact with rehabilitation physician occurred at least once per week. In addition to facilitating RTW, the treatment program also sought to improve functional capacity, decrease affective distress, and educate patients about the CP process. Results have shown that six months after patient age, lifting ability, pain duration, depression level, and reported disability were individually related to RTW. However, level of depression and patient age had the best ability to predict post-treatment work status.

Given the rareness of comparing the effectiveness of interventions programs, Skouken et al. (2006) developed a comparative study to test the efficacy of three distinct intervention programs promoting RTW. Thus, 208 chronic widespread pain patients on sick leave for 3 months (on average) were included in a study in order to evaluate the RTW of an extensive and a light multidisciplinary treatment program versus treatment-as-usual initiated by general practitioners (GP's). The treatment-as-usual intervention (n=85) consisted of being followed by the GP's who prescribe CWP patients anti-depressant and pain medication and refer them to physiotherapists or chiropractors. The authors have noticed that some of those GP's have started to change their way of handling these patients. More patients were receiving a cognitive treatment approach and traditional physiotherapy was changing to body awareness treatment. In the light multidisciplinary treatment patients (n=81) were given an hour-long lecture about topics such as anatomy, pain mechanisms, exercise training and lifestyle. Participants also received an individually tailored exercise training program based on physical tests. In certain cases, health care professionals performed a workplace intervention. Finally, the extensive multidisciplinary treatment (n=42) lasted for four weeks, with six hours of sessions five days per week. The program included group sessions, education, exercise training and occasional workplace intervention. Occupational intervention was also included when necessary. The staff was identical for the two treatment groups and did not change during the study period. Results have shown a different pattern when considering gender.

Thus, the extensive program, compared to treatment-as-usual, was significantly associated with fewer absent days from work among women. Even though, the extensive program among women was more effective than treatment-as-usual the first months after treatment, later the effect was tapered off. On the other hand, among men, the light program was significantly associated with more absent days from work compared to treatment-as-usual.

Conclusions

Chronic pain (CP) can be a disabling condition which can lead to harmful consequences not only for individuals, but also for society as a whole. Thus, both an individual and a systemic approach should be used in order to produce and to reflect about theoretical conceptualizations, as well as practical interventions, namely when considering the working dimension of CP patients. Throughout the last decades, theoretical conceptualizations have been evolving in such way that individual, workplace, medical, economic, and social factors are considered when explaining the genesis of (dis)ability and return to work (RTW) process in CP patients. However, it is worth noting that the inclusion of all these factors is rarely considered when implementing intervention projects, because individual interventions are privileged at expenses of contextual ones. Moreover, intervention studies have shown moderate efficacy in promoting RTW in sick-leave and/or unemployed CP patients. Generally, in these studies RTW is considered an outcome (working or not working) but it would also be important to follow the patients in the subsequent phases of maintenance and advancement at work. Furthermore, it would be important to include an approach directed to vocational dimensions, even more when we consider the challenges posed to individuals by the labor market of contemporary world. In fact, a society constituted by hallmarks of uncertainty and risk, where unemployment is a reality for many people (at least at certain points of their lives) requests that individuals assume a proactive position when facing difficulties in processes of achievement or maintenance of a job. Vocational Rehabilitation can be defined as the process whereby those who are ill, injured or have a disability are helped to access, maintain or return to employment or other useful occupation (BSRM, 2000). Thus, addressing all of the obstacles to recovery and RTW is fundamental to successful rehabilitation for CP disorders. However, in Portugal these types of interventions are not yet developed. So, it is of social relevance to research deeply on this area and to elaborate intervention projects directed to individuals with CP.

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New Forms of Uncertainty in the Individualized Society: Adaptation and Validation of the Uncertainty Response Scale (URS, Greco & Roger, 2001) to Portuguese Population and the Creation of a Scale on the Perception of Uncertainty in the Social Context and its Psychological Consequences

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Abstract

This paper aims the psychological study of uncertainty as an inevitable aspect of human experience, inherent to quotidian life, as well as to fundamental decisions and existential features of individual narratives. Therefore, we intend to contribute to the methodological development of uncertainty coping strategies' assessment by adapting and validating the Uncertainty Response Scale (Greco & Roger, 2001) to Portuguese population and by developing and validating a pool of items that intends to create a new scale related to uncertainty perception in aspects of the social context with which individuals interact. In this sense, we intend to analyse uncertainty origins at an individual/psychological level as well as at a social/cultural/political level, reflecting Peter Marris' (1996) theoretical contribution.

Introduction

This paper focuses on the study of uncertainty as a decisive dimension in human experience. Therefore, the object of this research is the psychological meaning of uncertainty and the following objectives were defined:

- To understand and conceptualize psychological dimensions of uncertainty, how individuals live, perceive and give meaning to it;
- To articulate psychological dimensions of uncertainty with its social, cultural and political sources;
- To contribute to the methodological development in the assessment of coping strategies towards uncertainty and in the perception of uncertainty in the social context and its individual psychological consequences;

1. To adapt and validate the *Uncertainty Response Scale*(URS, Greco & Roger, 2001) to Portuguese population,
2. To create a new scale that articulates individual, contextual and cultural/macro systemic dimensions of the experience of uncertainty.

We will present a theoretical contextualization on the theme as well as some preliminary results regarding the adaptation and validation of these two scales.

Theoretical Contributions and the Social Context

"All of us, in a greater or lesser degree, understand the world in which we live in as filled with risk, as uncertain and insecure."(Bauman, 2002). According to the author, in the contemporary "liquid", "post-modern", "individualized" society, dominated by individualization as a hegemonic form of socialization, what was previously understood as long-lasting and stable, from social position, to employment and interpersonal relationships, has become unstable and vulnerable: "unsafe harbors to anchor our trust." (Bauman, 2002).

Uncertainty has a fundamental role in human experience, being present in all small daily life's decisions, as well as in structural decision making situations in individual life and in the existential dimension in a broad sense. Therefore, the process of giving meaning to the world that surrounds us changes when this is a world characterized by uncertainty given that it's the way in which we perceive it and the power that we believe to possess to control it that influences the strategies we use to manage it and its consequences in our personal experience.

The developmental and psychological origins of how we cope with uncertainty, as well as our personal and relational resources to deal with it may be found in the structures of attachment relationships – which central feature is the degree of security they provide us – or in Erickon's concept of basic trust (1963, cit in Coimbra, 2005). In fact, taking into account an analysis of the importance of the activation of the attachment system in the way we deal with uncertainty in personal and social terms, Peter Marris (1996) describes uncertainty as being created by our needs of order and predictability. This need is developed since childhood in the context of our primary attachment relationships, through which we construct internal working models that allow us to understand and give meaning to the world and everything that surrounds us. Therefore, "What constitutes uncertainty depends on what we want to be able to predict, what we can predict, and what we might be able to do about it. (…) When events are entirely beyond out control we no longer face the responsibility of acting, with all its anxieties." (Marris, 1996). The author supports that the contemporary society has generated an unequal distribution of power to control uncertainty and that the strategies that the disfavoured populations are led to use in order to control and manage uncertainty reinforce these same inequalities. Hence, this uncertainty described by Peter Marris seems already too distant from the human uncertainties of the past.

Considering subjectivity as a result of an historical development (Foucault, 1986), the process of weakening of past's collective and inclusive meta-narratives that had the role of giving a coherent meaning to human existence, seems to have created a new challenge for the individual in terms of the construction of psychological meanings that give a sense of consistency to experiences in a context characterized by these new forms of uncertainty, ambiguity, insecurity and, mainly, of greater complexity (Coimbra, 2005).Consequently, by freeing ourselves of collective meta-narratives, we appear to have contributed to the development of the individualized society proposed by Bauman (2002). This apparently freeing process seems, not only, to have created new forms of uncertainty, but also to have contributed to form an individualization characterized by loneliness, ambivalence, ambiguity, insecurity, through which we have lost the possibility of control over the present and, therefore, of planning for the future. "Uncertainty is today a powerful individualization force. It divides instead of unifying and because there is no way of telling who will survive this division, the idea of "common interests" becomes even vaguer, and at last incomprehensible." (Bauman, 2002).

This research positions itself in a constructivist, developmental and social constructionist framework, considering that to understand the psychological meaning of uncertainty and its new emerging forms will be fundamental to take into account:

- That the construction of daily life knowledge, which has a predominantly pragmatic orientation, is based on the surrounding discourses and on the social construction of reality that is "internalized" and allows us to give meaning to our individual experience (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Gergen, 1998);
- That the influence of self organization processes throughout life and relationships and the way we integrate our relational stories and give meaning to events, the world and others (Guidano, 1991; Mahoney, 1991), will allow us to construct a viable and coherent life narrative.

Uncertainty as an invariant of Human experience – Results from research in this scope

According to some authors, uncertainty can be perceived as the way individuals understand information in situations that can be characterized as uncertain and how they respond with a set of reactions at a cognitive, emotional and behavioral level (Freeston et al., 1994). As defined by Monat, Averill & Lazarus (1972), uncertainty is the period of anticipation, prior to the confrontation with an event potentially threatening, or perceived as such. Stress under these conditions varies according to the individual's efforts to assess and deal with the event.

In the scope of the research on uncertainty, some constructs have been analyzed, namely Intolerance to Ambiguity (IA) and Intolerance to Uncertainty (IU). Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur (2005) describe how during decades these concepts have been used by researchers in an indistinct fashion, defining them as similar. IA can be portrayed as a tendency individuals may demonstrate to interpret an ambiguous situation as a threat or a menace and a source of discomfort (Budner, 1962; Campbell & Tesser, 1983; Kirton, 1981; MacDonald, 1970; Majid & Pragasam, 1997; McLain, 1993 cit in Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur, 2005). According to Bhushan & Amal (1986), ambiguous situations involve novelty, complexity, unpredictability and uncertainty and individuals respond to these situations with a set of cognitive (rigidity), emotional (discomfort, disliking, anger or anxiety) and behavioral (rejection or withdrawal) reactions.

In what concerns IU, Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur (2005) describe how, along the 1990's, its definition suffered some changes. Freeston, Rhe'aume, Letarte, Dugas, & Ladouceur (1994, cit in Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur, 2005) define IU as the way the individual perceives information in ambiguous situations and responds to that information with a set of reactions at a cognitive, emotional and behavioral level. Ladouceur et al. (1995, cit in Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur, 2005) define it as the way the individual perceives information in an uncertain and ambiguous situation and manifests with a set of cognitive, emotional and behavioral reactions. In 2000, the same author (cit in Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur, 2005), defines it as a predisposition to react negatively towards an event that may be considered uncertain, independently of the perceived probability and the associated consequences to that event. On the other hand, Dugas et al. (2001, cit in Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur, 2005), define IU as the excessive tendency of an individual to consider as unacceptable a negative event to occur, even if its probability is small. In 2005, Dugas et al. (cit in Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur, 2005), perceived it as an excessive tendency to consider that uncertain situations are stressors and perceived as upsetting, to believe that

unexpected events are negative in itself and, therefore, to be avoided, and to think that not being sure about the future isn't fair.

Consequently, we can confirm that the first definitions of IU were very similar to the ones of IA (Freeston et al., 1994; Ladouceur et al., 1995, cit in Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur, 2005), and based on its conceptualization (Frenkel-Brunswik, 1948, 1949, cit in Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur, 2005). However, the definition of IU of Dugas et al. (2005), clearly reflects an emotional state that is oriented to the future, which allows us to distinguish this concept from IA, which is defined as being directed to a situation of ambiguity that takes place in the present (Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur, 2005).

Some of the main results in research on IU indicate that this concept has a unique contribution as a predictor of development of an excessive preoccupation (Dugas, Freeston & Ladoucer (1997). In fact, it seems to have a strong relation with the concept of "worry", and this relation doesn't seem to be explained by any other factors associated with worry, as anxiety or depression (Burh & Dugas, 2002).

Other research suggests that, in the face of uncertainty in the modern life, individuals turn to materialism as a means to deal with uncertainty when experiencing doubt about the self or by perceiving uncertainty in society as a form of anomy (Chang, LinChiat & Arkin, 2002). These results seem to support Peter Marris' (1996) thesis that describes that a sense of reduced power to control uncertainty is managed by the less favored through personal and social alienation, namely through consumption.

Method

Greco & Rogers (2001; 2002) developed and validated a scale that intends to assess coping styles towards uncertainty - the *Uncertainty Response Scale* (URS). The scale is composed by three factors, all of which demonstrate internal validity and high alpha coefficients, presenting adequate psychometric qualities. The three dimensions are:

A) Emotional Uncertainty: the content of the items suggests that emotional uncertainty constitutes a style of non adaptive coping and the subjects would respond to uncertainty with anxiety and sadness. This means this dimension assesses individual differences in the way uncertainty is perceived as a stressor.

B) Desire for change: these items reflect a desire for change which can be characterized as an enjoyment of uncertainty, novelty and change.

C) Cognitive Uncertainty: this dimension intends to assess the need individuals have to plan the future ahead, to clarify and gather information as strategies to avoid ambiguity.

According to the authors, one of the factors that suggest implications in individual styles of coping with uncertainty is tolerance to ambiguity. However, up to the moment, the scales that assessed IA presented some problems from the psychometric point of view (low internal consistency). Consequently, the authors sought to integrate not only contributions from research in the area of IA, but also, results from research in the area of IU, trying to complement research in the area of uncertainty, creating a new assessment instrument that could overcome the psychometric problems from the instruments used until then.

We consider the psychological dimensions of the experience of uncertainty fundamental to understanding this concept and that is why the URS contribution will be significant in further studies. However, we believe that not only a psychological approach to this concept will be sufficient, but also a sociological, anthropological and political perspective would be necessary for the study of the way individuals perceive and cope with uncertainty, considering the individual consequences of nowadays' unequal distribution of power to control uncertainty(Marris, 1996).

Thus, the original contribute of the present research resides in an effort to develop a new pool of items, based on the theoretical perspective of Marris (1996), expecting to reflect some of the consequences of the new forms of uncertainty proposed by the author:

- The tendency to blame oneself for the wrongs of the world as a strategy to manage and control uncertainty – suspecting oneself as a less frightening alternative to seeing how the societies we live in are not trustworthy.
- "Annihilating the meanings of others in the interests of truth is a form of killing." (Marris, 1996) – used as a form of power and subdue of the disfavored population;
- Individualism in societies as an origin of greater uncertainty, insecurity and competitiveness.
- Security as a consumption asset that can be created or destroyed in the process of its distribution.
- Self-defeating strategies of alienation or victim blaming as forms to cope with uncertainty.

So, this scale is related to the experience and perception of uncertainty in the social context in its psychological dimension. In other words, we're trying to understand how the psychological individual experiences and controls uncertainty and everything that is felt as unpredictable, ambiguous and contradictory in the contemporary social world; how he gives meaning to events in order to maintain a minimal and reasonable sense of predictability in relationships, and simultaneously preserves a sense of internal coherence and of external coherence regarding others and the world, within a cultural context in which you cannot ignore the effects of political devices of unequal distribution of insecurity and uncertainty.

As a result, with the adaptation and validation of the URS and with the creation of this scale, we intend to innovate methodologies in order to foster an integrated analysis of uncertainty following a framework that isn't limited to psychological *vs* social perspectives.

Both scales have a five-point Likert response format (between Almost Never and Always). The 48 items version of the URS and the 22 new items were administered to a sample of 1596 subjects, from which 708 were active professionals and 888 were Higher Education students. 1128 were female and 408 were men. Age ranges from 18 to 70 and the total mean age is 26, 98 (S.D. = 8, 66). Women's mean age is 26, 14 and men's 29, 02. Taking into account the subjects' activity, students' mean age is 23, 15, while professional's mean age is 31, 80.

Results

Regarding the URS, a factor analysis was performed and following a scree test a three-factor terminal solution was obtained by Varimax orthogonal rotation, as in its original version. Using an exclusion criterion of 0.50, from the 48 items, 39 loaded significantly on the three factors, and were distributed in the following structure: 15 on factor 1 (Emotional Uncertainty), 13 on factor 2 (Desire for Change) and 11 on factor 3 (Cognitive Uncertainty). All items loaded according to what was predicted in each original factor. Total variance explained reached 44,75% and regarding the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy the result was 0.94 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity demonstrated p=0.000 significance.

Internal consistency for each factor was assessed by coefficient alpha and its results can be analysed in the table below.

Table 1: Internal Consistency Coefficient Alphas from URS (Greco & Rogers, 2001) and from the Portuguese Version.

Dimension/Factor	Internal Consistency Coefficient Alpha (n=505) (Greco & Rogers, 2001)	Internal Consistency Coefficient Alpha Portuguese Version (n=1596)	E.g. Items
Emotional Uncertainty	0,89	0,91	- I feel anxious when things are changing. - I get worried when a situation is uncertain.
Desire for change	0,90	0,88	- I find the prospect of change exciting and stimulating. - I like to think of a new experience in terms of a challenge.
Cognitive Uncertainty	0,85	0,84	- I try to have my life and career clearly mapped out. - I like things to be ordered and in place, both at work and at home.

In what concerns the new pool of items, a factor analysis was performed in the same way and following a scree test a three-factor terminal solution was obtained. Using an exclusion criterion of 0.50, from the 22 items, 10 loaded significantly on three different factors: 5 on factor 1, 3 on factor 2 and 2 on factor 3. Total variance explained reached 63,48% and regarding the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy the result was 0.83 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity demonstrated p=0.000 significance.

Internal consistency in these three factors apparently reinforces the reliability of this pool of items.

Table 2: Internal Consistency Coefficient Alphas from the pool of items created.

Dimension/ Factor	Internal Consistency Coefficient Alpha (n=1596)	E.g. Items
F1	0,81	- Considering the characteristics of the work market today, I feel decision making is getting harder than before.
F2	0,72	- The way life is organized in the cities makes me think that I can't rely on others when I'm in trouble.
F3	0,65	- I believe I can control my future.

In what concerns the reliability of Factor 3, we took into account Pallant's (2001) contribute, considering that, although its Cronbach Alphas's value is below 0.7, since this is a small factor, the mean inter-item correlation must be considered. Therefore, we consider these results to be acceptable, given that the mean inter-item correlation is .48 and, thus, close to Briggs and Cheek's (1986 cit in Pallant 2001) recommended values (between .2 to .4).

Discussion

Although we still have not explored results in a more complex fashion, which we intent to do in the near future (e.g. correlating the results with macro systemic variables, "type" of subjects in terms of professional situation, etc.) and even though we still have not a confirmatory analysis of these results, we believe that the stability of the factorial structure of the URS Portuguese version (with strong and similar internal consistency coefficient alphas) is a good indicator of the test's validity in the assessment of coping strategies towards uncertainty in the Portuguese population.

Regarding the new pool of items that were developed based on Peter Marris' (1996) contribute, an analysis of the items organization suggests that three possible psychological meanings of the new forms of uncertainty proposed by Marris loaded more significantly. In fact, although we could identify different areas in these 22 items, our objective was to somehow reflect some of the individual psychological consequences of a perception of uncertainty in the social context. Therefore, given the complexity of some of these theoretical formulations, only 10 items loaded significantly and in a logical three factor arrangement.

From what we expected, the first factor could be viewed as related to security as a consumption asset that can be created or destroyed in the process of its distribution, reflecting people's preoccupation with matters of employment and world changes' consequences in this area. The second factor seems to reflect a possible form of individualism in societies as an origin of greater uncertainty, insecurity and competitiveness in relationships. Apparently the third factor clashes with the previous, conveying a sense of resilience when facing uncertainty.

On the other hand, we consider significant the fact that these 3 factors have good or acceptable internal consistency coefficient alphas if we take into consideration the number of items per factor. Hence, we believe this scale to be promising given that it allows us to assess, not only perception of uncertainty in the social context but a sense of the impact it may have

on individuals in some areas of their life. Therefore, this three factor solution could be amplified in future researches in order to strengthen its psychometric qualities and internal consistency.

As previously stated, we are still exploring these data in order to achieve two other objectives: to analyze the role, importance and psychological determinants of the experience of uncertainty in different groups in the population (e.g.: youngster, young adults, adults) and to study the psychological antecedents and consequents of the experience of uncertainty. This will allow us to test more significantly both tests psychometric qualities.

To sum up, to fully comprehend and reflect on the new forms of uncertainty in contemporary life, we must articulate psychological dimensions of the experience of uncertainty (to which we expect that the URS will attend) and an introduction of sociological, anthropological and political dimensions so we can understand how individuals perceive and cope with uncertainty in a complex and integrated fashion, taking into account the consequences of an unequal distribution of power to control and manage this uncertainty (Marris, 1996) , to which we expect this new pool of items to attend.

Therefore, with the adaptation and validation of the URS and the development of a new scale we intend to foster a more complex and integrated study in order to understand the interaction between psychological and sociological perspectives in the genesis of experiences regarding situations that are nowadays lived and defined as uncertain, incontrollable, unpredictable, undetermined and even insecure, all making possible to limit individuals' and communities' actions to, autonomously, influence their present and future.

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Intercultural Competencies and Coping of Trauma

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Abstract

The present research is a preliminary case study, about the translation of competencies from experiences to aptitudinal processes, particularly in an uncertain and unknown environment. In this paper, we will specifically interrogate the competencies build in cultural contact (Denoux, 1994) and the coping abilities developed by migrant subject who has to face to a pre-migratory traumatism (Crocq, 2000), and an intercultural and uncertain environment.

This explorative work is based on a phenomenological approach descending from Husserl's philosophy. Our detailed case study analysed by MCA-Minnerva (Sages, 2003) permits us to reach several layers of meaning of the subject's words, by suspending our understanding's horizons. The participant link their traumatic experiences with their success immigration without being able to explain which process are used. These connection invite us to explore more precisely how are connected the overtaking of traumatism and intercultural competencies develope in immigration.

Introduction

This research has been elaborated around three theoretical approaches, to know intercultural psychology, clinical psychology of traumatism and social psychology of the migration.

An explorative qualitative work will be proposed here in order to better identify the meaning of over taking a traumatism the uncertain experience of the intercultural and which competencies are developed by migrants to deal with this challenge.

Our intuitive experience shows us a co-occurrence between coping with pre-migratory trauma and a good integration in the host country. It leads us to put forward the intuition of a link between the development of intercultural skills and the resolution of a traumatism. Indeed, these two concepts appear to us to be closely connected. But before to interrogate this pre-supposed positive link between metabolized intercultural contact and coping of the trauma, it seems essential to us to understand what intercultural competencies are for the migrants themselves ? Which sense do they give to their traumatic past experiences? To this end we will use for this explorative work a phenomenological approach based on Husserl’s philosophy.

With « Logical investigations » (1900-1901), Edmund Husserl initiates a trend in lot of aspects of the scientific world, relativity, cosmology, quantik mecanik, and has linked psychology, human sciences and philosophy in an inseparable way. It is the beginning of phenomenological psychology that makes us reconsider the trend of reducing subjects and world to an object. According to phenomenological perspective, the access to a meaning constitution with several layers is not possible without some starting conditions. The aim of this approach is to explain the essential nature of the phenomena thanks to the pre-reflection, reflection and reduction. This method permits us to correct our own conscious experiences and open us to new horizons of understanding and the possibility of discovery beyond that of

the limits of our pre-comprehensions. For Moustakas (1994) the challenge is to construct a complete textual description of the subjective experience studied. Indeed, each individual tackles an object with a bundle of intentional acts, revealing one or another of the object's characteristics. Each reality exists in continuous movement of creation of sense. In front of a multi-faceted object which is always at least partly different from a pure, total reality, understanding the essence of the traumatism and immigration, what are intercultural competencies, is essential before to study these concepts.

This process, to describe the reachness of personnal experiences, that Husserl (1925/1928) named the transcendental phenomenological reduction refers to the singularity of each phenomenon. It means to do a synthesis not in the reductionist meaning of this term but in the sense of doing an effort to find the reachness of sedimentation in the genesis of the sense, usually thanks to a content analysis.

The phenomenological approach excludes the possibility of a direct perception of "pure" facts, seeing them necessarily as subjective and idiosyncratic. Indeed the subjectivity is the best way to attempt the source and all the reachness of the different layers of meaning. They see knowledge and researcher as interdependent, where values are part and parcels of the process of knowing and knowledge formation.

For this study we have decided to focus on the analysis of life stories. Phenomenology recognizes that the researcher is automatically involved in the investigation as an interviewer, an observer, or a leader. Indeed the self of the researcher is present through the process of understanding of phenomena and should be conscious. In transcendental phenomenology (Moustakas, 1994), we speak about involvement and immersion in the subject, of incubation and explanation. The challenge for the researcher is to describe things as they are, to enter in the meaning and the essence of the consciousness and understanding, thanks to intuition and auto-reflection. Human expertise of the researcher is necessary to clarify, resume and explore the atypical or idiosyncratic responses. Human beings are too complex for one-dimensional instrument, then the observer should enter in a dynamic and mutual relationship. He will be connected to the culture and conscious of his own subjectivity in order to analyse the sense expressed by the subject.

Husserl (1925/1928) recognizes the legitimacy of this subjectivity like Descartes in the Sixth Meditation who states that the process of constitution of the world is itself a realisation of subjectivity. According to Sages (2003), subjectivity is validated by inter-subjectivity; the ego and the alter-ego give various perspectives on the sense of the experience. It is never only a private matter, but always a dialectic constitution which prove the validity of our subjectivity: my world becomes the objective world if and only if it is concordant with other's subjective experiences.

One of the principal concepts in Husserl's (1925/1928) phenomenology is what he calls Epoch. The idea is not doubting of the world's reality but to set aside our pre-understanding of this world, to suspend our personal experiences so as to study phenomena in and by themselves. It means to fight our prejudices, our preconceived ideas and expectations in order to achieve a critical and deep comprehension of the phenomena. In concrete terms it means to mobilize in the same time concentration, presence and to open ourselves as much as possible to the world as expressed by the subject under study. Phenomenology puts the emphasis on the possibility for the researcher to correct his expectations during his investigation, but also to adjust his sample during the study: it is the "emergent design". Not being flexible enough to do this may result in missing something new (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994), it is in this perspective that we led our study.

Study the overtaking of traumatism during forced migration oblige us to know the way how "traumatism" appears to the personn? What it means to live abroad and which strategies the subject used to deal with all these challenges. Indeed, Barudy (1989), insist on the brutality of a cultural change especially associated to a psychologic trauma. According to him it is an important risk-factor. However, it is not rare to speak about resiliency or self-realization concerning immigrants (Manciaux, 2001). It dépends of first of all of the equilibrium state before the pre-migratory traumatism, secondly the nature of the traumatism, and finally the acculturative phase of migration.

We will tackle the concept of traumatism in a clinical and intercultural psychological perspective. We will prefer the term of "psycho traumatic syndrome" offered by Crocq (2000) that he opposes to the notion of PTSD. According to him, "stress" is an acute demonstration, ephemeral, and immediate that is not in concordance with the time of latency before traumatic symptoms. We will use an integrative definition of the traumatism, that considers trauma as an entering sparking of anxiety without limitation, intolerable who flummox the subject, and fix him in his inability to symbolise and give some sense to what is happening to him. Chessari (2005) speaks about the surprise of death reality *"killing in reality, in present but also killing after the fact and in the absence. Killing the idea of the Other"*. She insists on the importance of words. Crocq (2000) explains that it is not about declaiming trauma, he asks patients to try to remember details, emotions that make that this experience is insufferable for them. According to him this way to speak about his experience will permit to put in movement, find sense to this unthinkable experience.

Concerning the acculturation, migrant people and groups use different strategies to create their new life abroad. In the Berry's Model (1988) the state of acculturation the more valuable is "integration". The individual will develop his own capacities of empathy, tolerance, understanding, reconsideration of himself that are essential in intercultural competencies.

The situations of immigration are particularly sensitive since it means building a new identity engendered by a statute change, new links, and a host country to integrate. Denoux (1994) speaks about the necessity to metabolise intercultural contact to create new competencies. We speak then about "interculturation", "*for the individuals or groups belonging to two or several cultural groups, reclaiming from different cultures, or who could be referred, we will call interculturation the process by which in the interaction, they developed, and engage implicitly or explicitly the cultural difference that trend to metabolize."*Indeed each subject in contact with several cultures will learn to no longer analyse the world thanks to his personal cultural schemes of thinking. With time he will use different identity strategies (Camilleri, 1990). However, the basic Camilleri theory suggests acculturation as a linear process which concerns only the migrant. But for Vasquez (1991) it takes a part in occidental dominant/dominated relationships. The concepts of interculturation and the development of a tierce creative culture (Casmir,1978) has been privileged in this work. Denoux (1994) also criticises Camilleri idea of a "sense unity" of the subject, he recognizes the existence of a self unity built by memories but also put in light the notion of multiple aspects of identity.

Methodology

We have chosen to use the method of analysis of meaning constitution, the program Minnerva, (MCA, 4.3.0, 1997-2000) developed by R. Sages and based on the Husserl's

phenomenological approach (1925-1968). We have analysed written “self-reports”, “life stories”.

33% of our subjetcs live in Sweden and the others in France. We have a ratio women/ men 33% against 77%. The mean age is 46,8 years old, however 77% of them are over 55 years old, and the others under 55 and 25 years old. They have immigrated since at least 2 years ago. All of them consider themselves as political refugees. They come from Latin America, Middle-east and Asia.

The initial question that leads to the formulation of a life story has been carefully formulated to give to the subject the freedom to express all the aspects of a polysemantic life situation. We have asked our samples to write regarding their immigration (feelings, thoughts, emotions) and more precisely their trajectories (family, difficult experiences, competencies developed, change…)

The Minnerva software permitted us a phenomenological analysis, which is articulated around the reduction and the intentional analysis to define noetic and noematic senses of each expression. The aim is to formulate the horizon of comprehension of the subject and reach the world where he lives by exceeding our pre-understandings as a researcher, (Sages, 2003).

The first step that corresponding to Husserlian epoch is made by a systematic cut-out of the text in small meaning units. Each unit is associated to eight different modalities, that enlight the existential aspects of the personnn his way to be in the world. We then digress from our pre-comprehensions, cultural interpretations, and traditional prejudices to tackle the text with the most open-mind possible. These modalities should give us a better understanding of the experience coming from the deepest subjectivity of the person, enlightening his consciousness of the object (noesis) to the image of this one (noema). This cut-out permits us to see the text more precisely than it was with a natural first approach, as each item can now be seen to contain several meanings.

Unit	Meaning Unit	Modality			
1	Background	a. *Belief*	c. *Time*	e. *Will*	g. *Subject*
		b. *Function*	d. *Affect*	f. *Property*	
2	I have been living in Sweden	a. doxa-affirmation	c. always-recurrent	e. none	g. I
		b. perceptive	d. neutral	f. not stated	

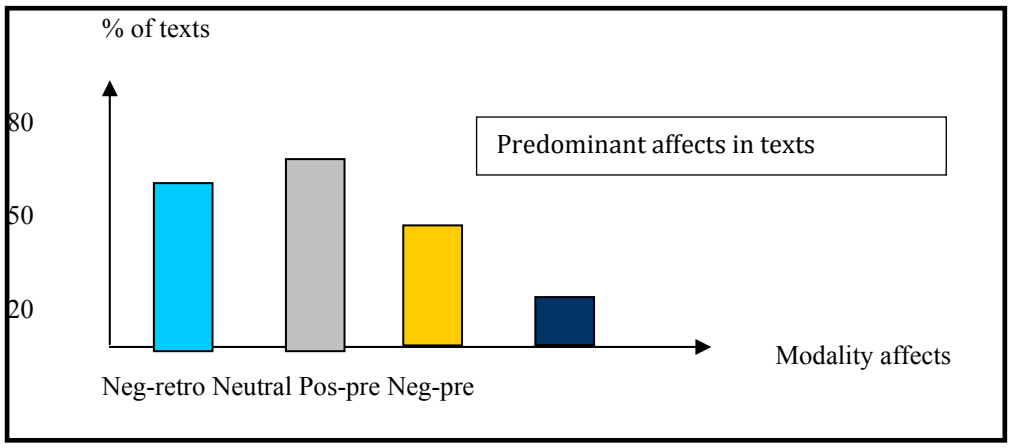
The next step is to isolate and enlighten the hardcore of each partial intention, we speak of entity that will be associated with predicates, it means all sense that can be related. We then underline how each entity lives in the subjective experience of the respondent, what is his profound signification for the individual. It is also very useful to limit the interpretations coming from natural pre-comprehension. Indeed, each unit is derived in partial intentions that constitute an overall view of the significant. The aim is to be as rigorous as possible to clarify all the senses possible of a cut-out unit, by this way, we create the noematic hardcore of the text.

The synthesis of all these steps permits us to have the complete image that the subject has of the object, in all its richness. We have an access to the noema, the meaning structure given by the person to its intended object, (the question asked) which gives us the opportunity of isolating the horizon of comprehension of our subject. We enter in the “life world” of the individual.

Discussed results

We would like through the analysis of the speech of our subjects to enlighten how our subjects have dealt with their traumatic experience in an intercultural new environment and if they have metabolized new competencies from this cultural contact.

Most of the subjects have responded in the language of their host country or in English but none of them has claimed their home language. Several subjects have felt the need to use Swedish terms to express typical ideas, but none have referred to their original language. Using a learned language is interesting to underline as it could explain the lack of affects and the neutral trend.



However, if we cautiously analyze the texts we also notice that the affects are not related to personal feelings, but more to global characteristics of the home/host country. Even if the "I" is dominating in 33% of the written documents, we see an emotional distance, by descriptive and factual texts. Each respondent stays very discreet on his suffering, hopes, fears and joys.

The "self-speaking" is certainly too difficult to tackle without a profound confident relationship with the researcher, but the conception of the Minnerva suppose that important thematic will be use several times, and the "neutral case" will be secondly maximised. Some of them have also adopted a very didactical tone as if they take us like a witness. That is rejoin Al-Badawi's analysis (2004) about the way of overcoming the trauma through account. He explains how much they need to find a sense to their experience. It is then fundamental for the host country to listen, and support their claims, to fade their guilt; recognize their suffering, or the threat they have received, legitimise their departure, their "betrayal" and then validate migration choice.

We have found that 77% of our texts have been evaluated as negative-retrospective that is usually the case for forced migrations. We could make the hypothesis that the trauma is still here and that the forgiveness is not elaborated by the individuals. This injury is then an obstacle to the realization process (Baldawi, 2004). They should also do their mourning of the last object of love (Martin, Steyaert & Deccache, 2005) and loose the close links with widen family or friends in their home country (Bullrich, Swartz, 1992) and their roots. The negative-retrospective affects could be linked with two major causes: on one hand a reject of their home country which has betrayed them (ie : Serrano (1977) explains that some refugees loose their nationality) and on another hand with the difficulty and suffering of being far

away from their culture and their close friends. It appears in several texts particularly with regrets to live far away from their parents.

However we notice in some life stories that negative-present is used in 17% of the texts, probably because subjects point at their problems to change them more than proudly underline their success. They reveal to us how the first contact with the native population is difficult. It is always a very delicate moment because of the difference between all fantasies and hopes of the immigrants and the reality with social economical difficulties. Indeed without the usual protective network, the host society seems aggressive in all cultural differences, and insecure because of the lack of attachment and safe framework. Nevertheless, we have found a positive-present trend that concerns 50% of the written documents. It probably means that the migratory trajectory is lived as successful and that besides the difficulties, people have been able to develop new competencies of adaptation and creation of strategies. Of course, the long term immigration of our participants favours these results but obviously they have success to get over the difficulties and focus on the positive aspects.

Concerning the subjects of the verbs "I" and "we" are preponderant, "we" concerning principally the family who takes part in the migration. However in some written documents the "host-home countries" are over-represented. In these cases it is about largely descriptive. The subject does not speak a lot about him, despite the intimate nature of a life story.

This dominance of "I" is reinforced by the possessive "my" that has been used 54 times. 63% of the "my" are related to family that proves to us that family is inherent in the migratory project, but also to the competencies developed that are 15% of the "my" use. It is very interesting to notice that the property "my" is never used for speaking about the traumatic events or the feelings as if this period was a part of their life profoundly hidden, and put in distance. We will notice that competencies that they speak about are usually related to their studies or their work; they stay in a very material, intellectual and concrete field, without thinking about the emotional, communicational, adaptative competencies. This trend could be explained by the unconscious aspects of these traits, and their very intimate character, it has been probably difficult for our subjects to disclose themselves first of all concerning who they are intimately and sensitively, and secondly to tackle some traumatic events in an emotional and not historical / didactical perspective.

Family		**Competencies**	**Trauma**
Family x 4	Sons x 2	Work	
Daughters x 3	Children x 4	Primary aim	Words associated to "my" Properties
Wife	Step-parents	Skill set	
Young child	Grand father x 2	Formation	
Etc.	Etc.	Etc.	

Most of our texts are articulated in the past and present which validates the idea of migratory trajectories (Denoux, 2007) from the project to the life as immigrant. The chart of the Iranian participant (detailed profile) illustrates the articulation between past and present.

Time	always-recurrent		3	5,08%
	empty		37	62,71%
	past		6	10,17%
	present		13	22,03%

It is obviously a trajectory that begins even before the departure in the mind of the individual and that continues years after the arrival in the country. A discourse that makes a past / present link could be an indication for the sense that subjects give to their route, for Al-Baldawi (2004) this research of sense is essential for the realization. The absence of future, of wish and aspiration or imagination could show us that individuals not project themselves in the future. Several explanations are possible, first the interest of our subjects to describing, but also that for some of them the only goal was to immigrate and they have not had time to prepare new objectives.

After these findings about the form of expressions in the texts we have done a global thematic analysis of our life stories.

Concerning the migratory project it is usually a personal or conjugal project, that does not concern the extended family, probably because of the urgency of the situation. Only a few subjects speak about the worry of their mother, but the decision is eminently personal in front of death threat. They haven't had the time to elaborate the mourning of their home country, but today they don't express the idea of a return to their home country. There is not a "return myth" as described by Martin, Steyaert & Deccache (2005) and participants seem to make the choice to cut all the too strong links with their home country probably because of the long time since their immigration.

We also notice that there is no guilt concerning their choice of migration, particularly with young subjects who want to build a life without any regrets. For the more politically engaged it has been a huge suffering to let a lot of people and friends dying in their home country and they have been very involved in France to denounce what happened in their country and help other families to escape dictators. However this engagement does not seem to fix them in their traumatism, they seem overtaken by their own violent experience to put in service of those who still need material and psychical help. They seem involved as a support for the traumatic event (ie : helping "the mothers of Plaza de Mayo"), but also at an intercultural level (helping new immigrants).

We have seen in the work of Martin, Steyaert & Deccache (2005), that there are three steps in migration. First, there is an "euphoric and relief phase", that we find in two participants and seems to be characteristic of violent immigrations. According to the same authors this period is followed by a disillusion, lack, mourning, guilt phase as explained in several of our texts. This negative phase is explained by a cold welcoming of the French population especially comparing to their fantasies. As the guilt, the miss of the family is not expressed in our texts, except for the Argentine subject that is now conscious of depriving her mother of her grandchild, or the other one who explains how he reduces his guilt thanks his activist investment for the coming back of democracy in his home country. It seems that retrospectively the miss can not be developed during the urgency of survival of everyday life.

The construction of the new life is in "the incertitude of a temporary that became permanent" (Marie, 1999), but also by fits and starts (Xavier de Brito, (1991). It is not something linear and it could explain that it is difficult for the participants to project themselves in the future as we have shown before. It seems that little by little people develop abilities to understand and integrate the values of their host country and became slowly a sort of leader for the exiled people.

These texts also showed us who had a supportive role when they arrived, and which network was helping for overtaking the dramatic experience. The words the most present in the texts are the ones related to home or migrant communities. It seems that people who have been through the same experiences are more supportive. They refer to "the other exile"; "the uncle' or "south American community". They seem to have a strong need to share their experiences and build their life together in their host country. In one text its community has decided the choice of the host country for material reasons and material help. These privileged links with a network have with no doubt a role in the construction of the overtaking of the trauma.

Iran	**Pakistan**	**Argentine 1**	**Argentine 2**	**Argentine 3**	**Vietnam**
	Friend	***Friend***	Friend	Friend	Uncle
		Exile	***latino***	Nancy Huston	Acquaintance
		Community		Milan Kundera	
		Mother of the « place de Mai »			

Tab for supportive figure in the texts: **Home** and *Host*

We could suppose that people live the migration like a "re-birth", a "re-creation process" that implies a new network, new work, and new hobbies or friends. The host community is rarely present in the texts and does not seem a support, sometimes it is even a negative factor if there is racism and discrimination. The description is often a bit caricatural and vague but migrants generally appreciate freedom of speech and tolerance values.

Another important topic is the signs of the realization process in the discourses of subjects at an individual, familial and communitarian level. No subjects seem to come from a resilient community that Garbarino (1992) describes as having a strong social richness, communitarian implication, supportive informal network, but it seems that South-American communities present these characteristics and could be a protective factor. The quality of the welcoming in the host country is considered as fundamental by Al-Baldawi (2004), because it should fill basics needs, needs of sense and attachment. The material need seems to have been more or less filled in Sweden and France because most of our subjects have found, a roof and a job, even if it seems more difficult today than a few years ago. Concerning the attachment needs, the host country should favour the existence of a social, familial and communitarian network in the host country for example giving language lessons. For sensory needs we saw in our texts how important is the admission of the troubles that have had immigrants in their home country. For our subjects the situation seem pretty good, because they have received some papers without many troubles. Most of our participants seem to be happy of their freedom of speech or activism to help their home country.

Even if family is representative of continuity in the life of a migrant, we do not find in our text any mark of support or role of bridge to exterior world (Vatz-Laaroussi, 1999). In contrary divorces show us that family has exploded with immigration. This observation put back the idea that the migrant individual is looking for continuity. Finally we saw that our subjects do not try to recreate an identical life. They try to enjoy as much as possible the new perspectives offered. Away from preserving continuity (ie: help to the immigration of the other members of the family) they privileged their professional career synonym of a new departure. They get involved in a process of re-creation, where the rest of the family has not always his place but the other exiles have an essential role. If this adaptation is not at the same speed for all family members the risk of separation is increased tenfold, and it could

explain that 50% of our subjects in couple during the migration are now divorced. Indeed symbolically the installation in a new country is often seen as a new departure. The subject became conscious more or less quickly that he should bury the past if he wants to build something strong in his host country, and not stay torn between one's home country, one's host country, that rejoins Denoux's study (2007). They seem in our written documents to be in a process of "re-creation", which is in adequation with the idea of creating a third culture (Casmir, 1978) and multiple aspects of identities (Denoux, 1994).

All these texts seem to show us that participants are in an interculturative strategy of immigration. Indeed, they have built a new life in their host country and have a positive but realistic look on their trajectories. They have developed intense relationships with both, home and host communities, and are now able to understand the scheme of thinking from each culture. Most of them are tutors for the newcomers and are recognized and appreciate in their work and personal life. To attempt this harmonious aim, they recognize that their life-story shaped them without being able to explain exactly which competencies they have developed. Several of them present a real modesty and minimalize on one hand their traumatic experience and on the other hand their immigration success, but in their words and in their sentence structure this both thematic are very closely overlapped, and seems follow the same way to a psychological wellness.

Conclusion

This explorative research confirms our primary intuition of a paralleled link between overtaking of a traumatism and metabolise intercultural competencies. But the content of this link, the similarities between coping abilities and intercultural abilities has not been very elaborate by our respondent, probably because of the method of collection of data, which guarantee a free speech of the subject but does not permit detailed answer on one tiny subject.

However, if we theorically interrogate this connection, by comparing for example several scales of intercultural competencies and coping of trauma, it appears clearly that several evaluation criteria are in echo. According to us, these two notions take shape around the threepart concept of resolution of task-problem-conflict. Indeed, this notion of resolution makes sense at the same time in the situation of pluricultural contacts and in the overtaking of trauma, where individuals have to face to violent change and aggression. In both cases they have to give sense to their experiences, in face to uncertain and affraying environment. Subjects have to metabolise adjustment strategies, communicative behaviours, social appropriate relationship (by sharing emotions, being supportive of the others for example), tolerance to ambiguity, incertitude, flexibility of the role, recreating links between pulsions, symbolism and reality.

It is in this perspective that we today continue to develop this explorative work, through non-directive interview. We hypothesis that using "intercultural" strategies of acculturation, will favour the overtaking of the pre-migratory process, and that others strategies could be a risk factor for the psychological wellness of people presenting post-traumatic syndromes.

Bibliographie

For a list of references, please contact the author.